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Authors
Georgiadis, G.
Rajaram, K.

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The Retail Planning Problem Under Demand Uncertainty

George Georgiadis, Kumar Rajaram

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UCLA Anderson School of Management, Los Angeles, California, USA

georgiadis@ucla.edu, krajaram@anderson.ucla.edu

Abstract

We consider the Retail Planning Problem in which the retailer chooses suppliers, and determines the production, distribution and inventory planning for products with uncertain demand in order to minimize total expected costs. This problem is often faced by large retail chains that carry private label products. We formulate this problem as a convex mixed integer program and show that it is strongly NP-hard. We determine a lower bound by applying a Lagrangean relaxation and show that this bound outperforms the standard convex programming relaxation, while being computationally efficient. We also establish a worst-case error bound for the Lagrangean relaxation. We then develop heuristics to generate feasible solutions. Our computational results indicate that our convex programming heuristic yields feasible solutions that are close to optimal with an average suboptimality gap at 3.4%. We also develop managerial insights for practitioners who choose suppliers, and make production, distribution and inventory decisions in the supply chain.

Keywords: Retailing, facility location, inventory management, stochastic demand, newsvendor, Lagrangean relaxation, heuristics, nonlinear integer programming.
1 Introduction

Retail store chains typically carry private label merchandise. For example, department store chain Macy’s carries several private label brands such as Alfani, Club Room, Hotel Collection and others. Similarly, Target, J. C. Penney and others carry their own private label brands. Other retail store chains such as GAP, H&M and Zara carry private label products exclusively. Private labels allow firms to differentiate their products from those of their competitors, enhance customer loyalty, and they typically provide higher profit margins. However, these benefits are accompanied by additional challenges. The retailer must plan the entire supply chain by selecting suppliers, and by making decisions on production, distribution and inventory at the retail (and possibly other) locations for each of these private label products in order to minimize total costs. This problem can be complicated when there is a large number of products with uncertain demand that can be sourced from various suppliers, and they are distributed across various demand zones. An example of such a supply chain is illustrated in figure 1.

Private label products can be produced in-house, or production can be outsourced to third party suppliers. Without loss of generality, we refer to these options as suppliers. Supplier
choice entails fixed costs such as building and staffing a plant when producing in-house or negotiation, contracting and tooling costs when outsourcing it. Each production facility can manufacture multiple products interchangeably, and there are economies of scale in manufacturing and distribution. Demand at each zone (i.e., store or city) is stochastic and inventory is carried at every demand zone. Here, demand zones can be interpreted either as retail stores, or as distribution centers (DC’s). The retailer incurs overstock and understock costs for leftover inventory and unmet demand, respectively. In this context, there are three types of decisions. First, the retailer needs to decide which suppliers to choose. Second, they need to conduct production and logistics planning. Third, inventory management decisions on how much of each product to stock at each demand zone need to be made.

We develop the retail planning problem under uncertainty to address these decisions. In this problem, we model the selection of suppliers, production, distribution and inventory decisions faced by the retailer as a nonlinear mixed integer program that minimizes total expected costs. We show that this problem is convex and strongly NP-hard. An interesting attribute of this problem is that it combines two well-known subproblems: a generalized multi-commodity facility location problem and a newsvendor problem. We exploit this structure to develop computationally efficient heuristics to generate feasible solutions. In addition, we apply a Lagrangean relaxation to obtain a lower bound, which we use to assess the quality of the feasible solutions provided by the heuristics. We show that the feasible solutions of a convex programming heuristic are close to optimal: on average within 3.4% of optimal, while in the majority of cases they are closer to optimal as evidenced by the 2.8% median suboptimality gap. Further, the performance gap of this heuristic improves with larger problem sizes, and the computational time of this heuristic scales up approximately linearly in the problem size. We also conduct robustness checks and find that the performance of our convex programming heuristic, as well as its advantage relative to the benchmark practitioner’s heuristic is not sensitive to changes in the problem parameters. All these are desirable attributes for potential implementation in large-sized, real applications.

Our analysis enables us to draw several managerial insights. First, the optimal inventory level when solving the joint supplier choice, production, distribution and inventory problem is smaller than when the inventory subproblem is solved separately. Thus, in order to reduce

\footnote{With the latter interpretation we implicitly assume (i) that the locations of DCs and the assignment of stores to DCs are pre-determined, and (ii) that stores maintain only a minimal amount of inventory so that inventory costs at individual stores are negligible. This latter assumption is consistent with the existing literature (e.g., \cite{Shen et al. (2003)}). While it is plausible that management must also determine the location of DCs and allocate stores to DCs, we leave this important problem for future research.}
inventory costs across the supply chain, one needs to adopt an integrated approach to solve the joint problem. Second, it is important to consider the effect of downstream inventory decisions on upstream production and distribution costs. Our model provides a framework to analyze these decisions. Third, the two major costs that influence supply chain costs across the retailer are production costs and the understock costs associated with the variance in demand. Therefore retailers should focus on reducing these costs first before considering the effects of supplier capacity and contracting costs. Fourth, it is important to consider establishment, production, distribution and inventory costs together when choosing suppliers, because a supplier who is desirable in any one of these aspects may in fact not be the best overall choice. Our analysis provides a mechanism to integrate these aspects and pick the best set of suppliers.

Since one of the decisions considered in the retail planning problem under demand uncertainty is the establishment of production capacity by the explicit choice of suppliers, this problem can be placed in the broad category of facility location problems under uncertain demand. Aikens (1985), Drezner (1995), Owen and Daskin (1998), Snyder (2006), and Melo et al. (2009) provide comprehensive reviews. The problem with stochastic demand was first studied by Balachandran and Jain (1976) and Le Blanc (1977), who developed a branch and bound procedure, and a Lagrangean heuristic, respectively. This paper generalizes their models by considering multiple products, as well as incorporating economies of scale in production and distribution.

This paper is also related to Daskin et al. (2002) who studied a location-inventory problem in a supplier - DC - retailer network, where the planner’s problem is to determine (i) which DCs to establish, (ii) the inventory replenishment policy at each DC, and (iii) logistics between DCs and retailers. Shen (2005) studied a multi-commodity extension of Daskin et al. (2002) with economies of scale but without explicitly modeling inventory decisions and without capacity constraints. Relative to these papers, we incorporate economies of scale in both production and distribution, as well as capacity constraints at each supplier. Moreover, we explicitly model the inventory problem. Here, by using the newsvendor instead of a replenishment model to make inventory decisions, we capture features of the retail fashion industry, where lead times are long relative to product lifecycles so that inventory cannot be replenished mid-season, and unmet demand is lost, resulting in underage costs. A related problem was also studied by Shen et al. (2003), who investigate the benefits from...
risk-pooling by choosing some retailers to serve as DCs, and by Oszen et al. (2008) who studied a capacitated extension of Shen et al. (2003). However, in contrast to these papers we focus on the joint supplier choice, logistics and inventory planning problem, as opposed to the risk pooling effects from strategically locating DCs. This is because manufacturing is often outsourced to third party suppliers and contracts are volume-based, production and inventory decisions are best made simultaneously (Fisher and Rajaram (2000)). Finally, in contrast to all these papers, we motivate an important problem faced by retail chains carrying private label products, propose an effective methodology to generate feasible solutions for this problem, test it on realistic data to assess its performance, and develop insights that practitioners can use for choosing suppliers, and making production, distribution and inventory decisions.

The paper is organized as follows: In Section 2 we present the basic model formulation, in Section 3 we discuss the corresponding Lagrangean relaxation, while in Section 4 we propose heuristics. In Section 5 we present results from our numerical study. In Section 6 we summarize and provide future research directions.

2 Model Formulation

We formulate the retail planning problem under uncertainty as a nonlinear mixed-integer program. To provide a precise statement of this problem, we define:

Indices:

$I, J, K$: The set of possible suppliers, demand zones and products, respectively.

$i, j, k$: The subscripts for suppliers, demand zones and products, respectively.

Parameters:

$f_i$: Fixed annualized cost associated with choosing supplier $i$.

d$_{ik}$: Setup cost associated with producing product $k$ at supplier $i$.

e$_{ij}$: Setup cost associated with shipping from supplier $i$ to demand zone $j$.

c$_{ijk}$: Marginal cost to produce and ship product $k$ from supplier $i$ to demand zone $j$.

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$^3$For example, leading retailers H&M and GAP outsource 100% of their manufacturing, while Zara outsources approximately 40% of its manufacturing to third party suppliers (Tokatlı 2008). Anecdotal evidence suggests that Macy’s outsources all of its manufacturing.
\( L_i, U_i: \) Minimum acceptable throughput and capacity of supplier \( i \), respectively.

\( \alpha_{ijk}: \) Units of capacity consumed by a unit of product \( k \) at supplier \( i \) that is shipped to demand zone \( j \).

\( h_{jk} / p_{jk}: \) Per unit overstock / understock cost associated with satisfying demand for product \( k \) at demand zone \( j \).

\( \Phi_{jk}(\xi) / \phi_{jk}(\xi): \) The cumulative / probability density function of the demand distribution for product \( k \) at demand zone \( j \).

Decision variables:

\( z_i: \) 0–1 variable that equals 1 if supplier \( i \) is chosen to supply products, and 0 otherwise.

\( w_{ik}: \) 0–1 variable that equals 1 if product \( k \) is produced in supplier \( i \), and 0 otherwise.

\( v_{ij}: \) 0–1 variable that equals 1 if supplier \( i \) ships to demand zone \( j \), and 0 otherwise.

\( x_{ijk}: \) Quantity of product \( k \) shipped from supplier \( i \) to demand zone \( j \).

\( y_{jk}: \) Inventory level of product \( k \) carried at demand zone \( j \).

To capture economies of scale so that per-unit production and shipping costs decrease in quantity, we approximate these costs by a setup cost \( d_{ik} \) that is incurred to initiate production for each product \( k \) at every supplier \( i \), a setup cost \( e_{ij} \) that is incurred to ship from each supplier \( i \) to every demand zone \( j \), and a constant marginal cost \( c_{ijk} \) that is incurred to produce and distribute each additional unit. While a more complex cost structure could be desirable in some applications, we employ this structure as it captures economies of scale and it permits structural analysis of the problem.

To model the inventory problem faced by the retailer we employ the newsvendor model. In contrast to Daskin et. al. (2002) who use a \((Q, r)\) replenishment model, this paper is motivated by the fashion retail industry, where merchandise is often seasonal and lead times are long relative to the season length. Consequently, the retailer cannot replenish inventory mid-season so that unmet demand is lost, while leftover demand needs to be salvaged via mark downs at the end of the season. Therefore, the standard single-period newsvendor model would seem most appropriate here. Under this model, let \( S_{jk}(y) \) denote the expected overstock and understock cost associated with carrying \( y \) units of inventory for product \( k \) at demand zone \( j \). This can be written as

\[ S_{jk}(y) = \begin{cases} \int_{y}^{\infty} \Phi_{jk}(\xi) \, d\xi, & \text{overstock cost} \\ \int_{0}^{y} \phi_{jk}(\xi) \, d\xi, & \text{understock cost} \end{cases} \]
\[ S_{jk}(y) = h_{jk} \int_0^y (y - \xi) \phi_{jk}(\xi) \, d\xi + p_{jk} \int_y^\infty (\xi - y) \phi_{jk}(\xi) \, d\xi \quad (2.1) \]

\[ \implies S_{jk}(y) = (h_{jk} + p_{jk}) \int_0^y \Phi_{jk}(\xi) \, d\xi + p_{jk} [E(\xi) - y] \]

The problem of supplier selection, production, distribution, and inventory planning faced by the retailer can be expressed by the following nonlinear mixed-integer program, which we call the Retail Planning Problem (RPP):

\[
Z_P = \min \left\{ \sum_{i \in I} f_i z_i + \sum_{i \in I} \sum_{k \in K} d_{ik} w_{ik} + \sum_{i \in I} \sum_{j \in J} e_{ij} v_{ij} + \sum_{i \in I} \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} c_{ijk} x_{ijk} + \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} S_{jk}(y_{jk}) \right\}
\]

subject to

\[ \sum_{i \in I} x_{ijk} = y_{jk} \quad \forall j \in J, k \in K \quad (2.2) \]

\[ L_i z_i \leq \sum_{j} \sum_{k} \alpha_{ijk} x_{ijk} \leq U_i z_i \quad \forall i \in I \quad (2.3) \]

\[ \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_{ijk} x_{ijk} \leq U_i w_{ik} \quad \forall i \in I, k \in K \quad (2.4) \]

\[ \sum_{k \in K} \alpha_{ijk} x_{ijk} \leq U_i v_{ij} \quad \forall i \in I, j \in J \quad (2.5) \]

\[ x_{ijk} \geq 0, \quad y_{jk} \geq 0 \quad \forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K \quad (2.6) \]

\[ w_{ik} \in \{0, 1\}, \quad v_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}, \quad z_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K \quad (2.7) \]

The objective function of the RPP consists of four terms. The first term represents the annualized fixed cost associated with securing capacity at supplier \(i\). The second term represents the setup cost associated with production, while the third term represents the setup cost associated with distribution. The fourth term represents the corresponding (constant) marginal production and distribution costs. The fifth term represents the total expected cost associated with carrying inventory at the demand zones.

Constraint (2.2) ensures that total inventory level for each product at every demand zone equals the total quantity produced and shipped to that zone. Note that it is also a coupling constraint. Were it not for (2.2), the RPP would decompose by supplier \(i\) into a set of mixed
integer linear problems, and by demand zone $j$ and product $k$ into a set of newsvendor problems. This observation suggests that this may be a good candidate constraint to use in any eventual decomposition of the problem. The left hand side inequality of (2.3) imposes a lower bound on the minimum allowable throughput of a supplier, if the supplier is selected. A lower bound on a supplier’s throughput may be desirable in order to achieve sufficient economies of scale. The right hand side inequality of (2.3) imposes the capacity constraint (i.e., $U_i$) for each supplier that is selected, and it enforces that no production will take place with suppliers that are not selected. Constraint (2.4) enforces the condition that $x_{ijk} > 0$ if and only if product $k$ is produced at supplier $i$ (i.e., iff $w_{ik} = 1$ for some $j \in J$), while (2.5) enforces the condition that $x_{ijk} > 0$ if and only if some quantity is shipped from supplier $i$ to demand zone $j$ (i.e., iff $v_{ij} = 1$ for some $k \in K$). Finally (2.6) are non-negativity constraints, while (2.7) are binary constraints.

Observe that the RPP is a convex mixed integer program since it consists of a linear generalized facility location subproblem and a convex inventory planning subproblem. By noting that the Capacitated Plant Location Problem (CPLP) is strongly NP-hard (Cornuejols et. al. (1991)), it can be shown that the RPP is also strongly NP-hard. Therefore, it is unlikely that real-sized problems can be solved to optimality. We verify this in our computational results. Consequently, it is desirable to develop heuristics to address this problem. The quality of these heuristics can be assessed by comparing them to a lower bound, which we establish in the next section.

3 Decomposition & Lower Bounds

In order to obtain a tight lower bound, we apply a Lagrangean relaxation to the RPP (see Geoffrion (1974) and Fisher (1981)). An important issue when designing a Lagrangean relaxation is deciding which constraints to relax. In making this choice, it is important to strike a suitable compromise between solving the relaxed problem efficiently and yielding a relatively tight bound. Observe that by relaxing (2.2), the problem can be decomposed into a mixed integer linear program (MILP) containing the $x_{ijk}$, $w_{ik}$, $v_{ij}$, and $z_i$ variables, and into a convex program containing the $y_{jk}$ variables. Moreover, this relaxation enables us to further decompose the MILP by supplier (i.e., by $i$), and the convex program by demand zone and product (i.e., by $j$ and $k$) into multiple subproblems. A key attribute of this decomposition

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4This result can be shown by reducing an instance of the RPP to the CPLP. Specifically, in this reduction, let (i) demand assume a degenerate probability distribution, (ii) the overage and underage costs to be arbitrarily large (i.e., $h_{jk}$ and $p_{jk} \to \infty \forall j, k$), (iii) $d_{ik} = 0$ and $e_{ij} = 0 \forall i, j, k$, (iv) $L_i = 0 \forall i \in I$, and (v) $U_i$’s take values from the set $\{1, \ldots, p\}$ for any fixed $p \geq 3 \forall i \in I$. 

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is that all subproblems can be solved analytically. On the other hand, a potential concern is that this decomposition generates a relatively large number of dual multipliers: $J \times K$ of them, which we denote by $\lambda_{jk}$. Relaxing (2.2) for a given $J \times K$-matrix $\lambda$ of multipliers, the Lagrangean function takes the following form:

$$(L_\lambda)$$

$L(\lambda) = \min \sum_{i \in I} \left[ f_i z_i + \sum_{k \in K} \left( d_{ik} w_{ik} + \sum_{j \in J} \left( c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk} \right) x_{ijk} \right) + \sum_{j \in J} e_{ij} v_{ij} \right] + \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} \left[ \lambda_{jk} y_{jk} + S_{jk} (y_{jk}) \right]$  

subject to (2.3), (2.4), (2.5), (2.6) and (2.7).

Note that $(L_\lambda)$ decomposes by $i$ into $I$ independent production and distribution subproblems, and by $j$ and $k$ into $J \times K$ independent inventory subproblems. More specifically, (3.1) can be re-written as:

$L(\lambda) = \sum_{i \in I} L_{milp}^i (\lambda) + \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} L_{cvx}^{jk} (\lambda)$

where

$L_{milp}^i (\lambda) = \min \left\{ f_i z_i + \sum_{k \in K} \left[ d_{ik} w_{ik} + \sum_{j \in J} \left( c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk} \right) x_{ijk} \right] + \sum_{j \in J} e_{ij} v_{ij} \right\}$

and

$L_{cvx}^{jk} (\lambda) = \min \{ \lambda_{jk} y_{jk} + S_{jk} (y_{jk}) \}$

Note that the Lagrangean multipliers in the production and distribution subproblems (i.e., $L_{milp}^i (\lambda)$) can be interpreted as the cost saved (or cost incurred if $\lambda_{jk} < 0$) from producing and distributing an additional unit of product $k$ to demand zone $j$. On the other hand, the Lagrangean multipliers in the inventory subproblems (i.e., $L_{cvx}^{jk} (\lambda)$) can be interpreted as the change in holding cost associated with carrying an additional unit of inventory of product $k$ at demand zone $j$.

For any given set of multipliers $\lambda$, the following Proposition determines the optimal solution for $(L_\lambda)$, thus providing a lower bound for the RPP.

**Proposition 1.** For given set of multipliers $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times K}$, a lower bound for the RPP is given
by

\[
L(\lambda) = \sum_{i \in I} \min \left\{ \min_{j \in J} \left\{ e_{ij} + \min_{k \in K} \left\{ d_{ik} + \left( c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk} \right) \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} \right\} \right\} + f_i, 0 \right\}
+ \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} \left[ p_{jk} \mathbb{E}_{jk}(\xi) - (p_{jk} + h_{jk}) \int_0^{y_{jk}(\lambda_{jk})} \xi \phi_{jk}(\xi) d\xi \right],
\]

(3.2)

where

\[
y_{jk}(\lambda) = \begin{cases} 
\Phi_{-1}^{-1}(1) & \text{if } \lambda_{jk} \leq -h_{jk} \\
\Phi_{-1}^{-1}(p_{jk} - \lambda_{jk}) & \text{if } -h_{jk} \leq \lambda_{jk} \leq p_{jk} \\
\Phi_{-1}^{-1}(0) & \text{if } \lambda_{jk} \geq p_{jk}
\end{cases}
\]

(3.3)

Proof. To begin, fix \( \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times K} \). Let us first consider each production and distribution subproblem. To solve each subproblem, we apply the integer linearization principle by Geoffrion (1974). First, observe that if \( z_i = 0 \), then \( L_{milp}^{i}(\lambda) = 0 \). Hence the optimal solution must satisfy \( L_{milp}^{i}(\lambda) \leq 0 \). As a result, we fix \( z_i = 1 \) and solve

\[
L_{milp}^{i}(\lambda, z_i = 1) \triangleq \min \sum_{k \in K} d_{ik} w_{ik} + \sum_{j \in J} (c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk}) x_{ijk} + \sum_{j \in J} e_{ij} v_{ij} + f_i
\]

subject to (2.3), (2.4), (2.5), (2.6), and (2.7).

Because the problem is linear, using (2.3) it can easily be shown that \( x_{ijk}(\lambda) \in \{ 0, \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} \} \). Using that \( L_{milp}^{i}(\lambda) \leq 0 \), (2.4), (2.5) and (2.7), it follows that

\[
L_{milp}^{i}(\lambda) = \min \left\{ \min_{j \in J} \left\{ e_{ij} + \min_{k \in K} \left\{ d_{ik} + \left( c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk} \right) \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} \right\} \right\} + f_i, 0 \right\}
\]

Next, consider each inventory subproblem. It is easy to show that this problem is convex in \( y_{jk} \) and by solving the first order condition with respect to \( y_{jk} \), we obtain (3.3), where \( \Phi_{-1}^{-1}(\bullet) \) denotes the inverse of \( \Phi_{jk}(\bullet) \). Finally, by using (2.1) and \( y_{jk}(\lambda_{jk}) \), it is easy to show that for each \( j \in J \) and \( k \in K \), \( L_{cvx}^{jk}(\lambda_{jk}) \) can be written as

\[
L_{cvx}^{jk}(\lambda_{jk}) = p_{jk} \mathbb{E}_{jk}(\xi) - (p_{jk} + h_{jk}) \int_0^{y_{jk}(\lambda_{jk})} \xi \phi_{jk}(\xi) d\xi
\]

By noting that a lower bound can be obtained by \( L(\lambda) = \sum_{i \in I} L_{milp}^{i}(\lambda) + \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} L_{cvx}^{jk}(\lambda) \), the proof is complete.

\[ \square \]

Note that the Lagrangean solution will chose a supplier (i.e., set \( z_i(\lambda) = 1 \)) if and only if the cost savings associated with producing and distributing an additional unit of product \( k \).
to demand zone \( j \) exceed the fixed cost associated with choosing this supplier for at least some \( j \) and \( k \) (i.e., if and only if
\[
- \min_{j \in J} \left\{ e_{ij} + \min_{k \in K} \left\{ d_{ik} + (c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk}) \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} \right\} \right\} \geq f_i.
\]
However, this solution may not be feasible. Thus, the purpose of this solution is more to establish the value of the objective function of \((L_\lambda)\), which is a lower bound on the value of the optimal solution of the RPP. This lower bound can then be used to evaluate the quality of any feasible solution generated by heuristics for this problem. In the unlikely event that the corresponding solution is feasible for the original problem, it then solves the RPP optimally.

In the following Lemma we show that the Lagrangean problem \((L_\lambda)\) does not possess the integrality property (see Geoffrion (1974)). Therefore the Lagrangean bound is likely to be strictly better than that of a convex programming relaxation (i.e., the relaxation that is obtained by replacing the binary constraints in \(2.7\) by the continuous interval \([0, 1]\) for the RPP). We confirm this in our computational results in Section 5.

**Lemma 1.** The Lagrangean problem \((L_\lambda)\) does not possess the integrality property.

**Proof.** It suffices to show that a convex programming relaxation of the RPP where \(2.7\) is replaced by

\[
0 \leq w_{ik} \leq 1, 0 \leq v_{ij} \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq z_i \leq 1 \quad \forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K
\]

does not yield a solution such that the \(w, v,\) and \(z\) variables are integral. We prove this by constructing a counterexample as follows: Let \(|J| = |K| = 1, e_{i1} = d_{i1} = L_i = 0 \forall i \in I, \alpha_{i11} = 1 \forall i \in I,\) and \(\Phi_{11}(\xi) = \xi.\) To simplify exposition, in the remainder of this proof we drop the subscripts \(j\) and \(k.\) Observe that by cost minimization, \(\forall i\) we will have that \(z_i = \frac{x_i}{U_i}.\) As a result, it suffices to show that there exists an instance of the convex programming relaxation of the RPP with optimal solution \(x_i^* \notin \{0, U_i\}\) for some \(i \in I\) (and hence \(z_i^* \notin \{0, 1\}\). To proceed, by noting that Slater’s condition is satisfied for the primal problem, we dualize \(2.2\) and write the Lagrangean

\[
L(\nu) = \min_{0 \leq x_i \leq U_i} \left\{ \sum_{i \in I} \left( c_i + \frac{f_i}{U_i} + \nu \right) x_i + (h + p) \int_0^y \xi d\xi + \frac{p}{2} - (\nu + p) y \right\}
\]

It is straightforward to check that for any given dual multiplier \(\nu,\) the Lagrangean program assumes the following optimal solution:

\[
x_i(\nu) = \begin{cases} 
U_i & \text{if } c_i + \frac{f_i}{U_i} + \nu < 0 \\
\in [0, U_i] & \text{if } c_i + \frac{f_i}{U_i} + \nu = 0 \\
0 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

\[
y(\nu) = \frac{\nu + p}{h + p}
\]

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Observe that a solution of the form \( x_i \in \{0, U_i\} \) will be optimal (and hence \( z_i \in \{0, 1\} \)) if and only if there exists a dual multiplier \( \nu \) such that

\[
\sum_{i \in I} U_i 1 \{c_i + \frac{f_i}{U_i} + \nu \leq 0\} = \frac{\nu + p}{h + p}
\]

By noting that the RHS is a smooth function strictly increasing in \( \nu \), while the LHS is a step function decreasing in \( \nu \), it follows that there may exist at most one \( \nu \) such that the above equality is satisfied. We now construct an example in which there exists no \( \nu \) such that the above equality is satisfied. Letting \( h = p = 1, |I| = 2, U_i = \frac{i}{2} \) and \( c_i + \frac{f_i}{U_i} = \frac{i}{3} \), observe that if

- \( -\frac{1}{3} < \nu \) (LHS) = 0 < \( \frac{\nu + 1}{2} \) (RHS)
- \( -1 < \nu \leq -\frac{1}{3} \) then (LHS) = \( \frac{1}{2} \) > \( \frac{\nu + 1}{2} \) (RHS)
- \( \nu < -1 \) (LHS) = \( \frac{3}{2} \) > \( \frac{\nu + 1}{2} \) (RHS)

We have thus constructed an instance for which the convex programming relaxation does not yield an optimal solution that is integral, and hence proven that the Integrality Property does not hold.

We next consider the problem of choosing the matrix of Lagrangean multipliers \( \lambda \) to tighten the bound \( L(\lambda) \) as much as possible. Specifically, we are interested in the tightest possible lower bound, which can be obtained by solving:

\[
LB_{LR} = \max_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times K}} L(\lambda)
\]

One way to maximize \( L(\lambda) \) is by using a traditional subgradient algorithm (see [Fisher (1985)] for details). However this technique may be computationally intensive in our problem as we have \( J \times K \) Lagrangean multipliers.

To overcome this difficulty, we exploit the structure of the dual problem to demonstrate how the optimal set of Lagrangean multipliers \( \lambda \) can in some cases be fully or partially determined analytically. In preparation, we establish the following Lemma.

**Lemma 2.** The optimal set of Lagrangean multipliers \( \lambda^* \in J \times K \) satisfy

\[
\min \left\{ \min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\}, p_{jk} \right\} \leq \lambda_{jk}^* \leq p_{jk} \quad \forall j \in J \text{ and } k \in K
\]

**Proof.** First, it is easy to check from the first line of (3.2) that \( L^{milp}(\lambda) \) decreases in \( \lambda \), and \( L^{milp}(\lambda) = 0 \) if \( d_{ik} + e_{ij} + (c_{ijk} - \lambda_{jk}) \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} + f_i \geq 0 \forall i, j, k \). By re-arranging terms, one can
show that $L_{milp}^{\lambda} = 0$ if $\lambda_{jk} \leq c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \forall i, j, k$. It is also easy to verify from the second line of (3.1) that $L_{j,k}^{cvx} (\lambda_{jk})$ increases in $\lambda_{jk}$, and $L_{j,k}^{cvx} (\lambda_{jk}) = p_{jk} E_{jk} (\xi)$ if $\lambda_{jk} \geq p_{jk} \forall j, k$.

To show that $\min \left\{ \min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\}, p_{jk} \right\} \leq \lambda_{jk}^* \leq p_{jk}$, first suppose that the LHS inequality is not satisfied for some $j, k$. Then $L_{i}^{milp} (\lambda^*) = L_{i}^{milp} (\tilde{\lambda})$ and $L_{j,k}^{cvx} (\lambda_{jk}) \leq L_{j,k}^{cvx} (\tilde{\lambda}_{jk})$, where $\tilde{\lambda} = \max \{ \lambda^* \}$, min $\left\{ \min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\}, p_{jk} \right\}$.

As a result, $L (\lambda^*) \leq L (\tilde{\lambda})$ and hence $\lambda^*$ cannot be optimal. Now suppose that $\lambda_{jk}^* < p_{jk}$ for some $j, k$. then $L_{j,k}^{cvx} (\lambda_{jk}) = L_{j,k}^{cvx} (p_{jk})$ and $L_{i}^{milp} (\lambda^*) \leq L_{i}^{milp} (\lambda_{jk}^*)$, where $\lambda_{jk}^* \lambda_{jk}^*$ denotes the set of Lagrangean multipliers $\lambda^*$, in which the $j - k^{th}$ element has been replaced by $p_{jk}$. As a result $L (\lambda^*) \leq L (\lambda_{jk}^*)$, and hence $\lambda^*$ cannot be optimal. This completes the proof.

This Lemma states that the optimal set of Lagrangean multipliers $\lambda^*$ lies in a well-defined compact set. Observe from the left hand side expression in Lemma 2 that $\lambda_{jk}^* > 0 \forall j, k$. From (3.3) observe that the optimal inventory level $y_{jk} (\lambda_{jk}^*)$ is strictly smaller than the optimal inventory level that would be determined from solving the inventory subproblem separately from the supplier choice and production planning subproblem. This is a direct consequence of performing production, distribution and inventory planning in an integrated manner. The second implication of this Lemma is that the optimal solution of the Lagrangean relaxation will always satisfy $\sum_{i \in I} x_{ijk} (\lambda^*) \geq y_{jk} (\lambda^*)$, and if the set defined in Lemma 2 is a singleton for some $j$ and $k$, then it is possible to partially characterize the optimal set of Lagrangean multipliers $\lambda^*$ ex-ante. When these sets are singletons for all $j$ and $k$, then it is possible to completely characterize $\lambda^*$ ex-ante. This is established by the following Proposition.

**Proposition 2.** If $\min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\} \geq p_{jk}$, then the optimal Lagrangean multiplier $\lambda_{jk}^* = p_{jk}$. If this inequality holds $\forall j \in J$ and $k \in K$, then $\lambda^* = p$, and $Z_P = LB_{LR}$ (i.e., the Lagrangean relaxation solves the RPP).

**Proof.** For any $j$ and $k$, if $\min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\} \geq p_{jk}$, then by Lemma 2 $\lambda_{jk}^* = p_{jk}$. If this condition holds for all $j$ and $k$, then it follows that $\lambda_{jk}^* = p_{jk}$, and by substituting $\lambda_{jk}^* = p_{jk}$ into (3.1) it is easy to check that $(L_{\lambda})$ is feasible for RPP. This completes the proof.

Observe that $\min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\}$ can be interpreted as the lowest marginal cost associated with establishing capacity at some supplier, producing product $k$, and distributing it to demand zone $j$. As a result, when this marginal cost exceeds the marginal underage cost, it is optimal not to produce any quantity of product $k$ for demand zone $j$, and
incur the expected underage cost; i.e., set $\lambda_{jk} = p_{jk}$, which yields $y_{jk}(p_{jk}) = 0$ by applying (3.3).

By using Lemma 2 and Proposition 2 we now establish a worst-case error bound for the Lagrangean relaxation studied in this section.

**Corollary 1.** The worst-case error bound for this Lagrangean relaxation satisfies

$$
\epsilon_{LR} \geq 1 + \max \left\{ \frac{-\sum_{j,k} (p_{jk} + h_{jk}) \int_0^{y_{jk}(\lambda_{jk})} \xi \phi_{jk}(\xi) d\xi}{\sum_{j,k} P_{jk} E_{jk}(\xi)}, \sum_i \min \left\{ \min_{j \in J} \left\{ c_{ij} + \min_{k \in K} \left\{ d_{ik} + (c_{ijk} - p_{jk}) \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} \right\} \right\}, 0 \right\} \right\}
$$

where $\epsilon_{LR} = \frac{LB_{LR}}{Z_P}$ and $\lambda_{jk}^1 = \min \left\{ \min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} \cdot (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\}, p_{jk} \right\} \forall j$ and $k$.

Moreover, there exists a problem instance of the RPP such that the bound is tight (i.e., $\epsilon_{LR} = 1$).

**Proof.** First note that the Lagrangean dual is a concave maximization problem, and recall from Lemma 2 that $\lambda_{jk}^* \geq \min \left\{ \min_{i \in I} \left\{ c_{ijk} + \frac{\alpha_{ijk}}{U_i} \cdot (d_{ik} + e_{ij} + f_i) \right\}, p_{jk} \right\} = \lambda_{jk}^1$. Moreover, it is easy to check that a trivial feasible solution can be obtained by setting $z_i = w_{ik} = x_{ijk} = y_{jk} = 0 \forall i, j, k$, in which case the objective function is equal to $\sum_{j,k} P_{jk} E_{jk}(\xi)$. As a result, the following inequalities hold:

$$
\max \left\{ L(\lambda^1), L(p) \right\} \leq LB_{LR} \leq Z_P \leq \sum_{j,k} P_{jk} E_{jk}(\xi)
$$

Hence $\epsilon_{LP} = \frac{LB_{LR}}{Z_P} \geq \frac{\max \left\{ L(\lambda^1), L(p) \right\}}{\sum_{j,k} P_{jk} E_{jk}(\xi)}$, and the result follows by substituting $L(\lambda^1)$ and $L(p)$ from (3.2). To show that there exists an instance such that this bound is tight, for every $i \in I$, pick $f_i$ such that $\min_{j,k} \left\{ d_{ik} + e_{ij} + (c_{ijk} - p_{jk}) \frac{U_i}{\alpha_{ijk}} \right\} + f_i \geq 0$. Then it is easy to check that $\epsilon_{LR} \geq 1$. Because $\epsilon_{LR} \leq 1$ by definition, we conclude that $\epsilon_{LR} = 1$ in this instance. This completes the proof.

### 4 Heuristics & Upper Bounds

In this section we develop heuristics, which can be used to obtain feasible solutions for the RPP. These heuristics can be used in conjunction with the lower bound developed in Section 3 to provide upper bounds for a branch and bound algorithm, or to generate a
feasible solution for the RPP. We initially propose two intuitive heuristics. The first is a practitioner’s heuristic developed based on observed practice at a large retail chain. The second is a sequential heuristic, which solves the inventory management subproblem first, and then it solves the remaining standard facility location problem by applying the well-known Drop procedure (Klincewicz and Luss (1986)).

These two heuristics can be used to benchmark the performance of the analytically more rigorous heuristics we develop. The first is a convex programming based heuristic, which generates a feasible solution by solving a sequence of convex programs. We also propose a simpler LP based heuristic, which is computationally more efficient. This heuristic uses the inventory levels from the Lagrangean problem (i.e., $y(\lambda^*)$), and it generates a feasible solution by solving a sequence of linear programs. We next present these heuristics, and we evaluate their performance in Section 5.

### 4.1 Practitioner’s Heuristic

This heuristic first chooses the inventory level for every product at each demand zone to equal the respective expected demand; i.e., $y_{jk} = \mu_{jk} \forall j \in J, k \in K$. Second, suppliers are sorted according to the ratio $R_i = \frac{F_i}{U_i}$, which captures the fixed cost per-unit of capacity associated with choosing supplier $i$. Third, the algorithm establishes sufficient capacity to satisfy the total inventory by choosing suppliers that have the lowest $R_i$. For example if $R_1 \leq R_2 \ldots \leq R_I$, then the algorithm will set $z_i = 1 \forall i \in \{1, .., n\}$ and $z_i = 0$ otherwise, where $n = \min \left\{ n \leq I : \sum_{i=1}^{n} U_i \geq \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} y_{jk} \right\}$. Finally, production and transportation decisions are made by solving a relaxed version of the RPP, where the fixed cost variables $w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ are relaxed to lie in $[0, 1]$. Here, a feasible solution is obtained by rounding to 1 the fractional $w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ variables, and by re-solving the linear program with respect to $x_{ijk} \geq 0$. Note that this heuristic does not take into account the underage and overage costs due to the variation in demand as inventory levels are set to simply equal the mean demand. We denote the objective function of this heuristic by $UB_{P_r}$. This procedure is formalized in Algorithm 1.

A more sophisticated version of this heuristic can be obtained by choosing the inventory levels according to the newsvendor model, and then using the same approach as described in Algorithm 1 to choose suppliers and conduct logistics planning. We call this the newsvendor-based practitioner’s heuristic, and we denote its objective function by $UB_{P_r}^{NV}$. 
Algorithm 1 Practitioner’s Heuristic

1: Let $R_i = \frac{\mu_i}{U_i}$, and sort candidate facilities such that $R_1 \leq R_2 \ldots \leq R_I$.
2: Fix $y_{jk} = \mu_{jk} \forall j$ and $k$.
3: Let $n = \min \{ n \leq I : \sum_{i=1}^{n} U_i \geq \sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} y_{jk} \}$.
4: Fix $z_i = 1 \forall i = 1, \ldots, n$ and $z_i = 0$ otherwise.
5: Solve the RPP with relaxed variables $v_{ij}, w_{ik} \in [0, 1]$.
6: Fix to 1 any $v_{ij} > 0$ and $w_{ik} > 0$, re-solve LP, and compute objective function $UB_{Pr}$.

4.2 Sequential Heuristic

This heuristic obtains a feasible solution for the RPP in two stages: In the first stage, it fixes the inventory level for each product at every demand zone by solving $J \times K$ newsvendor problems. This reduces the problem to a standard capacitated facility location problem with piece-wise linear costs. Then, in the second stage it uses a Drop heuristic - a well-known construction heuristic for facility location problems to determine which suppliers to choose. The general idea of the Drop heuristic is to start with a solution in which all candidate suppliers are chosen (i.e., $z_i = 1 \forall i$), iteratively deselect one supplier at a time, and solve the remaining subproblem in which the fixed cost variables $w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ are relaxed to lie in $[0, 1]$. Then any fractional $w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ variables are rounded to 1, and the problem is resolved with respect to the $x_{ijk}$ variables. In each loop, the heuristic permanently deselects the supplier who provides the greatest reduction in total expected costs, and it terminates if no further cost reduction is possible. Since exactly one $z_i$ is dropped in each loop, and at least one supplier must be selected in any feasible solution, the algorithm needs at most $I (I - 1)$ iterations in total, and two convex programs are solved in each iteration. We denote the objective function of this heuristic by $UB_{Seq}$. This procedure is formalized in Algorithm 2.

For completeness, we also consider a variant of the sequential heuristic that fixes the inventory level for each product at every demand zone to equal the respective expected demand. We call this the simplified sequential heuristic, and we denote its objective function by $UB_{Seq}^S$.

4.3 Convex Programming Based Heuristic

One disadvantage of the practitioner’s and the sequential heuristics is that inventory decisions are made independent of supplier selection and logistics decisions. Moreover, the Drop approach used in the sequential heuristic can be computationally intensive. Therefore, we construct a convex programming based heuristic as an alternative way to obtain a feasible solution for the RPP.
Algorithm 2 Sequential Heuristic

1: Fix $y_{jk} = y_{\text{(newsvendor)}} \forall j$ and $k$
2: Fix $z_i = 1 \forall i$ and $UB_{Seq} = +\infty$.
3: for $n = 1$ to $I$ do
4:   for $m = 1$ to $I$ do
5:     if $z_m = 1$ do
6:       Fix $z^m_i = z_i \forall i \neq m$ and $z^m_m = 0$.
7:       Solve the RPP with $z^m_i$ and relaxed variables $v_{ij}, w_{ik} \in [0, 1]$.
8:       Fix to 1 any $v_{ij} > 0$ and $w_{ik} > 0$, and resolve RPP to find $x_{ijk}$ variables.
9:       Compute objective function $UB^m_{Seq}$.
10:     end if
11:   end for
12:   if $\min_m UB^m_{Seq} < UB_{Seq}$ do
13:     $UB_{Seq} = \min_m UB^m_{Seq}$ and $z^*_m = 0$, where $m^* = \arg \min_m UB^m_{Seq}$.
14:     terminate
15:   end if
16: end for

The heuristic begins by solving a relaxed RPP where the fixed cost variables $z_i, w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ have been relaxed to lie in $[0, 1]$. First, it temporarily fixes the largest fractional $z_i$ to 1, solves the remaining (relaxed) problem, and rounds to 1 any fractional $w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ variables. Second, it temporarily fixes the smallest fractional $z_i$ to 0, and again it solves the remaining (relaxed) problem and rounds to 1 any fractional $w_{ik}$ and $v_{ij}$ variables. The algorithm then permanently fixes the $z_i$ that yielded the lowest total expected costs, and it continues to iterate until all $z_i$ variables have been fixed to 0 or 1. The assumption behind this approach is that the fractional value of $z_i$ is a good indicator of the “worthiness” of choosing supplier $i$. Since at least one $z_i$ is fixed in each loop, the algorithm needs at most $I$ iterations in total, and two convex programs are solved in each iteration. We denote the objective function of this heuristic by $UB_{Conv}$. This procedure is formalized in Algorithm 3.

To gauge the value of joint logistics and inventory planning, we also consider a simplified version of the convex programming heuristic, in which inventory levels are selected in advance using the solution corresponding to the lower bound from the Lagrangean relaxation (i.e., $y_{jk}(\lambda^*) \forall j$ and $k$). Then the problem of finding a feasible solution reduces to solving a sequence of linear programs, which are easier to solve than convex programs. We denote the objective function associated with this LP-based heuristic by $UB_{Lp}$.
Algorithm 3 Convex Programming Based Heuristic

1: Initiate $z_{i}^{\text{min}} = 0$ and $z_{i}^{\text{max}} = 1$ for some $i$
2: while $z_{i}^{\text{max}} > z_{i}^{\text{min}}$ do
3: Solve the RPP with relaxed variables $v_{ij}, w_{ik} \in [0, 1]$ and $z_{i}^{\text{min}} \leq z_{i} \leq z_{i}^{\text{max}}$
4: if $z_{i} \in \{0, 1\}$ do
5: Set $z_{i}^{\text{min}} = z_{i}^{\text{max}} = z_{i}$
6: end if
7: Let $i_{\text{max}} = \arg\max\{z_{i} : z_{i} \in (0, 1)\}$ and $i_{\text{min}} = \arg\min\{z_{i} : z_{i} \in (0, 1)\}$.
8: Solve the RPP with relaxed variables $v_{ij}^{+}, w_{ik}^{+} \in [0, 1]$ , $z_{i}^{\text{min}} \leq z_{i}^{+} \leq z_{i}^{\text{max}}$ and $z_{i_{\text{max}}}^{+} = 1$.
9: Fix to 1 any $v_{ij}^{+} > 0$ and $w_{ik}^{+} > 0$, and compute objective function $UB^{+}_{\text{CVX}}$.
10: Solve the RPP with relaxed variables $v_{ij}^{-}, w_{ik}^{-} \in [0, 1]$ , $z_{i}^{\text{min}} \leq z_{i}^{-} \leq z_{i}^{\text{max}}$ and $z_{i_{\text{min}}}^{-} = 0$.
11: Fix to 1 any $v_{ij}^{-} > 0$ and $w_{ik}^{-} > 0$, and compute objective function $UB^{-}_{\text{CVX}}$.
12: if $Z^{+} > Z^{-}$ do
13: $z_{i}^{\text{min}}^{\text{max}} = 1$
14: else
15: $z_{i}^{\text{max}}^{\text{min}} = 0$
16: end if
17: end while
18: Fix to 1 any $v_{ij} > 0$ and $w_{ik} > 0$, re-solve the convex program, and compute $UB_{\text{CVX}}$.

5 Computational Results

In this section we present a computational study to evaluate the performance of the heuristics. In addition, we investigate the key factors that drive their performance, and also examine their robustness. In addition, we use our analysis develop managerial insights about the solution of the RPP.

To test our methods across a broad range of data, we randomly generated the parameter values using a realistic set of data made available to us by a large retailer. We generated 500 randomly generated problem instances, each comprising between 5 to 20 candidate suppliers, 10 to 40 demand zones, and 1 to 25 products (i.e., $I \sim U\{5,..,20\}$, $J \sim U\{10,..,40\}$ and $K \sim U\{1,..,25\}$). The parameters we used in our computational study are summarized in table 1. To solve the optimization problems associated with the bounding techniques we propose, we used the CVX solver for Matlab (CVX (2011)) running on a computer with an Intel Core i7-2670QM 2.2GHz processor and 6 GB of RAM memory.

To evaluate the performance of the Lagrangean lower bound, we benchmark it against a standard convex programming relaxation, in which the integrality constraints are relaxed so
Table 1: Summary of Parameters used in our Computational Study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Distribution of Values</th>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Distribution of Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed Cost of $f_i$</td>
<td>$\tilde{f} \sim N(50, 10)$</td>
<td>Overstock $\tilde{h}$</td>
<td>$\tilde{h} \sim N(5, 1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choosing a Supplier $f_i$</td>
<td>$f_i \sim N\left(\frac{2JK}{3\tilde{f}}, \frac{3JK}{3\tilde{f}}\tilde{f}\right)$</td>
<td>Cost $h_{jk}$</td>
<td>$h_{jk} \sim U\left[\frac{3}{3\tilde{h}}, \frac{3}{3\tilde{h}}\tilde{h}\right]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setup Cost Associated $d$</td>
<td>$d \sim N(200, 40)$</td>
<td>Understock $p$</td>
<td>$p \sim N(50, 10)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with Production $d_{ik}$</td>
<td>$d_{ik} \sim U[0, \bar{d}]$</td>
<td>Cost $p_{jk}$</td>
<td>$p_{jk} \sim U\left[\frac{3}{3\hat{p}}, \frac{3}{3\hat{p}}\hat{p}\right]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setup Cost Associated $\bar{c}$</td>
<td>$\bar{c} \sim N(200, 40)$</td>
<td>Mean $\bar{\mu}$</td>
<td>$\bar{\mu} \sim N(20, 4)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with Distribution $e_{ij}$</td>
<td>$e_{ij} \sim U[0, \bar{e}]$</td>
<td>Demand $\bar{\sigma}$</td>
<td>$\bar{\sigma} \sim N(5, 1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginal Production $\bar{c}$</td>
<td>$\bar{c} \sim N(10, 2)$</td>
<td>Demand $\bar{\sigma}$</td>
<td>$\bar{\sigma} \sim N(5, 1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Distribution Cost $c_{ijk}$</td>
<td>$c_{ijk} \sim U\left[\frac{3}{3}\bar{c}, \frac{3}{3}\bar{c}\right]$</td>
<td>Variance $\bar{\sigma}_{jk}$</td>
<td>$\bar{\sigma}_{jk} \sim U\left[\frac{3}{3}\bar{\sigma}, \frac{3}{3}\bar{\sigma}\right]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier Capacity $\bar{U}$</td>
<td>$\bar{U} \sim N(100, 20)$</td>
<td>Weights $\alpha_{ijk}$</td>
<td>$\alpha_{ijk} = 1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$U_i \sim N\left(\frac{40JK}{T}, \frac{90JK}{T}\right)$</td>
<td>Min. Throughput $L_i$</td>
<td>$L_i = 0$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

that (2.7) is replaced by

$$0 \leq w_{ik} \leq 1, \ 0 \leq v_{ij} \leq 1, \ 0 \leq z_i \leq 1 \ \forall i \in I, \ j \in J, \ k \in K$$

The lower bound from this relaxation is denoted by $LB_{Cvx}$, and to compare it to the lower bound obtained from the Lagrangean relaxation we use the metric $\frac{LB_{LR} - LB_{Cvx}}{LB_{Cvx}}$. In every one of the problem instances tested, the Lagrangean relaxation generated a better lower bound than the convex programming relaxation, on average by 2.34%. This is consistent with Lemma 1, which asserts that the Lagrangean problem $L_\lambda$ does not possess the Integrality Property.

To test the performance of the heuristics developed in Section 4, we evaluate the suboptimality gaps relative to the Lagrangean lower bound using the metrics $\frac{UB_{Cvx} - LB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$, $\frac{UB_{LR} - LB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$, $\frac{UB_{Seq} - LB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$, $\frac{UB^S_{Seq} - LB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$, $\frac{UB_{Pr} - LB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$, and $\frac{UB^N_{Pr} - LB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$, for the convex programming based, the LP based, the sequential, the simplified sequential, the practitioner’s, and the newsvendor-based practitioner’s heuristic, respectively. The average and median values, as well as the range of these metrics are illustrated in figure 2.

First observe that the convex programming based heuristic unambiguously outperformed the other heuristics. In particular, it provided feasible solutions that were on average within 3.44% of optimal, and ranged from 0.41% to 18.76%. While the gap of the LP based heuristic was higher than the convex programming based heuristic on average, in the majority of
cases it generated a feasible solution that was quite close to optimal as evidenced by the median gap of 4.32%. The practitioner’s heuristics generated feasible solutions that were on average 19.95% and 36.32% from optimal for the standard and the newsvendor-based version, respectively. On the other hand, the suboptimality gap for the sequential heuristics was on average 36.72% and 23.7% for the standard and the simplified version, respectively.

Interestingly, with both heuristics, the versions in which inventory levels are set equal to the mean demand (i.e., the practitioner’s and the simplified sequential heuristics) outperform the versions in which inventory levels are chosen according to the newsvendor solution. This is because the understock costs are generally larger than the overstock costs, and hence the newsvendor model led to a larger stocking quantity than the average demand. This in turn increased production and distribution costs, as well as the fixed costs associated with establishing suppliers in excess of the benefit of reducing underage costs. In addition, we found that the inventory levels corresponding to the solution of the convex programming based heuristic were always higher than those determined by the newsvendor solution, and they were often lower than the expected demand. The takeaway from this observation is that when planning the entire supply chain, it is important to consider the effect of the inventory decisions to the upstream costs. When such costs are adequately represented, a lower fill rate may actually be preferable in order to lower total costs. Retailers often underestimate the impact of upstream costs in their urge to have a higher market share associated with higher fill rates. Finally, note that the cost reduction resulting from the convex programming based
heuristic relative to the other heuristics is important, because retailers operate in a highly competitive environment with very low margins and even a small cost reduction can lead to a large profit increase.

To get an idea of the computational complexity of the heuristics, table 2 reports the mean, median and maximum computational time for the problem instances tested. Observe that both practitioner’s heuristics are computationally very fast, while both sequential heuristics are quite slow. Also note that the standard sequential heuristic is computationally less intensive than its simplified counterpart. Because the standard sequential heuristic chooses the stocking quantities according to the newsvendor model, which in general are higher than the expected demand, the Drop procedure needs fewer iterations in the standard sequential heuristic. Finally, observe that the convex programming based heuristic is about as computational intensive as the simplified sequential heuristic, but leads to much lower average gaps. Thus it clearly dominates both versions of the sequential heuristic. However, as expected, it is computationally more intensive than the LP based heuristic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$UB_{Pr}$</th>
<th>$UB_{Pr}^{NN}$</th>
<th>$UB_{Seq}$</th>
<th>$UB_{Seq}^{S}$</th>
<th>$UB_{Cvx}$</th>
<th>$UB_{LP}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>80.85</td>
<td>187.41</td>
<td>175.76</td>
<td>105.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>59.48</td>
<td>91.00</td>
<td>96.78</td>
<td>52.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max</td>
<td>9.44</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>463.98</td>
<td>1974.96</td>
<td>1472.18</td>
<td>949.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Computational Times (sec)

Since the convex programming heuristic dominates the other heuristics in terms of the gap from the lower bound, we focus on this heuristic to examine (a) how the computational time scales up with the size of the problem, (b) how the suboptimality gap and its performance advantage relative to the practitioner’s heuristic depend on the parameters of the problem, and (c) which parameters have the greatest impact on the total expected costs.

To conduct this analysis, we regress the computational times, the suboptimality gap (i.e., $100\% \frac{UB_{Cvx} - UB_{LR}}{LB_{LR}}$), the gap between the convex programming and the practitioner’s heuristic (i.e., $100\% \frac{UB_{Cvx} - UB_{Pr}}{UB_{Pr}}$), and the total expected cost associated with the convex programming heuristic (i.e., $UB_{Cvx}$) of the 500 problem instances tested earlier on the size (i.e., $I$, $J$, $K$), and the parameters of the problem (i.e., $\bar{\mu}$, $\bar{\sigma}$, $\bar{h}$, $\bar{p}$, $\bar{c}$, $\bar{d}$, $\bar{e}$, $\bar{f}$, $\bar{U}$). Table 3 summarizes the results.\(^5\)

\(^5\)Values in (·) denote standard errors. * denotes significance at 10% level, ** denotes significance at 5% level, and *** denotes significance at 1% level.
First note that the computational time of the convex programming heuristic is strongly dependent on the problem size (i.e., $I$, $J$ and $K$), while it is insensitive to the other parameters of the problem. More interestingly, the relatively large $R^2$ ratio implies that the computational time of the convex programming heuristic is explained by a linear model well, which in turn suggests that the computational time scales up approximately linearly in the problem size.

From the second column, observe that the suboptimality gap decreases in the size of the problem ($I$, $J$ and $K$), and this effect is significant at the 1% level. This finding is encouraging: it predicts that the convex programming heuristic will perform even better in larger problem instances that could be expected in some applications. The suboptimality

Table 3: Suboptimality Gap vs. Problem Parameters (Convex Programming Heuristic).
gap increases in the capacity of the candidate suppliers ($U$), while it decreases in the mean demand ($\mu$) and the fixed costs associated with choosing a supplier ($f$). The suboptimality gap also increases in the demand variance ($\sigma$), the underage and overage costs ($p$ and $h$), and the production costs ($c$, $d$, and $e$), but this effect is not significant at the 10% level. Finally, note that the values of all regression coefficients are close to zero, which suggests that the performance of the convex programming heuristic is robust to changes in the parameters of the RPP.

The third column examines how the performance advantage of the convex programming heuristic relative to the practitioner’s heuristic depends on the parameters of the problem. Observe that the performance advantage of the convex programming heuristic becomes larger in the size of the problem, while it is insensitive to the cost parameters as evidenced by the small regression coefficients. This, together with the finding that the value of the intercept is negative at the 1% significance level, reinforces the benefits from using the convex programming heuristic, as one could expect even larger problems with different cost parameters in certain applications.

The fourth column considers the relationship between the total expected cost of the feasible solutions generated by the convex programming heuristic, and the parameters of the problem. Predictably, the expected cost increases in the size of the problem ($I$, $J$, and $K$), in the mean demand ($\bar{\mu}$), in the production costs ($c$, $d$, and $e$), in the fixed costs associated with choosing a supplier ($\bar{f}$), as well as in the underage and overage costs ($\bar{p}$ and $\bar{h}$). On the other hand, the expected cost decreases in the capacity of the candidate suppliers ($\bar{U}$), while the effect of the demand variance ($\bar{\sigma}$) is insignificant. Therefore, our findings suggest that besides the problem size (i.e., $I$, $J$, $K$ and $\bar{\mu}$), the two most important factors that affect the expected cost of a feasible solution are (i) the marginal production cost and (ii) the inventory underage and overage costs. Consistent with earlier results, the latter observation emphasizes the value of an improved demand forecast. On the other hand, the capacity of a supplier as well as the fixed contracting costs appear to have a secondary effect. This is consistent with the initiatives undertaken at several retailers to reduce the impact of production, inventory underage and overage costs ([Fisher and Raman (2010)]).

Since the gaps of the convex programming based heuristic are the smallest, we analyzed the solutions to develop some insights about how it chooses suppliers. This could be useful for practitioners who make such decisions. We found that suppliers are chosen in increasing
order of the ratio $r_i$, where

$$r_i = \frac{1}{U_i} \left[ f_i + \frac{1}{|J||K|} \sum_{j,k} \left( d_{ik} + v_{ij} + c_{ijk} \alpha_{ijk} \right) \right]$$

The term in brackets represents the sum of fixed establishment costs and the average production and distribution costs across products and demand zones when a supplier is fully utilized. Therefore the ratio $r_i$ can be interpreted as the average total cost per unit of capacity at supplier $i$. This suggests that it is important to consider establishment, production and distribution costs together when choosing suppliers, and it is beneficial to choose suppliers with the lowest total average cost per unit of capacity.

### 6 Conclusions

We analyze a multi-product retail planning problem under demand uncertainty, in which the retailer jointly chooses suppliers, plans production and distribution, and selects inventory levels to minimize total expected costs. This problem typically arises in retail store chains carrying private label products, who need to plan the entire supply chain by making decisions with respect to (i) supplier selection for their private label products, (ii) distribution of products from suppliers to demand zones (i.e., stores or distribution centers), and (iii) the inventory levels for every product at each demand zone. This problem is formulated as a mixed integer convex program.

Since the retail planning problem is strongly NP-hard, we use a Lagrangean relaxation to obtain a lower bound, and we develop heuristics to generate feasible solutions. First we develop an analytic solution for the Lagrangean problem (Proposition 1), and we establish conditions under which the Lagrangean dual can be solved analytically (see Proposition 2). We first develop a practitioner’s and a sequential heuristic. We then propose two heuristics, which reduce the problem of generating a feasible solution to solving a sequence of convex or linear programs. To test the performance and the robustness of our methods we conduct an extensive computational study. The convex programming based heuristic and its LP based counterpart yielded feasible solutions that were on average within 3.4% and 10.2% from optimal, respectively. Sensitivity analysis suggests that the computational time of the convex programming heuristic scales up approximately linearly in the problem size, while it is stable to changes in problem parameters. Finally, these heuristics outperformed both the Sequential and the Practitioner’s heuristics, and the performance advantage of the convex programming based heuristic relative to the practitioner’s heuristic is robust to the
parameters of the problem. All these are desirable features for any eventual implementation in large sized real applications.

Several managerial insights can be drawn from this work. First, solving the more complicated joint supplier choice, production, distribution and inventory problem leads to a leaner supply chain with lower total costs than solving the simpler subproblems separately. Our methodology provides an effective approach to solve this joint problem. Second, it is important to consider the effect of inventory decisions on upstream production and distribution costs. Our model provides a framework to analyze these decisions. Third, the major costs that influence supply chain costs across the retailer are production costs, as well as the understock and overstock costs associated with carrying inventory at the demand zones. Therefore retailers should focus on reducing these costs first before considering the effects of supplier capacity and contracting costs. Fourth, it is important to consider establishment, production, distribution and inventory costs together when choosing suppliers, because a supplier who is desirable in any one of these aspects may in fact not be the best overall choice. Our analysis provides a mechanism to integrate these aspects and pick the best set of suppliers.

This paper opens up several opportunities for future research. First, this problem could be extended to explicitly model nonlinear production and shipping costs, which is of particular interest for applications that exhibit significant economies of scale. In that case the problem formulation is a mixed integer nonlinear program that is neither convex nor concave (see Caro et al. (2010) for details about addressing a related problem in the process industry with uncertain yields). Second, our model could be extended to incorporate multiple echelons in the supply chain (i.e., wholesalers, distribution centers, etc.) and allow multiple echelons to carry inventory. Third, it may be desirable to incorporate side constraints pertaining to facilities, production and distribution (i.e., v, x, w, and z variables) as in (Geoffrion and McBride (1978)). Undoubtedly, all of these extensions would require significant, non-trivial modifications to our model. Finally, further work could be done to improve the heuristics in order to further reduce the suboptimality gap.

In conclusion, we believe the methods described in this paper provide an effective methodology to address the retail planning problem under demand uncertainty.
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References


