
A Kolmogorov-distance based approximation of discrete random variables

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Abstract

1 We present an algorithm that takes a discrete random variable X and a number m
2 and computes a random variable whose support (set of possible outcomes) is of
3 size at most m and whose Kolmogorov distance from X is minimal.

4 1 Introduction

5 Many different approaches to approximation of probability distributions are studied in the litera-
6 ture [12, 15, 16]. The approaches vary in the types random variables considered, how they are rep-
7 resented, and in the criteria used for evaluation of the quality of the approximations. This paper is
8 on approximating discrete distributions represented as explicit probability mass functions with ones
9 that are simpler to store and to manipulate. This is needed, for example, when a discrete distribution
10 is given as a large data-set, obtained, e.g., by sampling, and we want to represent it approximately
11 with a small table.

12 The main contribution of this paper is an efficient algorithm for computing the best possible ap-
13 proximation of a given random variable with a random variable whose complexity is not above a
14 prescribed threshold, where the measures of the quality of the approximation and the complexity of
15 the random variable are as specified in the following two paragraphs.

16 We measure the quality of an approximation by the distance between the original variable and the
17 approximate one. Specifically, we use the Kolmogorov distance which is commonly used for com-
18 paring random variables in statistical practice and literature. Given two random variables X and
19 X' whose cumulative distribution functions (cdfs) are F_X and $F_{X'}$, respectively, the Kolmogorov
20 distance between X and X' is $d_K(X, X') = \sup_t |F_X(t) - F_{X'}(t)|$ (see, e.g., [9]). We say that X'
21 is a good approximation of X if $d_K(X, X')$ is small.

22 The complexity of a random variable is measured by the size of its support, the number of values
23 that it can take, $|\text{support}(X)| = |\{x: \Pr(X = x) \neq 0\}|$. When distributions are maintained as
24 explicit tables, as done in many implementations of statistical software, the size of the support of
25 a variable is proportional to the amount of memory needed to store it and to the complexity of the
26 computations around it. In summary, the exact notion of optimality of the approximation targeted in
27 this paper is:

28 **Definition 1.** A random variable X' is an optimal m -approximation of a random variable X if
 29 $|\text{support}(X')| \leq m$ and there is no random variable X'' such that $|\text{support}(X'')| \leq m$ and
 30 $d_K(X, X'') < d_K(X, X')$.

31 The main contribution of the paper is an efficient algorithm that takes X and m as parameters and
 32 constructs an optimal m -approximation of X .

33 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we describe how our work relates to other
 34 algorithms and problems studied in the literature. In Section 3 we detail the proposed algorithm,
 35 analyze its properties, and prove the main theorem. In Section 4 we demonstrate how the proposed
 36 approach performs on the problem of estimating the probability of hitting deadlines in plans and
 37 compare it to alternative approximation approaches from the literature. We also demonstrate the
 38 performance of our approximation algorithm on some randomly generated random variables. The
 39 paper is concluded with a discussion in Section 5.

40 2 Related Work

41 The most relevant work related to this paper is the papers by Cohen et. al. [5, 4]. These papers study
 42 approximations of random variables in the context of estimating deadlines. In this context, X' is
 43 defined to be a good approximation of X if $F_{X'}(t) > F_X(t)$ for any t and $\sup_t F_{X'}(t) - F_X(t)$
 44 is small. This is not a distance because it is not symmetric. The motivation given by Cohen et. al.
 45 for using this type of approximation is for cases where overestimation of the probability of missing
 46 a deadline is acceptable but underestimation is not. In Section 4, we consider the same examples
 47 examined by Cohen et. al. and show how the algorithm proposed in this paper performs relative to
 48 the algorithms proposed there when both over- and under- estimations are allowed. As expected, the
 49 Kolmogorov distance between the approximation and the original random variable is smaller by a
 50 factor of one half, on average, when using the algorithm proposed here.

51 Another relevant prior work is the theory of Sparse Approximation (aka Sparse Representation) that
 52 deals with sparse solutions for systems of linear equations, as follows.

Given a matrix $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ and a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the most studied sparse representation problem is
 finding the sparsest possible representation $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^p$ satisfying $x = D\alpha$:

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^p} \|\alpha\|_0 \text{ subject to } x = D\alpha.$$

53 where $\|\alpha\|_0 = |\{i : \alpha_i \neq 0, i = 1, \dots, p\}|$ is the ℓ_0 pseudo-norm, counting the number of non-zero
 54 coordinates of α . This problem is known to be NP-Hard with a reduction to NP-complete subset
 55 selection problems.

In these terms, using also the ℓ_∞ norm that represents the maximal coordinate and the ℓ_1 norm that
 represents the sum of the coordinates, our problem can be phrased as:

$$\min_{\alpha \in [0, \infty)^p} \|x - D\alpha\|_\infty \text{ subject to } \|\alpha\|_0 = m \text{ and } \|\alpha\|_1 = 1.$$

56 where D is the all-ones triangular matrix (the entry at row i and column j is one if $i \leq j$ and zero
 57 otherwise), x is related to X such that the i th coordinate of x is $F_X(x_i)$ where $\text{support}(X) =$
 58 $\{x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n\}$ and α is related to X' such that the i th coordinate of α is $f_{X'}(x_i)$. The
 59 functions F_X and $f_{X'}$ represent, respectively, the cumulative distribution function of X and the
 60 mass distribution function of X' . This, of course, means that the coordinates of x are assumed to
 61 be positive and monotonically increasing and that the last coordinate of x is assumed to be one. We

62 demonstrate an application for this specific sparse representation problem and show that it can be
 63 solve in $O(n^2m)$ time and $O(m^2)$ memory.

64 The presented work is also related to the research on binning in statistical inference. Consider, for
 65 example, the problem of credit scoring [21] that deals with separating good applicants from bad
 66 applicants where the Kolmogorov–Smirnov statistic KS is a standard measure. The KS comparison
 67 is often preceded by a procedure called binning where a large table is translated to a smaller one
 68 by collecting nearby values together. There are many methods for binning [11, 17, 2, 19]. In this
 69 context, our algorithm can be consider as a new binning strategy that provides optimality guarantees
 70 with respect to the Kolmogorov distance that none of the existing binning technique that we are
 71 aware of provides.

72 The present study is also related to the work of Pavlikov and Uryasev [15], where a procedure for
 73 producing a random variable X' that optimally approximates a random variable X is presented.
 74 Their approximation scheme, achieved using linear programming, is designed for a different notion
 75 of distance (called CVaR). The new contribution of the present work in this context is that our
 76 method is direct, not using linear programming, thus allowing tighter analysis of time and memory
 77 complexity. Also, our method is designed for optimizing the Kolmogorov distance that is more
 78 prevalent in applications. For comparison, in Section 4 we briefly discuss the performance of linear
 79 programming approach similar to the one proposed in [15] for the Kolmogorov distance and compare
 80 it to the algorithm proposed in this paper.

81 3 An Algorithm for Optimal Approximation

82 In the scope of this section, let X be a given random variable with a finite support of size n , and
 83 let $0 < m \leq n$ be a given complexity bound. The section evolves by developing notations and by
 84 collecting facts towards an algorithm for finding an optimal m -approximation of X .

85 The first useful fact is that it is enough to limit our search to approximations X' 's such that
 86 $\text{support}(X') \subseteq \text{support}(X)$:

87 **Lemma 2.** *For every random variable X'' there is a random variable X' such that $\text{support}(X') \subseteq$
 88 $\text{support}(X)$ and $d_K(X, X') \leq d_K(X, X'')$.*

89 *Proof.* Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} = \text{support}(X)$, and let $x_0 = -\infty, x_{n+1} = \infty$. Consider the random
 90 variable X' whose probability mass function is $f_{X'}(x_i) = P(x_{i-1} < X'' \leq x_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n-1$,
 91 $f_{X'}(x_n) = P(x_n - 1 < X'' \leq x_{n+1})$, and $F_{X'}(x) = 0$ if $x \notin \text{support}(X)$. Since X' only "pushes"
 92 the probability mass of X'' to the support of X , we have that $f_{X'}$ is a probability mass function
 93 and therefore X' is well defined. By construction, $|F_X(x_i) - F_{X'}(x_i)| = |F_X(x_i) - F_{X''}(x_i)|$
 94 for every $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. For $i = n$ we have $|F_X(x_n) - F_{X'}(x_n)| = |1 - 1| = 0$. Since
 95 $|F_X(x) - F_{X'}(x)| = |F_X(x_i) - F_{X'}(x_i)|$ for every $0 \leq i < n+1$ and $x_i < x < x_{i+1}$, we have
 96 that $d_K(X, X') = \max_i |F_X(x_i) - F_{X'}(x_i)| \leq \max_i |F_X(x_i) - F_{X''}(x_i)| \leq d_K(X, X'')$. \square

97 Next, note that every random variable X'' with support of size at most m that is contained in
 98 $\text{support}(X)$ can be described by first setting the (at most m) elements of the support of X'' ; then
 99 for every such option, determine X'' by setting probability values for the elements in the chosen
 100 support of X' , and setting 0 for rest of the elements.

101 Denote the set of random variables with support $S \subseteq \text{support}(X)$ by \mathbb{X}_S . In Step 1 below, we find
 102 a random variable in \mathbb{X}_S that minimizes the Kolmogorov distance from X , and denote this distance
 103 by $\varepsilon(X, S)$. Next, in Step 2, that we will describe later, we will show how to efficiently find S

that minimizes $\varepsilon(X, S)$ among all the sets that satisfy $S \subset \text{support}(X)$ and $|S| \leq m$. Then the minimized random variable \mathbb{X}_S from the minimal S , is the m -optimal approximation to X .

Step 1: Finding an X' in \mathbb{X}_S that minimizes $d_K(X, X')$

We first fix a set $S \subseteq \text{support}(X)$ of size at most m , and among all the random variables in \mathbb{X}_S find one with a minimal distance from X . Denote the elements of S in increasing order by $S = \{x_1 < \dots < x_m\}$ and let $x_0 = -\infty$, and $x_{m+1} = \infty$. For every $1 \leq i \leq m$ let \hat{x}_i be the maximal element of $\text{support}(X)$ that is smaller than x_i .

Next, as the elements of S are also elements of $\text{support}(X)$, we can define the following weight function:

Definition 3. For $0 \leq i \leq m$ let

$$w(x_i, x_{i+1}) = \begin{cases} P(x_i < X < x_{i+1}) & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ or } i = m; \\ P(x_i < X < x_{i+1})/2 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $x_i = -\infty$ for $i = 0$ and $x_i = \infty$ for $i = m + 1$. Also note that $P(x_i < X < x_{i+1}) = F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i)$, a fact that we will use throughout this section.

Definition 4. Let $\varepsilon(X, S) = \max_{i=0, \dots, m} w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

We first show that $\varepsilon(X, S)$ is a lower bound. That is, every random variable in \mathbb{X}_S has a distance at least $\varepsilon(X, S)$. Then, we present a random variable $X' \in \mathbb{X}_S$ with distance $\varepsilon(X, S)$. It then follows that such X' is an optimal m -approximation random variable among all random variables in \mathbb{X}_S .

The intuition behind choosing these specific weights and $\varepsilon(X, S)$ being a lower bound is as follows. Since for every $X' \in \mathbb{X}_S$ the probability values of X' for the elements not in S are set to 0, we have that $F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1}) = F_{X'}(x_i)$. Therefore the distance between X' and X at points x_i and \hat{x}_{i+1} that we have to take into additional account is increased by $F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i) = P(x_i < X < x_{i+1})$.

Formally we have the following.

Proposition 5. If $X' \in \mathbb{X}_S$ then $d_K(X, X') \geq \varepsilon(X, S)$.

Proof. By definition, for every $0 \leq i \leq m$, $d_K(X, X') \geq \max\{|F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1})|, |F_X(x_i) - F_{X'}(x_i)|\}$. Note that $F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1}) = F_{X'}(x_i)$ since the probability values for all the elements not in S are set to 0.

If $i = 0$, that is $x_i = -\infty$, we have that $F_X(x_i) = F_{X'}(x_i) = F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1}) = 0$ and therefore $d_K(X, X') \geq |F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1})| = |F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i)| = P(x_i < X < x_{i+1}) = w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

If $i = m$, that is $x_{i+1} = \infty$, we have that $F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) = F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1}) = F_{X'}(x_i) = 1$. and therefore $d_K(X, X') \geq |1 - F_X(\hat{x}_i)| = |F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i)| = P(x_i < X < x_{i+1}) = w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

Otherwise for every $1 \leq i < m$, we use the fact that $\max\{|a|, |b|\} \geq |a - b|/2$ for every $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, to have $d_K(X, X') \geq 1/2|F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i) + F_{X'}(x_i) - F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1})|$. So $d_K(X, X') \geq 1/2|F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i)| = P(x_i < X < x_{i+1})/2 = w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

Therefore since $d_K(X, X') \geq w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ for every $0 \leq i \leq m$, by definition of $\varepsilon(X, S)$ proof follows. \square

Next we show a random variable $X' \in \mathbb{X}_S$ with a distance of $\varepsilon(X, S)$ from X . Thus X' is an optimal m -approximation among the set \mathbb{X}_S . We define X' as follows:

140 **Definition 6.** Let $f_{X'}(x_i) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + f_X(x_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $f_{X'}(x) = 0$
 141 for $x \notin S$.

142 We first show that X' is a properly defined random variable:

143 **Lemma 7.** $f_{X'}$ is a probability mass function.

144 *Proof.* From definition $f_{X'}(x_i) \geq 0$ for every i . To see that $\sum_i f_{X'}(x_i) = 1$, we have
 145 $\sum_i f_{X'}(x_i) = \sum_i (w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + f_X(x_i)) = \sum_{x_i \in S} f_X(x_i) + w(x_0, x_1) +$
 146 $\sum_{0 < i < m} 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_m, x_{m+1}) = \sum_{x_i \in S} P(X = x_i) + P(x_0 < X < X_1) +$
 147 $\sum_{0 < i < m} P(x_i < X < x_{i+1}) + P(x_m < X < x_{m+1}) = 1$ since this sum is the entire cpt of
 148 X . \square

149 Note that X' can be constructed in linear time to the size of the cdf of X . Intuitively the setting of
 150 X' allows to take an "advantage" of distance from X at the elements of $\text{support}(X')$, to avoid the
 151 overall increased distance of X from X' at the elements that are not at $\text{support}(X)$ and in which
 152 $f_{X'}$ is set to 0. Formally we have the following.

153 **Lemma 8.** Let $x \in \text{support}(X)$ and $0 \leq i \leq m$ be such that $x_i \leq x \leq x_{i+1}$ then $-w(x_i, x_{i+1}) \leq$
 154 $F_X(x) - F_{X'}(x) \leq w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

155 *Proof.* We prove by induction on $0 \leq i < m$.

156 First see that $F_{X'}(j) = 0$ for every $x_0 < j < x_1$ and therefore $F_X(j) - F_{X'}(j) = F_X(j) - 0 \leq$
 157 $F_X(\hat{x}_1) = F_X(\hat{x}_1) - F_X(x_0) = w(x_0, x_1)$. For $j = x_1$ we have $F_X(x_1) - F_{X'}(x_1) = F_X(\hat{x}_1) +$
 158 $f_X(x_1) - (w(x_0, x_1) + w(x_1, x_2) + f_X(x_1)) = w(x_0, x_1) + f_X(x_1) - (w(x_0, x_1) + w(x_1, x_2) +$
 159 $f_X(x_1)) = -w(x_1, x_2)$.

160 Next assume that $F_X(\hat{x}_i) - F_{X'}(\hat{x}_i) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i)$. Then $F_X(x_i) - F_{X'}(x_i) = F_X(\hat{x}_i) + f_X(x_i) -$
 161 $(w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + f_X(x_i)) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + f_X(x_i) - (w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) +$
 162 $f_X(x_i)) = -w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

163 As before we have that for all $x_i < j < x_{i+1}$, we have $F_X(j) - F_{X'}(j) = F_X(j) - F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1}) \leq$
 164 $F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1})$. Then $F_X(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F_{X'}(\hat{x}_{i+1}) = (F_X(x_i) + P(x_i < x < x_{i+1})) -$
 165 $F_{X'}(x_i) = -w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) = w(x_i, x_{i+1})$.

166 Finally for $x_m \leq j \leq x_{m+1}$ we have that $F_{X'}(x_m) = 1$ therefore $F_X(x_m) - F_{X'}(x_m) = (1 -$
 167 $P(x_m < X < x_{m+1})) - 1 = P(x_m < X < x_{m+1}) = w(x_m, x_{m+1})$, and for every $x_m < j <$
 168 x_{m+1} we have $F_X(j) - F_{X'}(j) < (1 - P(x_m < X < x_{m+1})) - 1 < -P(x_m < X < x_{m+1}) =$
 169 $-w(x_m, x_{m+1})$ as required. \square

170 From Lemma 8, by the definition of $\varepsilon(X, S)$, we then have:

171 **Corollary 9.** $d_K(X, X') = \varepsilon(X, S)$.

172 **Step 2: Finding a set S that minimizes $\varepsilon(X, S)$**

173 Finding the m -optimal random variable with a distance $\varepsilon(X, S)$ among the set \mathbb{X}_S , we next proceed
 174 to find an S that minimizes $\varepsilon(X, S)$. To obtain that we use a dynamic programming approach,
 175 motivated by a method described in [3]. Intuitively we construct a directed graph with a source and
 176 a target, in which every (acyclic) source-target path of size $\leq m$ corresponds to a possible support
 177 set of the same size, and the weights along that path correspond to the weight as defined in Definition
 178 3. Thus the problem of finding the S that minimizes $\varepsilon(X, S)$ is reduced to the problem of finding

the source-target path \vec{p} of size $\leq m$ in that graph such that the maximal weight of an edge in \vec{p} is minimal among all other such maximal edges in all other paths of size $\leq m$.

In details, we initially constructs a directed weighted graph $G = (V, E, s, t, w)$, where $V = v_0, \dots, v_{n+1}$ correspond to the support of X with the additional $v_0 = s$ as the source vertex and $v_{n+1} = t$ as the target vertex. We set an edge (v_i, v_j) for every $i < j$ and a weight that is defined as follows. If $1 < i < j < n$ then $w(v_i, v_j) = P(x_i < X < x_{i+1})/2$. For $i = 0$ or $j = n + 1$ we set $w(v_i, v_j) = P(x_i < X < x_{i+1})$. Thus the weight of every edge (i, j) corresponds to Definition 3 for a case in which x_i, x_j where consecutive elements in an optional set S of size $\leq m$. Note that there is a 1-1 correspondence between a subset S of $\text{support}(X)$ of size m , and an $s-t$ path \vec{p}_S in G where every $x_i \in S$ corresponds to the vertex $v_i \in \vec{p}_S$. On that sense note that the maximal weight of an edge on \vec{p}_S is identical to $\varepsilon(X, S)$. We denote this maximal weight of an edge by $w(\vec{p}_S)$, and denote the set of all acyclic s -to- t paths in G with at most m edges is called $\text{paths}_m(G, s, t)$. Thus, the problem of finding the set S with the minimal $\varepsilon(X, S)$ is trivially reduced to the problem of finding a path $\vec{p} \in \text{paths}_m(G, s, t)$ such that $w(\vec{p})$ is minimal among all $\{w(\vec{p}') | \vec{p}' \in \text{paths}_m(G, s, t)\}$. This problem can be solved by the standard Bellman-Ford algorithm in m iterations (e.g. [10, 18]) denoted by $\text{BellmanFord}(G, m)$. We thus have the following from the standard Bellman-Ford technique.

Corollary 10. *$\text{BellmanFord}(G, m)$ returns a path $\vec{p} \in \text{paths}_m(G, s, t)$ such that $w(\vec{p})$ is minimal among all $\{w(\vec{p}') | \vec{p}' \in \text{paths}_m(G, s, t)\}$.*

Step 3: Constructing the overall algorithm

We combine Step 1 and Step 2 in the following algorithm called KolmogorovApprox (Algorithm 1) that follows naturally from the two steps. Given X and $\text{support}(X)$ we add x_0, x_{n+1} and construct the graph (line 2) as in Step 2. Then we execute the Bellman-Ford algorithm on G for m iterations to obtained a path $\vec{p} = (v_0, \dots, v_{m+1})$ (line 2) as described in Corollary 10. Finally we use Definition 6 to construct X' from the weights of \vec{p} (lines 4-5).

Algorithm 1: KolmogorovApprox(X, m)

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1  $\text{support}(X) \cup \{x_0, x_{n+1}\}$ 
2 Construct  $G = (V, E, s, t, w)$  according to Step 2
3  $\vec{p} = (v_0, \dots, v_{m+1}) = \text{Bellman} - \text{Ford}(G, m)$ 
4 for  $0 < i < m + 1$  do
5    $f_{X'}(x_i) = w(v_{i-1}, v_i) + w(v_i, v_{i+1}) + f_X(x_i)$ 
6 return  $X'$ 
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Theorem 11. *KolmogorovApprox returns an m -optimal-approximation of X .*

Proof. From Corollary 10 and the construction of G we get that the path \vec{p} obtained in line 4 of KolmogorovApprox describes a set S of support of size at most m for which $\varepsilon(S, X)$ is minimal. Then from Definition 6 and Corollary 9 we construct X' in lines 4-5 of KolmogorovApprox such that $d_K(X, X') = \varepsilon(X, S)$. Therefore X' is an m -approximation among all random variables with support contained in $\text{support}(X)$. Finally from Lemma 2 we have that X' is m -approximation among all random variables os support of size at most m , thus X' is an m -optimal-approximation of X . \square

Finally we analyze the complexity of KolmogorovApprox as follows.

213 **Theorem 12.** *The KolmogorovApprox(X, m) algorithm runs in time $O(mn^2)$, using $O(n^2)$ mem-*
 214 *ory where $n = |\text{support}(X)|$.*

215 *Proof.* Constructing the graph G as described in Step 2 takes $O(n^2)$. The number of edges in G
 216 is $O(|E|) = O(n^2)$, for every edge the weight is at most the sum of all probabilities between the
 217 source node s and the target node t , which can be calculated efficiently by aggregating the weights
 218 of already calculated edges. The construction is also the only stage that requires memory allocation,
 219 specifically $O(|E| + |V|) = O(n^2)$. Next using the Bellman-Ford algorithm on G for m iterations
 220 takes $O(m(|E| + |V|)) \approx O(mn^2)$. [[DF: cite Corman or some algorithms book]]. Finally deriving
 221 the new random variable X' from the computed path \vec{p} takes $O(m)$ time: For every node x_i in \vec{p}
 222 (at most m nodes), use the already calculated weights to find the probability mass function $f_{X'}(x_i)$.
 223 To conclude, the time complexity of KolmogorovApprox(X, m) is $O(n^2 + mn^2 + m) = O(mn^2)$
 224 and memory complexity is $O(E + V) = O(n^2)$. \square

225 4 A case study and experimental results

226 The case study examined in our experiments is the problem of task trees with deadlines [5, 4].
 227 Hierarchical planning is a well-established field in AI [6, 7, 8], and is still relevant nowadays [1,
 228 20]. A hierarchical plan is a method for representing problems of automated planning in which
 229 the dependency among tasks can be given in the form of networks, here we focus on hierarchical
 230 plans represented by task trees. The leaves in a task tree are *primitive* actions (or tasks), and the
 231 internal nodes are either *sequence* or *parallel* actions. The plans we deal with are of stochastic
 232 nature, and the task duration is described as probability distributions in the leaf nodes. We assume
 233 that the distributions are independent but *not* necessarily identically distributed and that the random
 234 variables are discrete and have a finite support.

235 A sequence node denotes a series of tasks that should be performed consecutively, whereas a parallel
 236 node denotes a set of tasks that begin at the same time. A *valid* plan is one that is fulfilled before
 237 some given *deadline*, i.e., its *makespan* is less than or equal to the deadline. The objective in this
 238 context is to compute the probability that a given plan is valid, or more formally computing $P(X <$
 239 $T)$, where X is a random variable representing the makespan of the plan and T is the deadline. The
 240 problem of finding the probability that a task tree satisfies a deadline is known to be NP-hard. In
 241 fact, even the problem of summing a set of random variables is NP-hard [13]. This is an example of
 242 an explicitly given random variable that we need to estimate deadline meeting probabilities for.

243 The first experiment we focus on is the problem of task trees with deadlines, and consider three
 244 types of task trees. The first type includes logistic problems of transporting packages by trucks and
 245 airplanes (from IPC2 <http://ipc.icaps-conference.org/>). Hierarchical plans of those logistic problems
 246 were generated by the JSHOP2 planner [14], one parallel node with all descendant task nodes being
 247 in sequence. The second type consists of task trees used as execution plans for the ROBIL team
 248 entry in the DARPA robotics challenge (DRC simulation phase), and the third type is of linear plans
 249 (sequential task trees). The primitive tasks in all the trees are modeled as discrete random variables
 250 with support of size M obtained by discretization of uniform distributions over various intervals.
 251 The number of tasks in a tree is denoted by N .

252 We implemented the approximation algorithm for solving the deadline problem with four different
 253 methods of approximation. The first two are for achieving a one-sided Kolmogorov approxima-
 254 tion – the OptTrim [4] and the Trim [5] operators, and the third is a simple sampling scheme.
 255 We used those methods as a comparison to the Kolmogorov approximation with the suggested

256 KolmogorovApprox algorithm. The parameter m of OptTrim and KolmogorovApprox corre-
 257 sponds to the inverse of ε given to the Trim operator. Note that in order to obtain some error ε , one
 258 must take into consideration the size of the task tree N , therefore, $m/N = 1/(\varepsilon \cdot N)$. We ran also an
 259 exact computation as a reference to the approximated one in order to calculate the error. The exper-
 260 iments conducted with the following operators and their parameters: KolmogorovApprox operator
 261 with $m = 10 \cdot N$, the OptTrim operator with $m = 10 \cdot N$, the Trim as operator with $\varepsilon = 0.1/N$,
 and two simple simulations, with a different samples number $s = 10^4$ and $s = 10^6$.

Task Tree	M	KolmogorovApprox	OptTrim	Trim	Sampling	
		$m/N=10$	$m/N=10$	$\varepsilon \cdot N=0.1$	$s=10^4$	$s=10^6$
Logistics ($N=34$)	2	0	0	0.0019	0.007	0.0009
	4	0.0024	0.0046	0.0068	0.0057	0.0005
Logistics ($N=45$)	2	0.0002	0.0005	0.002	0.015	0.001
	4	0	0.003	0.004	0.008	0.0006
DRC-Drive ($N=47$)	2	0.0014	0.004	0.009	0.0072	0.0009
	4	0.001	0.008	0.019	0.0075	0.0011
Sequential ($N=10$)	2	0.0093	0.015	0.024	0.0063	0.0008
	4	0.008	0.024	0.04	0.008	0.0016

Table 1: Comparison of estimated errors with respect to the reference exact computation on various task trees.

262

263 Table 1 shows the results of the case study experiment. The quality of the solutions provided by
 264 using the KolmogorovApprox operator are better than those provided by the Trim and OptTrim
 265 operators, following the optimality guarantees, but is interesting to see that the quality gaps hap-
 266 pen in practice in each of the examined task trees. However, in some of the task trees the sampling
 267 method produced better results than the approximation algorithm with KolmogorovApprox. Never-
 268 theless, the approximation algorithm comes with an inherent advantage of providing an exact quality
 269 guarantees, as opposed to the probabilistic guarantees provided by sampling.

270 In order to better understand the quality gaps in practice between KolmogorovApprox, OptTrim,
 271 and Trim, we investigate their relative errors when applied on single random variables with support
 272 size $n = 100$, and different support sizes of the resulting random variable approximation (m). In
 273 each instance of this experiment, a random variable is randomly generated by choosing the prob-
 274 abilities of each element in the support uniformly and then normalizing these probabilities so that
 275 they sum to 1.

276 Figure 1 present the error produced by the above methods. The depicted results are averages over
 277 several instances (50 instances) of random variables. The curves in the figure show the average error
 278 of OptTrim and Trim operators with comparison to the average error of the optimal approximation
 279 provided by KolmogorovApprox as a function of m . According to the depicted results it is evident
 280 that increasing the support size of the approximation m reduces the error, as expected, in all three
 281 methods. However, errors produced by the KolmogorovApprox are significantly smaller, a half of
 282 the error produced by OptTrim and Trim.

283 We also examined how our algorithm compares to linear programming as described and discussed, for
 284 example, in [15]. We ran an experiment to compare the run-time between the KolmogorovApprox
 285 algorithm with the run-time of a state-of-art implementation of linear programming. We used the
 286 “Minimize” function of Wolfram Mathematica and fed it with the equations $\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|x - \alpha\|_\infty$
 287 subject to $\|\alpha\|_0 \leq m$ and $\|\alpha\|_1 = 1$. The run-time comparison results were clear and persuasive,
 288 for a random variable with support size $n = 10$ and $m = 5$, the LP algorithm run-time was 850
 289 seconds, where the KolmogorovApprox algorithm run-time was less than a tenth of a second. For

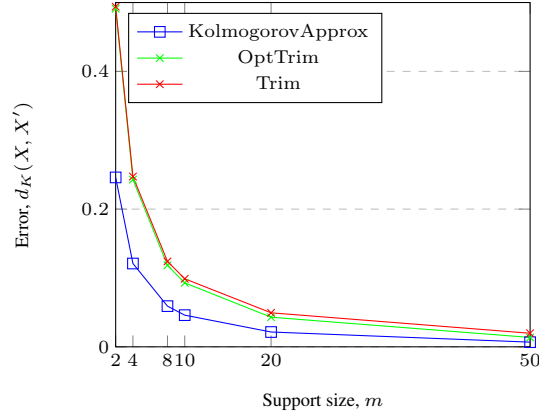


Figure 1: Error comparison between KolmogorovApprox, OptTrim, and Trim, on randomly generated random variables as function of m .

290 $n = 100$ and $m = 5$, the KolmogorovApprox algorithm run-time was 0.14 seconds and the LP
 291 algorithm took more than a day. Due to these timing results of the LP algorithm we did not proceed
 292 to examine it any further. Since it is not trivial to formally analyze the run-time of the LP algorithm,
 293 we conclude by the reported experiment that in this case the LP algorithm might not be as efficient
 294 as KolmogorovApprox algorithm whose complexity is proven to be polynomial in Theorem 12.

295 5 Discussion

296 Compact representations of distributions is mentioned in the literature in various contexts for various
 297 applications. In this paper, we are interested in finding optimal approximation of a random variables
 298 under the Kolmogorov metric which we define as optimal m -approximation. In order to achieve
 299 this optimal approximation two steps were taken, find the support of the optimal random variable
 300 and then calculate the pmf of each and every value in that support to minimize the error. Proofs of
 301 existences, optimality and run-time were detailed in Section 3 and the main algorithm was presented,
 302 the KolmogorovApprox algorithm. Establishing the main contribution of this paper which is to
 303 present an optimal approximation scheme and to show it can be achieved in polynomial run-time.
 304 Furthermore, empirical evaluation was conducted on different domains and application to examine
 305 the algorithm performance in practice. We were interested in two aspects of performance - accuracy
 306 and run-time. Regarding to accuracy, as expected, the suggested KolmogorovApprox algorithm
 307 results much smaller error compared to the other methods, sometimes, in more then factor Of 2.
 308 Regarding to run-time, KolmogorovApprox algorithm run-time is significantly much faster then
 309 LP approach. However, compared to other approximation methods accuracy vs. run-time is a trade
 310 off yet to be examined. Another interesting experiment that can be conducted in future work is to
 311 add the presented approach as one of the methods examined in [21] and compare it to the binning
 312 approaches.

313 As elaborated in the paper, our algorithm improves on the approach of Cohen, Shimony and
 314 Weiss [5] and [4] in that it finds an optimal two sided Kolmogorov approximation, and not just
 315 one sided. We consider this paper as a step in the examination of algorithms for optimal approxi-
 316 mations of random variables. Beyond the Kolmogorov measure studied here we believe that similar
 317 approaches may apply also to total variation, the Wasserstein distance, and to other measures of
 318 approximations for other purposes.

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