Kolmogorov Approximation

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1 Introduction

- 2 Many different approaches to approximation of probability distributions are studied in the literature [2,
- 3 4]. Typically, a continuous distribution is approximated by a discrete one, but approximation is also
- 4 needed when a discrete distribution is given as a large data-set, obtained, e.g., by experimentation,
- 5 and we want to represent it approximately with a small table [5].
- 6 One of the most cited notion of the distance between distributions is often considered to be the
- 7 distances between the corresponding commutative distribution functions (cdf). One of the most widely
- 8 known distances is the, so called, Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance, which leads to the corresponding
- 9 goodness of fit test, see for instance [?] and [?]. This distance is based on a single point where the
- absolute difference between two cdfs is maximized, and equals to the corresponding value of the
- 11 absolute difference.
- 12 approximations are sometimes employed.
- 13 In this work, motivated by the problem of estimating the probability of meeting deadlines, we focus
- on the Kolmogorov distance $d_k(X, X') = \sup_t |F_X(t) F_{X'}(t)|$ where F_X and $F_{X'}$ are the CDFs
- of X and X', respectively.
- **Definition 1.** A random variable X' is an m-optimal-approximation of a random variable X if
- | support(X')| $\leq m$ and there is no random variable X'' such that $|\operatorname{support}(X'')| \leq m$ and
- 18 $d_k(X, X'') < d_k(X, X')$.

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2 An Algorithm for Optimal Approximation

- We now start our story: Given X and m how can we find X'?
- We first show that it is enough to limit our search to X's such that $\operatorname{support}(X') \subseteq \operatorname{support}(X)$.
- **Lemma 2.** For any discrete random variable X and any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, there is an m-optimalapproximation X' of X such that $\operatorname{support}(X') \subseteq \operatorname{support}(X)$.
- 25 Proof. Assume there is a random variable X" with support size m such that $d_K(X, X'')$ is minimal
- but support $(X'') \nsubseteq \text{support}(X)$. We will show how to transform X'' support such that it will
- be contained in support (X). Let v' be the first $v' \in \text{support}(X'')$ and $v' \notin \text{support}(X)$. Let
- $v = \max\{i : i < v' \land i \in \text{support}(X)\}$. Every v' we will replace with v and name the new random

- variable X', we will show that $d_K(X,X'')=d_K(X,X')$. First, note that: $F_{X''}(v')=F_{X'}(v)$,
- 30 $F_X(v') = F_X(v)$. Second, $F_{X'}(v') F_X(v') = F_{X'}(v) F_X(v)$. Therefore, $d_K(X, X'') = F_X(v)$
- $d_K(X, X')$ and X' is also an optimal approximation of X.
- 32 **Observation 3.** $max\{|a|,|b|\} \ge |a-b|/2$
- The next lemma states a lower bound on the distance $d_K(X, X')$ when a range of elements is excluded from the support of X'.
- 35 **Lemma 4.** For $x_1, x_2 \in \operatorname{support}(X) \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ such that $x_1 < x_2$, if $P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$ 36 then $d_k(X, X') \ge P(x_1 < X < x_2)/2$.
- 37 Proof. Let $\hat{x} = \max\{x \in \operatorname{support}(X) \cap \{-\infty, \infty\}: x < x_2\}$. By definition, $d_k(X, X') \geq x$
- 38 $\max\{|F_X(x_1) F_{X'}(x_1)|, |F_X(\hat{x}) F_{X'}(\hat{x})|\}$. From Observation 3, $d_k(X, X') \ge 1/2|F_X(x_1) F_{X'}(x_1)|$
- 39 $F_X(\hat{x}) + F_{X'}(\hat{x}) F_{X'}(x_1)$. Since it is given that $F_{X'}(\hat{x}) F_{X'}(x_1) = P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$,
- 40 $d_k(X, X') \ge 1/2|F_X(x_1) F_X(\hat{x})| = P(x_1 < X \le \hat{x})/2 = P(x_1 < X < x_2)/2.$
- The next lemma strengthen the lower bound.
- 42 **Lemma 5.** For $x_1, x_2 \in \text{support}(X) \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ such that $x_1 = -\infty$ or $x_2 = \infty$, if $P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$ then $d_k(X, X') \ge P(x_1 < X < x_2)$.
- 44 Proof. Let $\hat{x} = \max\{x \in \operatorname{support}(X) \cap \{-\infty, \infty\}: x < x_2\}$. By definition $d_k(X, X') \geq x_2$
- 45 $\max\{|F_X(x_1) F_{X'}(x_1)|, |F_X(\hat{x}) F_{X'}(\hat{x})|\}$. If $x_1 = -\infty$ then $d_k(X, X') \geq \{|F_X(\hat{x}) F_{X'}(\hat{x})|\}$
- 46 $F_{X'}(\hat{x})|$ since $F_X(-\infty) = F_{X'}(-\infty) = 0$. Furthermore, $F_{X'}(\hat{x}) = P(x_1 < X' < x_2) =$
- 47 0. Therefore $d_k(X, X') \geq F_X(\hat{x}) = P(x_1 < X \leq \hat{x}) = P(x_1 < X < x_2)$. If $x_2 = \infty$
- 48 then $d_k(X, X') \geq \{|F_X(x_1) F_{X'}(x_1)|\}$ since $F_X(\hat{x}) = F_{X'}(\hat{x}) = F_X(\infty) = F_{X'}(\infty) = 1$.
- Furthermore, $F_{X'}(x_1) = 1$ since it is given that $P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$. Therefore we get that
- 50 $d_k(X, X') \ge |F_X(x_1) 1| = |1 F_X(\hat{x}) | = P(x_1 < X \le \hat{x}) = P(x_1 < X < x_2).$
- Definition 6. For $x_1, x_2 \in \operatorname{support}(X) \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ let

$$w(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} P(x_1 < X < x_2) & \text{if } x_1 = -\infty \text{ or } x_2 = \infty; \\ P(x_1 < X < x_2)/2 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Definition 7. For $S = \{x_1 < \cdots < x_m\} \subseteq \operatorname{support}(X)$, $x_0 = -\infty$, and $x_{m+1} = \infty$, let

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

- From here on, until the end of the section, S is fixed.
- **Proposition 8.** There is no X' such that support(X') = S and $d_k(X, X') < \varepsilon(X, S)$.
- 55 *Proof.* Let i be the index that maximizes $w(x_i, x_{i+1})$. If 0 < i < n-1 then $d_k(X, X') \ge$
- $w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ by Lemma 4. If i = 0 or i = n+1 the same follows from Lemma 5.
- **Definition 9.** Let X' to by $f_{X'}(x_i) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + f_X(x_i)$ for i = 1, ..., m and
- 58 $f_{X'}(x) = 0 \text{ for } x \notin S.$
- 59 **Lemma 10.** For i > 1, if $F_{X'}(x_i) F_X(x_i) = w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ then $F_{X'}(x_{i+1}) F_X(x_{i+1}) = 0$
- 60 $w(x_{i+1}, x_{i+2})$.

Proof.

$$F_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - F_X(x_{i+1}) =$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - P(X < x_{i+1}) + P(X' < x_{i+1})$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i) - P(x_i < X < x_{i+1}) + F_{X'}(x_i)$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - F_X(x_i) - 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + F_{X'}(x_i)$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_i, x_{i+1})$$

$$= w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}) - 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_i, x_{i+1})$$

$$= w(x_{i+1}, x_{i+2})$$

$$(1)$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - P(X < x_{i+1}) + P(X' < x_{i+1}) + F_{X'}(x_i)$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_i, x_{i+1})$$

$$= w(x_{i+1}, x_{i+2})$$

$$(4)$$

By Definition 6 the probability $P(x_{i-1} < X < x_i) = 2w(x_{i-1}, x_i)$ as in Equation (2). Equation (3) is deduced by the induction hypothesis and Equation (4) where $f_{X'}(x_i) - f_X(x_i) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ is true by construction, see Definition 9.

Lemma 11. Base case: $i = 1, F_{X'}(x_1) - F_X(x_1) = w(x_1, x_2)$.

Proof.

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$$F_{X'}(x_1) - F_X(x_1) =$$

$$= f_{X'}(x_1) - f_X(x_1) - w(x_0, x_1)$$

$$= w(x_0, x_1) + w(x_1, x_2) - w(x_0, x_1)$$

$$= w(x_1, x_2)$$

65

Chakravarty, Orlin, and Rothblum [1] proposed a polynomial-time method that, given certain objective

functions (additive), finds an optimal consecutive partition. Their method involves the construction

Proposition 12. There exists X' such that support(X') = S and $d_k(X, X') = \varepsilon(X, S)$.

of a graph such that the (consecutive) set partitioning problem is reduced to the problem of finding the shortest path in that graph. 70 The Kolmogorov Approx algorithm (Algorithm 2) starts by constructing a directed weighted graph 71 G similar to the method of Chakravarty, Orlin, and Rothblum [1]. The nodes V consist of the 72 support of X together with an extra two nodes ∞ and $-\infty$ for technical reasons, whereas the 73 edges E connect every pair of nodes in one direction (lines 1-2). The weight w of each edge 74 $e = (i, j) \in E$ is determined by on of two cases. The first is where i or j are the source or target 75 nodes respectively. In this case the weight is the probability of X to get a value between i and 76 j, non inclusive, i.e., w(e) = Pr(i < X < j) (lines 4-5). The second case is where i or j are 77 not a source or target nodes, here the weight is the probability of X to get a value between i and 78 j, non inclusive, divided by two i.e., w(e) = Pr(i < X < j)/2 (lines 6-7). The values taken 79 are non inclusive, since we are interested only in the error value. The source node of the shortest 80 path problem at hand corresponds to the $-\infty$ node added to G in the construction phase, and the 81 target node is the extra node ∞ . The set of all solution paths in G, i.e., those starting at $-\infty$ and 82 ending in ∞ with at most m edges, is called $paths(G, -\infty, \infty)$. The goal is to find the path l^* 83 in $paths(G, -\infty, \infty)$ with the lightest bottleneck (lines 8-9). This can be achieved by using the 84 Bellman - Ford algorithm with two tweaks. The first is to iterate the graph G in order to find only 85 paths with length of at most m edges. The second is to find the lightest bottleneck as opposed to

the traditional objective of finding the shortest path. This is performed by modifying the manner of 87 "relaxation" to bottleneck(x) = min[max(bottleneck(v), w(e))], done also in [6]. Consequently, 88 we find the lightest maximal edge in a path of length $\leq m$, which represents the minimal error, ε^* , 89 defined in Definition ??. X' is then derived from the resulting path l^* (lines 10-17). Every node 90 $n \in l^*$ represent a value in the new calculated random variable X', we than iterate the path l^* to fine 91 the probability of the event $f_{X'}(n)$. For every edge $(i,j) \in l^*$ we determine: if (i,j) is the first edge in the path l^* (i.e. $i == -\infty$), then node j gets the full weight w(i,j) and it's own weight in X 93 such that $f_{X'}(j) = f_X(j) + w(i,j)$ (lines 11-12). If (i,j) in not the first nor the last edge in path 94 l^* then we divide it's weight between nodes i and j in addition to their own original weight in X 95 and the probability that already accumulated (lines 16-17). If (i, j) is the last edge in the path l^* (i.e. $i = \infty$) then node i gets the full weight w(i, j) in addition to what was already accumulated such that $f_{X'}(j) = f_{X'}(j) + w(i, j)$ (lines 13-14).

Algorithm 1: KolmogorovApprox(X, m)

Algorithm 2: KolmogorovApprox(X, m)

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1 S = \operatorname{support}(X) \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}
2 G = (V, E) = (S, \{e = (x, y) \in S^2 : x < y\})
3 foreach e = (x, y) \in E do
       if i = \infty OR j = -\infty then
        w(e) = Pr(i < X < j)
       else
6
        \  \  \, \bigsqcup \, w(e) = Pr(i < X < j)/2
8 /* The following can be obtained, e.g., using the Bellman-Ford algorithm */
9 l^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{l \in paths(G, -\infty, \infty, |l| \le m} \max\{w(e) : e \in l\}
10 foreach e=(i,j)\in l^* do
       if i = -\infty then
11
        f_{X'}(j) = f_X(j) + Pr(i \le X < j)
12
       else if j == \infty then
13
        f_{X'}(i) = f_{X'}(i) + Pr(i \le X < j)
14
15
            f_{X'}(i) = f_{X'}(i) + Pr(i \le X < j)/2
16
           f_{X'}(j) = f_X(j) + Pr(i \le X < j)/2
17
18 return X'
```

Theorem 13. The KolmogorovApprox(X, m) algorithm runs in time $O(mn^2)$, using $O(n^2)$ memory where $n = |\operatorname{support}(X)|$.

101 Proof. Constructing the graph G takes $O(n^2)$. The number of edges is $O(E) \approx O(n^2)$ and for every edge the weight is at most the sum of all probabilities between the source node $-\infty$ and the target 103 node ∞ , which can be done efficiently by aggregating the weights of already calculated edges. The 104 construction is also the only stage that requires memory allocation, specifically $O(E+V) = O(n^2)$.

Finding the shortest path takes $O(m(E+V)) \approx O(mn^2)$. Since G id DAG (directed acyclic graph) finding shortest path takes O(E+V). We only need to find paths of length $\leq m$, which takes O(m(E+V)). Deriving the new random variable X' from the computed path l^* takes O(mn). For every node in l^* (at most m nodes), calculating the probability $P(s < X < \infty)$ takes at most n. To conclude, the worst case run-time complexity is $O(n^2 + mn^2 + mn) = O(mn^2)$ and memory complexity is $O(E+V) = O(n^2)$.

3 Experiments and Results

In the first experiment we focus on the problem of task trees with deadlines, and consider three types of task trees. The first type includes logistic problems of transporting packages by trucks and airplanes (from IPC2 http://ipc.icaps-conference.org/). Hierarchical plans of those logistic problems were generated by the JSHOP2 planner [3] (see example problem, Figure 1). The second type consists of task trees used as execution plans for the ROBIL team entry in the DARPA robotics challenge (DRC simulation phase), and the third type is of linear plans (sequential task trees). The primitive tasks in all the trees are modeled as discrete random variables with support of size M obtained by discretization of uniform distributions over various intervals. The number of tasks in a tree is denoted by N.

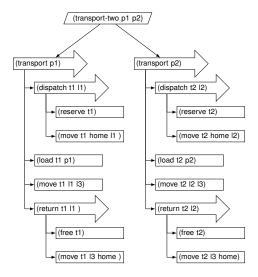


Figure 1: A plan generated by the JSHOP2 algorithm. Arrow shapes represent sequence nodes, parallelograms represent parallel nodes, and rectangles represent primitive nodes.

We implemented the approximation algorithm for solving the deadline problem with four different methods of approximation. The first two are for achieving a one-sided Kolmogorov approximation — the OptTrim and the Trim operators, and a simple sampling scheme which we used as comparison to the Kolmogorov approximation with the Kolmogorov Approx algorithm. The parameter m of OptTrim and Kolmogorov Approx corresponds to the inverse of ε given to the Trim operator. Note that in order to obtain some error ε , one must take into consideration the size of the task tree, N, therefore, $m/N=1/(\varepsilon\cdot N)$. We ran the algorithm for exact computation as reference, the approximation algorithm using Kolmogorov Approx as its operator with $m=10\cdot N$, the OptTrim as its 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 | OptTrim | Trim | Sampling | |
|----------------------|----|---------|-----------------------------|----------|------------|
| Task Ticc | | m/N=10 | $\varepsilon \cdot N = 0.1$ | $s=10^4$ | $s=10^{6}$ |
| Logistics $(N = 34)$ | 2 | 0 | 0.0019 | 0.007 | 0.0009 |
| | 4 | 0.0046 | 0.0068 | 0.0057 | 0.0005 |
| Logistics (N=45) | 2 | 0.0005 | 0.002 | 0.015 | 0.001 |
| | 4 | 0.003 | 0.004 | 0.008 | 0.0006 |
| DRC-Drive | 2 | 0.004 | 0.009 | 0.0072 | 0.0009 |
| (N=47) | 4 | 0.008 | 0.019 | 0.0075 | 0.0011 |
| Sequential (N=10) | 4 | 0.024 | 0.04 | 0.008 | 0.0016 |
| | 10 | 0.028 | 0.06 | 0.0117 | 0.001 |

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

| m | OptTrim | Trim | Relative error |
|----|---------|-------|----------------|
| 2 | 0.491 | 0.493 | 0.4% |
| 4 | 0.242 | 0.247 | 2.1% |
| 8 | 0.118 | 0.123 | 4.4% |
| 10 | 0.093 | 0.099 | 6% |
| 20 | 0.043 | 0.049 | 15% |
| 50 | 0.013 | 0.019 | 45.4% |

Table 2: OptTrim vs. Trim on randomly generated random variables with original support size M=100.

Table 1 shows the results of the main experiment. The quality of the solutions provided by using the OptTrim operator are better (lower errors) than those provided by the Trim operator, following the optimality guarantees, but is interesting to see that the quality gaps happen in practice in each of the examined task trees. However, in some of the task trees the sampling method produced better results than the approximation algorithm with OptTrim. Nevertheless, the approximation algorithm comes with an inherent advantage of providing an exact quality guarantees, as opposed to the probabilistic guarantees provided by sampling.

In order to better understand the quality gaps in practice between OptTrim and Trim, we investigate their relative errors when applied on single random variables with different sizes of the support (M), and different support sizes of the resulting random variable approximation (m). In each instance of this experiment, a random variable is randomly generated by choosing the probabilities of each element in the support from a uniform distribution and then normalizing these probabilities so that they sum to one.

Tables 2 and 3 present the error produced by OptTrim and Trim on random variables with supports 144 sizes of M=100 and M=1000, respectively. The depicted results in these tables are averages 145 over several instances of random variables for each entry (50 instances in Table 2 and 10 instances in 146 Table 3). The two central columns in each table show the average error of each method, whereas the 147 right column presents the average percentage of the relative error of the Trim operator with respect 148 to the error of the optimal approximation provided by OptTrim; the relative error of each instance is 149 calculated by (Trim / OptTrim) - 1. According to the depicted results it is evident that increasing 150 the support size of the approximation m reduces the error, as expected, in both methods. However, 151 the interesting phenomenon is that the relative error percentage of Trim grows with the increase of 152 153

The above experiments display the quality of approximation provided by the OptTrim algorithm, but it comes with a price tag in the form of run-time performance. The time complexity of both the Trim operator and the sampling method is linear in the number of variables, resulting in much faster run-time performances than OptTrim, for which the time complexity is only polynomial (Theorem 13), not linear. The run-time of the exact computation, however, may grow exponentially.

| m | OptTrim | Trim | Relative error |
|-----|---------|--------|----------------|
| 50 | 0.0193 | 0.0199 | 3.4% |
| 100 | 0.0093 | 0.0099 | 7.1% |
| 200 | 0.0043 | 0.0049 | 15.7% |

Table 3: OptTrim vs. Trim on randomly generated random variables with original support size M = 1000.

Therefore, we examine in the next experiment the problem sizes in which it becomes beneficial in terms of run-time to use the proposed approximation.

Figure 2 presents a comparison of the run-time performances of an exact computation and approxi-161 mated computations with OptTrim and Trim as operators. The computation is a summation of a 162 sequence of random variables with support size of M=10, where the number N of variables varies 163 from 6 to 19. In this experiment, we executed the OptTrim operator with m=10 after performing 164 each convolution between two random variables, in order to maintain a support size of 10 in all 165 intermediate computations. Equivalently, we executed the Trim operator with $\varepsilon = 0.1$. The results 166 clearly show the exponential run-time of the exact computation, caused by the convolution between 167 two consecutive random variables. In fact, in the experiment with N=20, the exact computation 168 ran out of memory. These results illuminate the advantage of the proposed OptTrim algorithm that 169 balances between solution quality and run-time performance – while there exist other, faster, methods 170 (e.g., Trim), OptTrim provides high-quality solutions in reasonable (polynomial) time, which is 171 especially important when an exact computation is not feasible, due to time or memory. 172

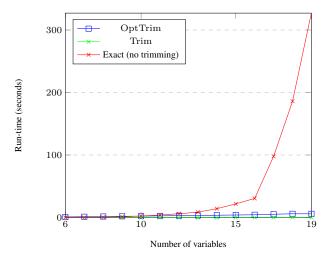


Figure 2: Run-time of a long computation with OptTrim, with Trim, and without any trimming (exact computation).

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