
Kolmogorov Approximation

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1 Introduction

Many different approaches to approximation of probability distributions are studied in the literature [4, 6, 7]. The papers vary in the types random variables involved, how they are represented, and in the criteria used for evaluation of the quality of the approximations. This paper is on approximating discrete distributions represented as explicit probability mass functions with ones that are simpler to store and to manipulate. This is needed, for example, when a discrete distribution is given as a large data-set, obtained, e.g., by sampling, and we want to represent it approximately with a small table.

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

We measure the quality of an approximation by the distance between the original variable and the approximate one. Specifically, we use the Kolmogorov distance which is one of the most used in statistical practice and literature. Given two random variables X and X' whose cumulative distribution functions (cdfs) are F_X and $F_{X'}$, respectively, the Kolmogorov distance between X and X' is $d_K(X, X') = \sup_t |F_X(t) - F_{X'}(t)|$ (see, e.g., [3]). We say that X' is a good approximation of X if $d_K(X, X')$ is small.

The complexity of a random variable is measured by the size of its support, the number of values that it can take, $|\text{support}(X)| = |\{x: \Pr(X = x) \neq 0\}|$. When distributions are maintained as explicit tables, as done in many implementations of statistical software, the size of the support of a variable is proportional to the amount of memory needed to store it and to the complexity of the computations around it.

In summary, the exact notion of optimality of the approximation targeted in this paper is:

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

The main contribution of the paper is a constructive proof of:

Theorem 2. Given a random variable X and a number m , there is an algorithm with memory and time complexity $O(|\text{support}(X)|^2 \cdot m)$ that computes an optimal m -approximation of X .

30 2 Related Work

31 The problem studied in this paper is related to the theory of Sparse Approximation (aka Sparse
32 Representation) that 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 $x = D\alpha$:

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

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

In these terms, our problem can be phrased as:

$$\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^p} \|x - D\alpha\| \text{ subject to } \|\alpha\|_0 = m \text{ and } \|\alpha\|_1 = 1.$$

36 where D is the all-ones triangular matrix (the value at row i and column j is one if $i \leq j$ and zero
37 otherwise), x is related to X such that the i th coordinate of x is $F_X(x_i)$ where $\text{support}(X) =$
38 $\{x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n\}$ and α is related to X' such that the i th coordinate of α is $f_{X'}(x'_i)$ where
39 $\text{support}(X') = \{x'_1 < x'_2 < \dots < x'_m\}$. The functions F_X and $f_{X'}$ represent, receptively, the
40 cumulative distribution function of X and the mass distribution function of X' .

41 3 An Algorithm for Optimal Approximation

- 42 • We now start our story: Given X and m how can we find X' ?
- 43 • We first show that it is enough to limit our search to X' 's such that $\text{support}(X') \subseteq$
44 $\text{support}(X)$.

45 **Lemma 3.** *For any discrete random variable X and any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, there is an m -optimal-*
46 *approximation X' of X such that $\text{support}(X') \subseteq \text{support}(X)$.*

47 *Proof.* Assume there is a random variable X'' with support size m such that $d_K(X, X'')$ is minimal
48 but $\text{support}(X'') \not\subseteq \text{support}(X)$. We will show how to transform X'' support such that it will
49 be contained in $\text{support}(X)$. Let v' be the first $v' \in \text{support}(X'')$ and $v' \notin \text{support}(X)$. Let
50 $v = \max\{i : i < v' \wedge i \in \text{support}(X)\}$. Every v' we will replace with v and name the new random
51 variable X' , we will show that $d_K(X, X'') = d_K(X, X')$. First, note that: $F_{X''}(v') = F_{X'}(v)$,
52 $F_X(v') = F_X(v)$. Second, $F_{X'}(v') - F_X(v') = F_{X'}(v) - F_X(v)$. Therefore, $d_K(X, X'') =$
53 $d_K(X, X')$ and X' is also an optimal approximation of X . \square

54 **Observation 4.** $\max\{|a|, |b|\} \geq |a - b|/2$

- 55 • The next lemma states a lower bound on the distance $d_K(X, X')$ when a range of elements
56 is excluded from the support of X' .

57 **Lemma 5.** *For $x_1, x_2 \in \text{support}(X) \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ such that $x_1 < x_2$, if $P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$*
58 *then $d_k(X, X') \geq P(x_1 < X < x_2)/2$.*

59 *Proof.* Let $\hat{x} = \max\{x \in \text{support}(X) \cap \{-\infty, \infty\} : x < x_2\}$. By definition, $d_k(X, X') \geq$
60 $\max\{|F_X(x_1) - F_{X'}(x_1)|, |F_X(\hat{x}) - F_{X'}(\hat{x})|\}$. From Observation 4, $d_k(X, X') \geq 1/2|F_X(x_1) -$

61 $F_X(\hat{x}) + F_{X'}(\hat{x}) - F_{X'}(x_1)|$. Since it is given that $F_{X'}(\hat{x}) - F_{X'}(x_1) = P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$,
 62 $d_k(X, X') \geq 1/2|F_X(x_1) - F_X(\hat{x})| = P(x_1 < X \leq \hat{x})/2 = P(x_1 < X < x_2)/2$. \square

63 • The next lemma strengthen the lower bound.

64 **Lemma 6.** For $x_1, x_2 \in \text{support}(X) \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ such that $x_1 = -\infty$ or $x_2 = \infty$, if $P(x_1 <$
 65 $X' < x_2) = 0$ then $d_k(X, X') \geq P(x_1 < X < x_2)$.

66 *Proof.* Let $\hat{x} = \max\{x \in \text{support}(X) \cap \{-\infty, \infty\} : x < x_2\}$. By definition $d_k(X, X') \geq$
 67 $\max\{|F_X(x_1) - F_{X'}(x_1)|, |F_X(\hat{x}) - F_{X'}(\hat{x})|\}$. If $x_1 = -\infty$ then $d_k(X, X') \geq \{|F_X(\hat{x}) -$
 68 $F_{X'}(\hat{x})|\}$ since $F_X(-\infty) = F_{X'}(-\infty) = 0$. Furthermore, $F_{X'}(\hat{x}) = P(x_1 < X' < x_2) =$
 69 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 $x_2 = \infty$
 70 then $d_k(X, X') \geq \{|F_X(x_1) - F_{X'}(x_1)|\}$ since $F_X(\hat{x}) = F_{X'}(\hat{x}) = F_X(\infty) = F_{X'}(\infty) = 1$.
 71 Furthermore, $F_{X'}(x_1) = 1$ since it is given that $P(x_1 < X' < x_2) = 0$. Therefore we get that
 72 $d_k(X, X') \geq |F_X(x_1) - 1| = |1 - F_X(\hat{x})| = P(x_1 < X \leq \hat{x}) = P(x_1 < X < x_2)$. \square

73 **Definition 7.** For $x_1, x_2 \in \text{support}(X) \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ let

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

74 **Definition 8.** For $S = \{x_1 < \dots < x_m\} \subseteq \text{support}(X)$, $x_0 = -\infty$, and $x_{m+1} = \infty$, let

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

75 • From here on, until the end of the section, S is fixed.

76 **Proposition 9.** There is no X' such that $\text{support}(X') = S$ and $d_k(X, X') < \varepsilon(X, S)$.

77 *Proof.* Let i be the index that maximizes $w(x_i, x_{i+1})$. If $0 < i < n - 1$ then $d_k(X, X') \geq$
 78 $w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ by Lemma 5. If $i = 0$ or $i = n + 1$ the same follows from Lemma 6. \square

79 **Definition 10.** 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 $i = 1, \dots, m$ and
 80 $f_{X'}(x) = 0$ for $x \notin S$.

81 **Lemma 11.** For $i > 1$, if $F_{X'}(x_i) - F_X(x_i) = w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ then $F_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - F_X(x_{i+1}) =$
 82 $w(x_{i+1}, x_{i+2})$.

Proof.

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

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

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

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

$$= f_{X'}(x_{i+1}) - f_X(x_{i+1}) - 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) \tag{3}$$

$$= w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}) - 2w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) \tag{4}$$

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

83 By Definition 7 the probability $P(x_{i-1} < X < x_i) = 2w(x_{i-1}, x_i)$ as in Equation (2). Equation (3)
 84 is deduced by the induction hypothesis and Equation (4) where $f_{X'}(x_i) - f_X(x_i) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i) +$
 85 $w(x_i, x_{i+1})$ is true by construction, see Definition 10. \square

86 **Lemma 12.** *Base case: $i = 1, F_{X'}(x_1) - F_X(x_1) = w(x_1, x_2)$.*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_{X'}(x_1) - F_X(x_1) &= \\
 &= f_{X'}(x_1) - f_X(x_1) - w(x_0, x_1) \\
 &= w(x_0, x_1) + w(x_1, x_2) - w(x_0, x_1) \\
 &= w(x_1, x_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

87

□

88 **Proposition 13.** *There exists X' such that $\text{support}(X') = S$ and $d_k(X, X') = \varepsilon(X, S)$.*

89 Chakravarty, Orlin, and Rothblum [1] proposed a polynomial-time method that, given certain objective
 90 functions (additive), finds an optimal consecutive partition. Their method involves the construction
 91 of a graph such that the (consecutive) set partitioning problem is reduced to the problem of finding
 92 the shortest path in that graph.

93 The KolmogorovApprox algorithm (Algorithm 2) starts by constructing a directed weighted graph
 94 G similar to the method of Chakravarty, Orlin, and Rothblum [1]. The nodes V consist of the support
 95 of X together with an extra two nodes, $-\infty$ and ∞ for technical reasons, whereas the edges E
 96 connect every pair of nodes in one direction (lines 1-2). The weight w of each edge $e = (i, j) \in E$
 97 is determined by one of two cases as in Definition 7. The first is where i or j are the source or
 98 target nodes respectively. In this case the weight is the probability of X to get a value between i
 99 and j , non inclusive, i.e., $w(e) = \Pr(i < X < j)$ (lines 4-5). The second case is where i or j
 100 are not a source or target nodes, here the weight is the probability of X to get a value between i
 101 and j , non inclusive, divided by two i.e., $w(e) = \Pr(i < X < j)/2$ (lines 6-7). The values taken
 102 are non inclusive, since we are interested only in the error value. The source node of the shortest
 103 path problem at hand corresponds to the $-\infty$ node added to G in the construction phase, and the
 104 target node is the extra node ∞ . The set of all solution paths in G , i.e., those starting at $-\infty$ and
 105 ending in ∞ with at most m edges, is called $\text{paths}(G, -\infty, \infty)$. The goal is to find the path l
 106 in $\text{paths}(G, -\infty, \infty)$ with the lightest bottleneck (lines 8-9). This can be achieved by using the
 107 *Bellman – Ford* algorithm with two tweaks. The first is to iterate the graph G in order to find only
 108 paths with length of at most m edges. The second is to find the lightest bottleneck as opposed to
 109 the traditional objective of finding the shortest path. This is performed by modifying the manner of
 110 “relaxation” to $\text{bottleneck}(x) = \min[\max(\text{bottleneck}(v), w(e))]$, done also in [8]. Consequently,
 111 we find the lightest maximal edge in a path of length $\leq m$, which represents the minimal error,
 112 $\varepsilon(X, S)$, defined in Definition 8 where the nodes in path l represent the elements in set S . The
 113 approximated random variable X' is then derived from the resulting path l (lines 10-17). Every node
 114 $n \in l$ represent a value in the new calculated random variable X' , we then iterate the path l to fine the
 115 probability of the event $f_{X'}(n)$ as described in Definition 10. For every edge $(i, j) \in l$ we determine:
 116 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
 117 own weight in X such that $f_{X'}(j) = f_X(j) + w(i, j)$ (lines 11-12). If (i, j) is not the first nor the
 118 last edge in path l then we divide it's weight between nodes i and j in addition to their own original
 119 weight in X and the probability that already accumulated (lines 16-17). If (i, j) is the last edge in
 120 the path l (i.e. $i == \infty$) then node i gets the full weight $w(i, j)$ in addition to what was already
 121 accumulated such that $f_{X'}(j) = f_{X'}(j) + w(i, j)$ (lines 13-14).

122 **Theorem 14.** $\text{KolmogorovApprox}(X, m) = X'$ where X' is an m -optimal-approximation.

Algorithm 1: KolmogorovApprox(X, m)

```
1  $S = \text{support}(X) \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$ 
2  $G = (V, E) = (S, \{e = (x, y) \in S^2 : x < y\})$ 
3  $l = \text{argmin}_{l \in \text{paths}(G, -\infty, \infty), |l| \leq m} \max\{w(e) : e \in l\}$ 
4 for  $0 < i < m + 1$  do
5    $f_{X'}(x_i) = w(x_{i-1}, x_i) + w(x_i, x_{i+1}) + f_X(x_i)$ 
6 return  $X'$ 
```

Algorithm 2: KolmogorovApprox(X, m)

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

123 **Theorem 15.** *The KolmogorovApprox(X, m) algorithm runs in time $O(mn^2)$, using $O(n^2)$ mem-*
124 *ory where $n = |\text{support}(X)|$.*

125 *Proof.* Constructing the graph G takes $O(n^2)$. The number of edges is $O(E) \approx O(n^2)$ and for every
126 edge the weight is at most the sum of all probabilities between the source node $-\infty$ and the target
127 node ∞ , which can be done efficiently by aggregating the weights of already calculated edges. The
128 construction is also the only stage that requires memory allocation, specifically $O(E + V) = O(n^2)$.
129 Finding the shortest path takes $O(m(E + V)) \approx O(mn^2)$. Since G is DAG (directed acyclic graph)
130 finding shortest path takes $O(E + V)$. We only need to find paths of length $\leq m$, which takes
131 $O(m(E + V))$. Deriving the new random variable X' from the computed path l takes $O(mn)$. For
132 every node in l (at most m nodes), calculating the probability $P(s < X < \infty)$ takes at most n .
133 To conclude, the worst case run-time complexity is $O(n^2 + mn^2 + mn) = O(mn^2)$ and memory
134 complexity is $O(E + V) = O(n^2)$. \square

135 4 Experiments and Results

136 In the first experiment we focus on the problem of task trees with deadlines, and consider three
137 types of task trees. The first type includes logistic problems of transporting packages by trucks and
138 airplanes (from IPC2 <http://ipc.icaps-conference.org/>). Hierarchical plans of those logistic problems

139 were generated by the JSHOP2 planner [5] (see example problem, Figure 1). The second type consists
 140 of task trees used as execution plans for the ROBIL team entry in the DARPA robotics challenge
 141 (DRC simulation phase), and the third type is of linear plans (sequential task trees). The primitive
 142 tasks in all the trees are modeled as discrete random variables with support of size M obtained by
 143 discretization of uniform distributions over various intervals. The number of tasks in a tree is denoted
 by N .

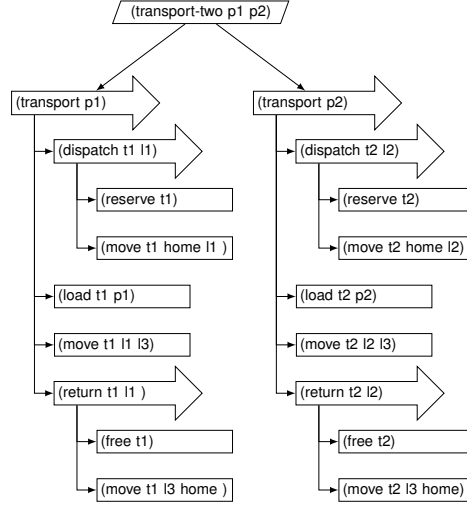


Figure 1: A plan generated by the JSHOP2 algorithm. Arrow shapes represent sequence nodes, parallelograms represent parallel nodes, and rectangles represent primitive nodes.

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145 We implemented the approximation algorithm for solving the deadline problem with four different
 146 methods of approximation. The first two are for achieving a one-sided Kolmogorov approxima-
 147 tion – the OptTrim [?] and the Trim [2] operators, and the third is a simple sampling scheme.
 148 We used those methods as a comparison to the Kolmogorov approximation with the suggested
 149 KolmogorovApprox algorithm. The parameter m of OptTrim and KolmogorovApprox corre-
 150 sponds to the inverse of ε given to the Trim operator. Note that in order to obtain some error ε ,
 151 one must take into consideration the size of the task tree N , therefore, $m/N = 1/(\varepsilon \cdot N)$. We ran
 152 also an exact computation as a reference to the approximated one in order to calculate the error.
 153 The experiments conducted with the following operators and their parameters: KolmogorovApprox
 154 operator 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	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	0.004	0.009	0.0072	0.0009
	4	0	0.008	0.019	0.0075	0.0011
Sequential ($N=10$)	2	0.009	0.015	0.024	0	0
	4	0.001	0.024	0.04	0.008	0.0016
	10	0	0.028	0.06	0.0117	0.001

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

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m	Relative error Kolmogorov Vs. OptTrim	Relative error Kolmogorov Vs. Trim
2	1.0054	0.994
4	1.0373	1.000
8	1.096	1.002
10	1.1221	0.9946
20	1.2986	1.001
50	1.888	0.994

Table 2: Relative error KolmogorovApprox Vs. OptTrim and KolmogorovApprox Vs. Trim on randomly generated random variables with original support size $n = 100$.

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 KolmogorovApprox, OptTrim, and Trim, we investigate their relative errors when applied on single random variables with support size $n = 100$, 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 Figure 2 present the error produced by the above methods. The depicted results in the table are averages over several instances of random variables for each entry (50 instances). The columns in the table show the average percentage of the relative error of the OptTrim and Trim operators with respect to the error of the optimal approximation provided by KolmogorovApprox; the relative error of each instance is calculated by $(\text{OptTrim} / \text{KolmogorovApprox}) - 1$, $(\text{Trim} / \text{KolmogorovApprox}) - 1$, respectively. The figure shows the average error of each method, whereas each curve represent a different method as a function of m .

According to the depicted results it is evident that increasing the support size of the approximation m reduces the error, as expected, in all three methods. However, errors produced by the KolmogorovApprox are significantly smaller, safe to say, a half of the error produced by OptTrim and Trim, it is clear both in the table (the relative error is mostly above 1) and in the graph.

The above experiments display the quality of approximation provided by the KolmogorovApprox algorithm, as proven before to be optimal approximation under the Kolmogorv metric. One may wonder the need of such an algorithm where the use of linear programing in an easy valid option described and discussed in previews works [6]. In order to address this issue we executed an experiment to compare the run-time between KolmogorovApprox algorithm and a simple linear programing algorithm. The LP algorithm implemented in Mathematics as follows:.... The run-time comparison results were very clear and persuasive, for a random variable with support size $n = 10$ and $m = 5$, the LP algorithm run-time was 850 sec, where the KolmogorovApprox algorithm run-time was ≈ 0 sec. Furthermore, for a random variable with support size $n = 100$ and $m = 5$, the KolmogorovApprox algorithm run-time was 0.14 sec and the LP algorithm took significantly much longer, therefore, due to time limitations of the LP algorithm we did not proceed to examine it any farther. Since it is not trivial to deduce LP algorithm run-time we concluded by the conducted experiment that in this case the LP algorithm might not be as efficient as KolmogorovApprox algorithm were its run-time is proven to be polynomial 15.

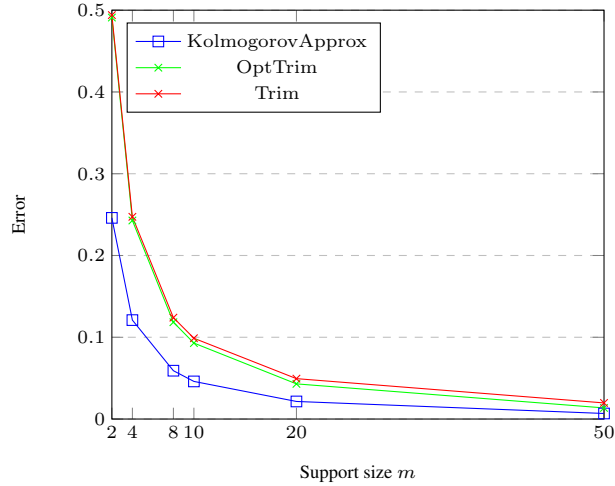


Figure 2: Error comparison between KolmogorovApprox, OptTrim, and Trim, on randomly generated random variables as function of m .

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