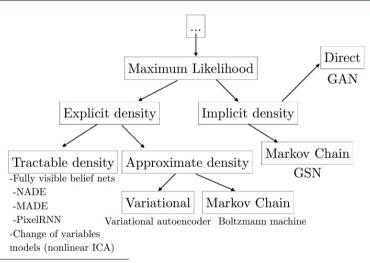
### X. Optimal Transport-based Method

Young-geun Kim

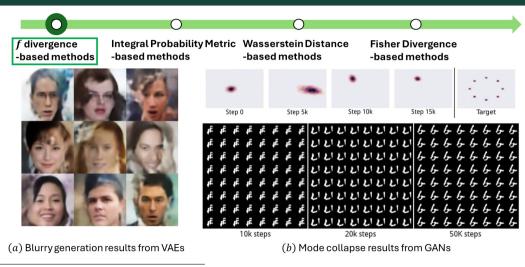
Department of Statistics and Probability

STT 997 (SS 2025)

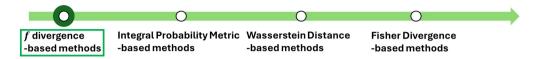




The figure is from Goodfellow (2016).



Images are edited from Tolstikhin et al. (2018) and Metz et al. (2017).



- The mode collapse phenomenon in GANs demonstrates that the  $p_{\theta}$  fails in capturing the support of  $p_n$ .
- Several works have criticized *f*-divergence,

$$\mathcal{D}_f(p_n||p_\theta) = \int f\left(\frac{p_n(\vec{x})}{p_\theta(\vec{x})}\right) p_\theta(\vec{x}) d\vec{x},$$

pointing out that it is based on the density ratio  $p_n/p_\theta$ , and this dependency may be a reason for the observed failures in f-divergence-based methods.



Integral Probability Metric -based methods

Wasserstein Distance -based methods

Fisher Divergence -based methods

- As an alternative to density ratios, a line of work has proposed focusing on discrepancy measures that are effective regardless of the differences between the supports of  $p_n$  and  $p_\theta$ .
- For example, Generative Moment Matching Networks (Li et al., 2015) aim to minimize:

$$\|\int \varphi(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_n(\vec{x}) - \int \varphi(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(\vec{x})\|^2 \tag{1}$$

where the integrated terms  $\varphi(\vec{x})$  represent vectors of finite moments, e.g.,  $\varphi(x) = (c, \sqrt{2c}x, x^2)^T$  in the univariate case with second-order moments.

• This loss function is a special case of integral probability metrics,  $\gamma_{\mathcal{F}}(p_n, p_{\theta})$ , where  $\mathcal{F}$  denotes a set of summary statistics functions, such as moments.

### Integral Probability Metric

• The IPMs can be expressed as:

$$\gamma_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q}) \coloneqq \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \int f(ec{x}) \, d\mathbb{P}(ec{x}) - \int f(ec{x}) \, d\mathbb{Q}(ec{x}) \right|$$

where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a class of real-valued functions, and  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are probability measures.

### Integral Probability Metric

• **Total Variation Distance**: The total variation distance,  $\delta(p,q) = \frac{1}{2} \int |p(\vec{x}) - q(\vec{x})| d\vec{x}$ , has an alternative expression:

$$\sup_{A\in\mathcal{A}} |\mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{Q}(A)| = \sup_{A\in\mathcal{A}} \left| \int I(\vec{x}\in A) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) - \int I(\vec{x}\in A) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}) \right|$$

where A is the corresponding  $\sigma$ -algebra. Thus, the total variation is the IPM using the set of indicator functions for all events.

• Earth Mover's Distance: When  $\mathcal F$  consists of all 1-Lipschitz continuous functions,  $\gamma_{\mathcal F}(\mathbb P,\mathbb Q)$  corresponds to the Earth mover's distance (or 1-Wasserstein distance), a special case of Wasserstein distances. Further details will be discussed in the subsequent subsection on Wasserstein distances.

### Integral Probability Metric

• Maximum Mean Discrepancy (MMD): We denote the kernel mean by  $\mu_{\mathbb{P}}(\vec{x}) := \int k(\vec{x}', \vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}')$ . Then, the MMD is defined as the difference between kernel means in  $\mathcal{H}$ , the RKHS specified by k:

$$\mathsf{MMD}_k(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q}) := \|\mu_{\mathbb{P}} - \mu_{\mathbb{Q}}\|_{\mathcal{H}}.$$

MMD builds a kernel-based test statistic for a two-sample test:

$$H_0: \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{Q} \text{ vs. } H_1: \mathbb{P} \neq \mathbb{Q}.$$

- The MMD has important alternative representations:
  - **1PM:**  $\mathsf{MMD}_k(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}) = \sup_{\|f\|_{\mathcal{H}} < 1} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}) \right).$
  - Kernel function form:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{MMD}_{k}^{2}(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q}) \\ &= \int k(\vec{x},\vec{x}') d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}') - 2 \int k(\vec{x},\vec{y}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{y}) + \int k(\vec{y},\vec{y}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{y}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{y}'). \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

### MMD: Generative Moment Matching Network

- Generative Moment Matching Network (GMMN): GMMNs (Li et al., 2015) propose
  to use empirical estimators as loss functions to train generative models rather than
  introducing adversarial networks as in GANs.
  - Given  $(\vec{x_i})_{i=1}^B$  and  $(G_{\theta}(\vec{z_i}))_{i=1}^B$ , minibatch samples of size B from  $\mathbb{P}_n$  and  $\mathbb{P}_{\theta}$  respectively, the minibatch-based empirical estimators for  $\mathsf{MMD}^2_k(\mathbb{P}_n,\mathbb{P}_{\theta})$  can be expressed as

$$\frac{1}{B(B-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \sum_{j\neq i}^{B} k(\vec{x}_{i}, \vec{x}_{j}) - \frac{2}{B^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \sum_{j=1}^{B} k(\vec{x}_{i}, G_{\theta}(\vec{z}_{j})) 
+ \frac{1}{B(B-1)} \sum_{i=1}^{B} \sum_{j\neq i}^{B} k(G_{\theta}(\vec{z}_{i}), G_{\theta}(\vec{z}_{j})).$$
(3)

• GMMNs used a mixture of multiple Gaussian kernels with various bandwidth parameters.

### MMD: Generative Moment Matching Network

- Minimizing  $\mathsf{MMD}_k(\mathbb{P}_n, \mathbb{P}_\theta)$  can be interpreted as matching moments between  $\mathbb{P}_n$  and  $\mathbb{P}_\theta$ .
- Let k be the kernel that defines the MMD, and let  $\varphi(\vec{x})^1$  represent the corresponding kernel feature mapping, i.e.,

$$k(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = \varphi(\vec{x})^{\top} \varphi(\vec{x}') \tag{4}$$

- For a univariate example, consider  $k(x,x')=(xx'+c)^2$  for some c>0. The feature mapping  $\varphi(x)=(c,\sqrt{2c}x,x^2)^{\top}$  satisfies Equation (4). Kernels with higher degrees allow for covering higher-order moments.
- The loss of GMMNs, minibatch-based empirical estimators for (squared) MMD, can be expressed as

$$\|B^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{B}\varphi(\vec{x}_{i})-B^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{B}\varphi(G_{\theta}(\vec{z}_{i}))\|^{2}.$$
 (5)

 $<sup>^1</sup>$ The symbol  $\phi$  is more commonly used, but we use  $\varphi$  here to avoid confusion with parameters for auxiliary networks, e.g., the discriminator in GANs.

### MMD: MMD GAN

#### MMD GAN:

- GMMNs face challenges in selecting effective kernels. MMD GANs (Li et al., 2017) overcome this limitation by introducing adversarial kernel learning.
- ullet MMD GANs aim to target  $\max_{k\in\mathcal{K}} \mathsf{MMD}_k(\mathbb{P}_n,\mathbb{P}_{\theta})$ , where  $\mathcal{K}$  is a class of kernel functions.
- To model an expressive class  $\mathcal{K}$ , MMD GANs employ a neural network  $E_{\phi}$  to define  $(k \circ E_{\phi})(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') := k(E_{\phi}(\vec{x}), E_{\phi}(\vec{x}'))$ , targeting:

$$\max_{\phi} \mathsf{MMD}_{k \circ \mathcal{E}_{\phi}}(\mathbb{P}_{n}, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}). \tag{6}$$

• The injectivity of  $E_{\phi}$  is crucial to retain the important properties of MMDs with usual kernels. MMD-GANs incorporate an encoder architecture for  $E_{\phi}$ , add a decoder, and introduce a reconstruction error-based penalty term to enforce the injectivity.

### Other IPMs

### 3. Methods using Other IPMs:

• One of the main challenges in using IPMs,

$$\gamma_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbb{P}_n, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}) := \sup_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \left| \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_n(\vec{x}) - \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(\vec{x}) \right|,$$

lies in approximating the supremum over the function class  $\mathcal{F}$ .

- While MMD has a tractable representation that allows for the direct use of its empirical estimators, this is not the case for more general IPMs.
- ullet Most methods targeting other IPMs employ neural networks to model elements within  $\mathcal{F}$ . Notably, Wasserstein GANs (Arjovsky et al., 2017) have become one of the most popular methods targeting the 1-Wasserstein distance.

### Outline

- OPTIMAL TRANSPORT
- 2 Wasserstein Generative Models
- 3 Application

# Optimal Transport

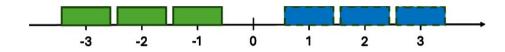
-based methods



- Another line of work has targeted Wasserstein distances from an optimal transport perspective.
- Useful materials include:
  - Optimal transport: old and new (Villani et al., 2009)
  - Optimal transport for applied mathematicians (Santambrogio, 2015)

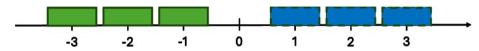
-based methods

# Motivating Example: Monge Problem



- Optimal Transport is a mathematical problem focused on identifying maps that most efficiently move one distribution of mass to another and investigating their properties.
- Let's consider a toy example of moving green bold boxes on the left to blue dashed-box regions on the right.
- Which way is more efficient?
  - **1**  $T_1$ :  $T_1(-3) = 1$ ,  $T_1(-2) = 2$ , and  $T_1(-1) = 3$
  - 2  $T_2$ :  $T_2(-3) = 3$ ,  $T_2(-2) = 2$ , and  $T_2(-1) = 1$

## Motivating Example: Monge Problem



• The answer depends on criteria. When we consider the squared  $L_2$ -distance between the original green boxes and their transportation results:

$$((-3 - T_1(-3))^2 + (-2 - T_1(-2))^2 + (-1 - T_1(-1))^2) /3$$

$$= ((-3 - 1)^2 + (-2 - 2)^2 + (-1 - 3)^2) /3 = 16$$
(7)

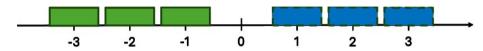
$$((-3 - T_2(-3))^2 + (-2 - T_2(-2))^2 + (-1 - T_2(-1))^2) /3$$

$$= ((-3 - 3)^2 + (-2 - 2)^2 + (-1 - 1)^2) /3 = 56/3$$
(8)

**Q**: How many (transportation) maps are there?

**Q**: What happens when we consider the  $L_1$ -distance?

# Motivating Example: Monge Problem

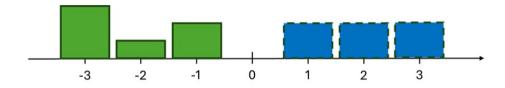


• The Monge Problem is a classical formulation in Optimal Transport: Given two probability measures  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and a cost function  $c(\cdot,\cdot):\mathcal{X}\times\mathcal{X}\to\mathbb{R}$ , the optimal transportation cost is defined as:

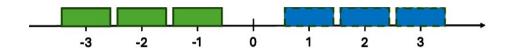
$$\min_{T:\mathbb{P}(T(\vec{x}))=\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x})} \int c(\vec{x}, T(\vec{x})) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x})$$
(9)

The constraint  $\mathbb{P}(T(\vec{x})) = \mathbb{Q}(\vec{x})$  represents the push-forward operation  $T \# \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{Q}$ . Here, the optimal solutions are referred to as *optimal transport maps*.

• When the cost function is the squared  $L_2$ -distance,  $c(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = ||\vec{x} - \vec{x}'||^2$ ,  $T_1$  is the unique optimal transport map. In the univariate case, the transport map that moves percentiles to corresponding percentiles is optimal.



- The constraint on the optimal transport map,  $\mathbb{P}(T(\vec{x})) = \mathbb{Q}(\vec{x})$ , generally poses challenges in defining the optimal transportation cost.
- The Kantorovich Problem is a generalization of the Monge Problem to alleviate these challenges.

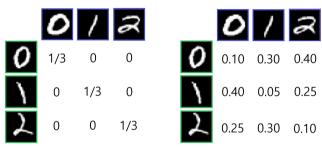


• In the first example, the joint distribution of  $(x, T_1(x))$  can be expressed as:

(Source, Target)	1	2	3	Total
-3	1/3	0	0	1/3
-2	0	1/3	0	1/3
-1	0	0	1/3	1/3
Total	1/3	1/3	1/3	1

• That is, each (deterministic) transport map identifies the corresponding joint distribution of the source data and their transported results.

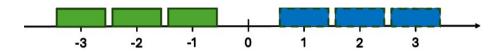
# Motivating Example: Optimal Transportation Costs as Measures of Generation Quality



Joint Distribution

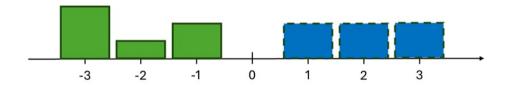
**Transportation Cost** 

$$\begin{split} & \left(0.10\times(1/3) + 0.30\times0 + 0.40\times0\right) \\ & + \left(0.40\times0 + 0.05\times(1/3) + 0.25\times0\right) \\ & + \left(0.25\times0 + 0.30\times0 + 0.10\times(1/3)\right) = 0.08 \end{split}$$



- We denote the joint probability measure by  $\pi(\cdot,\cdot)$  s.t.  $\pi(\cdot,\Omega_{\vec{X}'})=\mathbb{P}(\cdot)$  and  $\pi(\Omega_{\vec{X}'},\cdot)=\mathbb{Q}(\cdot)$ . Then, the transportation cost can be expressed as  $\int c(\vec{x},\vec{x}')d\pi(\vec{x},\vec{x}')$ .
- The Kantorovich Problem involves minimizing transportation costs among all joint distributions whose marginals are the source and target data distributions:

(Source, Target)	1	2	3	Total
-3	$p_{(-3,1)}$	$p_{(-3,2)}$	$p_{(-3,3)}$	1/3
-2	$p_{(-2,1)}$	$p_{(-2,2)}$	$p_{(-2,3)}$	1/3
-1	$p_{(-1,1)}$	$p_{(-1,2)}$	$p_{(-1,3)}$	1/3
Total	1/3	1/3	1/3	1



(Source, Target)	1	2	3	Total
-3	$p_{(-3,1)}$	$p_{(-3,2)}$	$p_{(-3,3)}$	1/2
-2	$p_{(-2,1)}$	$p_{(-2,2)}$	$p_{(-2,3)}$	1/6
-1	$p_{(-1,1)}$	$p_{(-1,2)}$	$p_{(-1,3)}$	1/3
Total	1/3	1/3	1/3	1

$$\min_{\substack{\rho_{(-3,1)},\dots,\rho_{(-1,3)}\\ \rho_{(-3,1)},\dots,\rho_{(-1,3)}}} \left(c(-3,1)\rho_{(-3,1)}+\dots+c(-1,3)\rho_{(-1,3)}\right)$$
 subject to 
$$p_{(-3,1)}+p_{(-3,2)}+p_{(-3,3)}=1/2,$$
 
$$p_{(-2,1)}+p_{(-2,2)}+p_{(-2,3)}=1/6,$$
 
$$p_{(-1,1)}+p_{(-1,2)}+p_{(-1,3)}=1/3,$$
 
$$p_{(-3,1)}+p_{(-2,1)}+p_{(-1,1)}=1/3,$$
 
$$p_{(-3,2)}+p_{(-2,2)}+p_{(-1,2)}=1/3,$$
 
$$p_{(-3,3)}+p_{(-2,3)}+p_{(-1,3)}=1/3,$$
 
$$p_{(-3,1)}\geq 0,\dots,p_{(-1,3)}\geq 0.$$
 (10)

### Wasserstein Distance

• The *p*-Wasserstein distance is defined as:

$$W_p(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q};d) := \left(\inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q})} \int d^p(ec{x},ec{x}') \, d\pi(ec{x},ec{x}')
ight)^{1/p}$$

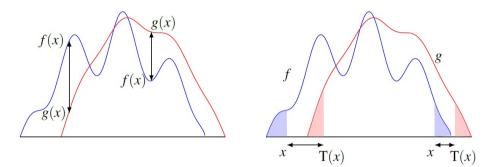
where  $p \in [1, \infty)$ , d is a metric defined on  $\mathcal{X}$ , and  $\Pi(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q})$  is the set of all joint probability measures whose marginals are  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

- ullet Under some conditions, there exists an optimal transport map  $T^*$  that satisfies:

That is, Monge Problem can be equivalent to the Kantorovich Problem, and together they are simply referred to as the Monge-Kantorovich Problem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>The Kantorovich Problem is generally defined with the cost function c.

### Wasserstein Distance



- The *f*-divergence utilizes density-ratios to quantify discrepancies between distributions.
- In contrast, Wasserstein distances utilize transportation costs.

The figure is from Santambrogio (2015).

### Wasserstein Distance

- For example, when d is the Euclidean norm,  $W_p$  becomes the Mallows metric (Mallows, 1972), and has played an important role in deriving asymptotic properties of bootstrap estimators (Bickel and Freedman, 1981; Freedman, 1981).
- Wasserstein distances effectively quantify differences between high-dimensional distributions when their supports are in low-dimensional manifolds.

### Example

(Example 1 in Arjovsky et al., 2017) Let  $Z \sim U[0,1]$ ,  $\vec{X} = (0,Z)^T$ , and  $G_{\theta}(Z) = (\theta,Z)^T$ .

- Intuitively,  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{P}_{n=\infty}, \mathbb{P}_{\theta})$  should decrease as  $\theta$  vanishes.
  - $W_p(\mathbb{P}_{n=\infty}, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}; |\cdot|) = |\theta|$
  - $\mathsf{JS}(\mathbb{P}_{n=\infty} \parallel \mathbb{P}_{\theta}) = \log 2 \text{ if } \theta \neq 0 \text{ and } 0 \text{ if } \theta = 0$
  - $\mathsf{KL}(\mathbb{P}_{n=\infty} \parallel \mathbb{P}_{\theta}) = \infty \text{ if } \theta \neq 0 \text{ and } 0 \text{ if } \theta = 0$
  - $\delta(\mathbb{P}_{n=\infty},\mathbb{P}_{\theta})=1$  if  $\theta\neq 0$  and 0 if  $\theta=0$

### $1-\mathsf{Wasserstein}$ Distance: Duality

• When p = 1 (called *Earth Mover's Distance*), duality holds (Villani et al., 2009; Villani, 2021):

$$W_1(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}; d) = \sup_{f, g: f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \le d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \right). \tag{11}$$

• When we further assume that  $d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = ||\vec{x} - \vec{x}'||$  for some norm  $||\cdot||$ , the dual form can be re-expressed as:

$$W_1(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}; d) = \sup_{\mathsf{Lip}(f) \le 1} \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) - \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x})$$
 (12)

where  $\operatorname{Lip}(f) := \max\{C||f(\vec{x}) - f(\vec{x}')| \le C\|\vec{x} - \vec{x}\|\}$  represents the Lipschitz constant of f. Note that this dual form implies that  $W_1$  is an IPM.

 $\sup_{f,g} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') - \int \left( f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \right) \pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \right) = 0 \text{ when } \pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}) \text{ and } = \infty \text{ otherwise, which implies:}$ 

$$\begin{split} &\inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q})} \int d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \\ &= \inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q})} \left( \int d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \right. \\ &+ \sup_{f,g} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') - \int \left( f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \right) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \right) \right) \\ &= \inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q})} \sup_{f,g} \left( \int d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') + \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \right. \\ &- \int \left( f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \right) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \right). \end{split}$$

Now, by exchanging the infimum and supremum:<sup>3</sup>

$$\begin{split} &\inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P},\mathbb{Q})} \sup_{f,g} \bigg( \int d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') + \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \\ &- \int \Big( f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \Big) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \Big) \\ &= \sup_{f,g} \inf_{\pi \geq 0} \bigg( \int d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') + \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \\ &- \int \Big( f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \Big) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \Big) \\ &= \sup_{f,g} \bigg( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') + \inf_{\pi \geq 0} \int \Big( d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') - f(\vec{x}) - g(\vec{x}') \Big) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \Big). \end{split}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>See Section 1.2. in Santambrogio (2015) for details on conditions to exchange them.

Note that  $\inf_{\pi \geq 0} \int \left( d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') - f(\vec{x}) - g(\vec{x}') \right) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = 0$  if  $f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \leq d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')$  for all  $(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')$  and  $= -\infty$  otherwise. This implies:

$$\sup_{f,g} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') + \inf_{\pi \geq 0} \int \left( d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') - f(\vec{x}) - g(\vec{x}') \right) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \right) \\
= \sup_{f,g:f(\vec{x})+g(\vec{x}') \leq d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \right).$$

Next, we show that:

$$W_{1}(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}; d) = \sup_{f,g:f(\vec{x})+g(\vec{x}') \leq d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \left( \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \right)$$

$$= \sup_{\mathsf{Lip}(f) \leq 1} \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) - \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}).$$
(13)

when we further assume that  $d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = ||\vec{x} - \vec{x}'||$  for some norm  $||\cdot||$ .

(i) LHS  $\leq$  RHS: For any f and g s.t.  $f(\vec{x}) + g(\vec{x}') \leq d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')$  for all  $(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')$ ,

$$f(\vec{x}) \le f^d(\vec{x}) := \inf_{\vec{x}'} \left( d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') - g(\vec{x}') \right) \le d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}) - g(\vec{x}) = -g(\vec{x}). \tag{14}$$

This implies  $\int f(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}')d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \leq \int f^d(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) - \int f^d(\vec{x})d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x})$ .

Here,  $f^d$  is 1-Lipschitz continuous because:

$$f^{d}(\vec{x}_{1}) \leq \inf_{\vec{x}'} \left( d(\vec{x}_{1}, \vec{x}_{2}) + d(\vec{x}_{2}, \vec{x}') - g(\vec{x}') \right) = d(\vec{x}_{1}, \vec{x}_{2}) + f^{d}(\vec{x}_{2})$$
(15)

and  $d(\vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2) = d(\vec{x}_2, \vec{x}_1)$ . This implies  $\int f(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}')d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}') \leq \text{RHS}$ , which concludes the proof for LHS  $\leq$  RHS.

(ii) LHS  $\geq$  RHS: For any 1-Lipschitz continuous function f and  $\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q})$ ,

$$\int d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') \ge \int \left( f(\vec{x}) - f(\vec{x}') \right) d\pi(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')$$

$$= \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) - \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}).$$
(16)

Now, sequentially taking the infimum over  $\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q})$  and the supremum over  $f : \operatorname{Lip}(f) \leq 1$  yields LHS > RHS.

### Primal vs. Dual Problems

- For general cases with cost function c:

  - ② (Dual)  $\sup_{f,g:f(\vec{x})+g(\vec{x}') \leq c(\vec{x},\vec{x}')} \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) + \int g(\vec{x}') d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x}')$
- When  $d(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = ||\vec{x} \vec{x}'||$ :

  - ② (Dual)  $W_1(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}; d) = \sup_{\mathsf{Lip}(f) \le 1} \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}(\vec{x}) \int f(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{x})$

## Multi-marginal Transport Problem

- The optimal transportation cost is generally defined for multiple distributions as follows:
  - (Primal)

$$\inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbb{P}^{(M)})} \int c(\vec{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{x}^{(M)}) d\pi(\vec{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{x}^{(M)})$$
(17)

where  $\Pi(\mathbb{P}^{(1)},\ldots,\mathbb{P}^{(M)})$  represents the set of all joint probability measures whose marginals are  $\mathbb{P}^{(1)},\ldots,\mathbb{P}^{(M)}$ .

② (Dual)

$$\sup_{f_1, \dots, f_M : f_1(\vec{x}^{(1)}) + \dots + f_M(\vec{x}^{(M)}) \le c(\vec{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{x}^{(M)})} \sum_{m=1}^M \int f_m(\vec{x}^{(m)}) d\mathbb{P}^{(m)}(\vec{x}^{(m)})$$
(18)

### Outline

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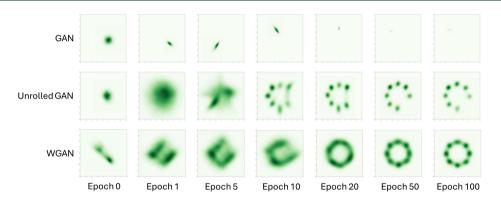
### 1-Wasserstein Distance: Wasserstein GAN

**1.** Wasserstein GAN (WGAN): WGANs model the class of 1-Lipschitz continuous functions using neural networks, denoted by  $f_{\phi}$ , with the goal of

$$\min_{\theta} \max_{f_{\phi}} \left( \int f_{\phi}(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}) - \int f_{\phi}(\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(\vec{x}) \right). \tag{19}$$

- When the set  $\{f_{\phi} \mid \phi \in \Phi\}$  perfectly approximates the set  $\{f \mid ||f||_{L} \leq 1\}$ , Equation (19) equals to  $\min_{a} W_{1}(\mathbb{P}_{n}, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}; d)$ .
- The 1-Lipschitz continuity condition can be relaxed to C-Lipschitz continuity for an arbitrary constant C: In this case, Equation (19) equals to  $C\min_{\theta} W_1(\mathbb{P}_n, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}; d)$ . To enforce this, WGANs clip weights and biases in neural network layers during training.

# 1-Wasserstein Distance: Wasserstein GAN



• WGANs performed better than GAN baselines in learning the distribution of Gaussian mixtures with 8 modes.

Images are edited from Arjovsky et al. (2017).

# 1-Wasserstein Distance: WGAN with Gradient Penalty

- 2. WGAN with Gradient Penalty (WGAN-GP): Gulrajani et al. (2017) proposed a gradient-based penalty term to enforce the Lipschitz constraint in the dual form.
  - For any  $\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}_n, \mathbb{P}_\theta)$  and  $0 \le t \le 1$ , let  $\vec{X}^{(t)} := t\vec{X} + (1-t)\vec{X}'$  where  $(\vec{X}, \vec{X}') \sim \pi$ . Authors showed that the optimal 1-Lipschitz continuous function  $f^*$  satisfies:

$$\nabla_{\vec{X}^{(t)}} f^*(\vec{X}^{(t)}) = \frac{\vec{X}' - \vec{X}^{(t)}}{\|\vec{X}' - \vec{X}^{(t)}\|}$$
 (20)

for any norm  $\|\cdot\|$ .

Motivated by this, authors proposed to target the following:

$$\int f_{\phi}(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}) - \int f_{\phi}(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(\vec{x}) + \lambda \left( \int \left( \|\nabla_{\vec{x}}f_{\phi}(\vec{x})\|_{2} - 1 \right)^{2} \sum_{t} (td\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}) + (1 - t)d\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(\vec{x})) \right)$$
(21)

### p-Wasserstein Distance: Wasserstein Autoencoder

3. Wasserstein Autoencoder (WAE): Tolstikhin et al. (2018) derived an alternative representation of the p-Wasserstein distance (Theorem 1):

$$W_{p}(\mathbb{P}_{n}, \mathbb{P}_{\theta}; d) = \left(\inf_{\mathbb{Q}(\vec{z}|\vec{x}): \int q(\vec{z}|\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}) = p(\vec{z})} \int d^{p}(\vec{x}, G_{\theta}(\vec{z})) d\mathbb{Q}(\vec{z}|\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x})\right)^{1/p} \tag{22}$$

ullet Based on this relation, WAEs introduce encoders  $q_\phi(ec{z}|ec{x})$  and target

$$\theta^* \in \arg\min_{\theta} \left( \inf_{\phi \in \Phi(\mathbb{P}_n)} \int d^p(\vec{x}, G_{\theta}(\vec{z})) d\mathbb{Q}_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_n(\vec{x}) \right)^{1/p}$$
 (23)

where 
$$\Phi(\mathbb{P}_n) := \{ \phi \mid \int q_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_n(\vec{x}) = p(\vec{z}) \}.$$

• On the RHS,  $q_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x})$  can be viewed as an encoder. The constraint in the infimum ensures that the marginal distribution of the posterior distributions matches the prior distributions.

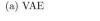
### p-Wasserstein Distance: Wasserstein Autoencoder

• In implementation, WAEs introduce a penalty term to enforce the constraint on  $\phi$ . The loss can be expressed as:

$$\int d^{p}(\vec{x}, G_{\theta}(\vec{z})) d\mathbb{Q}_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}) + \lambda \mathcal{D}_{\vec{Z}} \left( \int q_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x}) d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}), p(\vec{z}) \right)$$
(24)

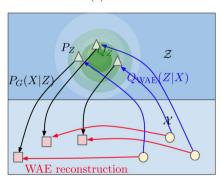
where  $\mathcal{D}_{\vec{Z}}$  indicates the statistical distance applied to the distributions of  $\vec{Z}$ . WAEs typically use JS divergence and MMD (Maximum Mean Discrepancy) as measures for  $\mathcal{D}_{\vec{Z}}$ .

### p-Wasserstein Distance: Wasserstein Autoencoder





(b) WAE



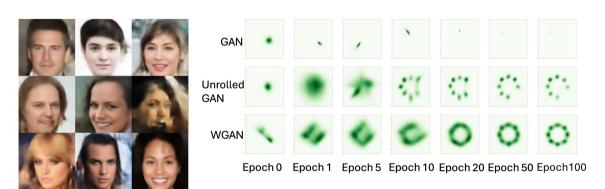
• Compared with the loss of VAEs, the negative ELBO, the penalty term changes from matching  $q_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x})$  directly with  $p(\vec{z})$  to matching  $\int q_{\phi}(\vec{z}|\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x})$  with  $p(\vec{z})$ .

The figure is from Tolstikhin et al. (2018).

VAE reconstruction

 $P_G(X|Z)$ 

#### Generation Results: WAEs and WGANs



(a) Sharp generation results from WAEs

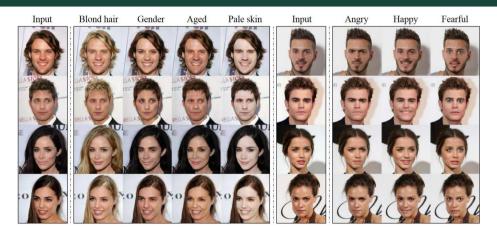
(b) Preventing mode collapse with WGANs

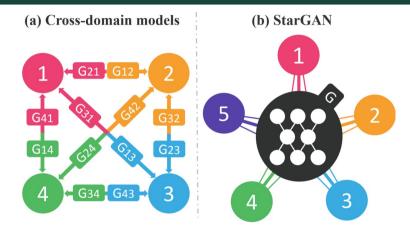
Images are edited from Arjovsky et al. (2017) and Tolstikhin et al. (2018).

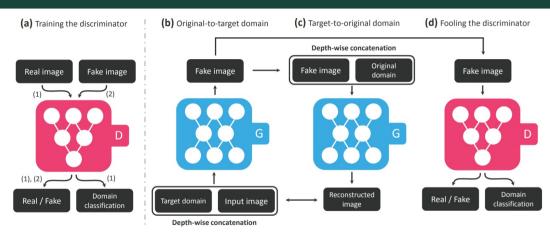
#### Outline

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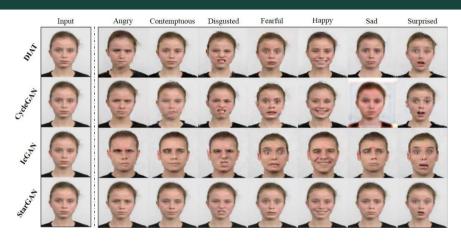


- Let  $G_{\theta}(\cdot, \vec{c})$  be a translator that moves data from an arbitrary source domain to the target domain described by  $\vec{c}$ .
- For the adversarial loss component, StarGAN targets:

$$\int f_{\phi}(\vec{x})d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x}) - \int f_{\phi}(G_{\theta}(\vec{x},\vec{c}))d\mathbb{P}_{n}(\vec{x},\vec{c})$$
 (25)

with an added gradient-penalty term.

- With the optimal  $\theta^*$ , the distribution of  $G_{\theta^*}(\vec{X},\vec{C})$  matches the real distribution, which is a mixture of sub-populations from each data domain.
- The final objective includes classification and cycle-consistency losses to further enforce that, for a given  $\vec{c}$ , the distribution of  $G_{\theta^*}(\vec{X},\vec{c})$  aligns with the sub-population for corresponding data domain.



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