Optimal transport for machine learning

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- (Morning) 3h of introductory course to optimal transport and related applications to machine learning
 - 1h20: introduction to computational optimal transport (nicolas)
 - small break
 - 1h20: applications to machine learning problems (rémi)
- (Afternoon) 3h of practical sessions in Python

Optimal transport : introduction

Introduction to OT

Simple applications

Wasserstein distances

Definition

Barycenters and geometry of optimal transport

Computational aspects of optimal transport

Regularized optimal transport

Dual formulation

Minimizing the Wasserstein distance

Gromov-Wasserstein

Optimal transport : introduction

The natural geometry of probability measures



666. MÉMOIRES DE L'ACADÉMIE ROYALE MÉMOIRES DE L'ACADÉMIE ROYALE SUR LA THÉORIE DES DÉBLAIS ET DES REMBLAIS. Par M. MONGE.

Problem [Monge, 1781]

- How to move dirt from one place (déblais) to another (remblais) while minimizing the effort ?
- Find a mapping T between the two distributions of mass (transport).
- Optimize with respect to a displacement cost c(x, y) (optimal).

The origins of optimal transport



Problem [Monge, 1781]

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- Probability measures μ_s and μ_t on and a cost function $c: \Omega_s \times \Omega_t \to \mathbb{R}^+$.
- The Monge formulation [Monge, 1781] aim at finding a mapping $T: \Omega_s \to \Omega_t$

$$\inf_{T # \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{s}} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{t}}} \quad \int_{\Omega_{\boldsymbol{s}}} c(\mathbf{x}, T(\mathbf{x})) \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{s}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$
(1)



- T# is the so called push forward operator
- it transfers measures from one space Ω_s to another space Ω_t
- it is equivalent to:

$$\mu_t(A) = \mu_s(T^{-1}(A))$$
$$\int_{\Omega_t} g(y) d\mu_t(y) = \int_{\Omega_s} g(T(x)) d\mu_s(x)$$

- for smooth measures $\mu_s=\rho(x)dx$ and $\mu_t=\eta(x)dx$

$$T \# \mu_s = \mu_t \equiv \rho(T(x)) |\mathsf{det}(\partial T(x))| = \eta(x)$$

• a.k.a. change of variable formula

Solving for this push-forward operator is a non-convex optimization problem,

- for which existence is not guaranteed,
- nor unicity



Note: [Brenier, 1991] proved existence and unicity of the Monge map for $c(x, y) = ||x - y||^2$ and distributions with densities (i.e. continuous).

Kantorovich relaxation



- Leonid Kantorovich (1912–1986), Economy nobelist in 1975, proposed a different formulation of the problem
- with applications mainly for ressource allocation problems

Optimal transport (Kantorovich formulation)



The Kantorovich formulation [Kantorovich, 1942] seeks for a probabilistic coupling γ ∈ P(Ω_s × Ω_t) between Ω_s and Ω_t:

$$\gamma_0 = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\gamma} \int_{\Omega_s \times \Omega_t} c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \gamma(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y}, \tag{2}$$

s.t.
$$\gamma \in \mathcal{P} = \left\{ \gamma \geq 0, \ \int_{\Omega_t} \gamma(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \mu_s, \int_{\Omega_s} \gamma(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} = \mu_t \right\}$$

- γ is a joint probability measure with marginals μ_s and μ_t .
- Linear Program that always have a solution.

The 3 ways of optimal transport



Image from Gabriel Peyré

Couplings



Image from Gabriel Peyré

Histogram matching in images : color grading

Pixels as empirical distribution [Ferradans et al., 2014]





Histogram matching in images : color grading

Image colorization [Ferradans et al., 2014]



Matching words embedding



- Words are embedded in a high-dimensional space with neural networks
- Matching two documents is an OT problem, with the cost being the l_2 distance in the embedded space

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Wasserstein distance



Wasserstein distance

$$W_p^p(\boldsymbol{\mu}_s, \boldsymbol{\mu}_t) = \min_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \quad \int_{\Omega_s \times \Omega_t} c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y} = \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim \boldsymbol{\gamma}} [c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})]$$
(3)

where $c(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|^p$

- A.K.A. Earth Mover's Distance (W_1^1) [Rubner et al., 2000].
- Do not need the distribution to have overlapping support.
- Works for continuous and discrete distributions (histograms, empirical).

Discrete distributions: Empirical vs Histogram

Discrete measure:
$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i \delta_{\mathbf{x}_i}, \quad \mathbf{x}_i \in \Omega, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i = 1$$

Lagrangian (point clouds)



- Constant weight: $\mu_i = \frac{1}{n}$
- Quotient space: Ω^n , Σ_n

Eulerian (histograms)



- Fixed positions \mathbf{x}_i e.g. grid
- Convex polytope Σ_n (simplex): $\{(\mu_i)_i \ge 0; \sum_i \mu_i = 1\}$

Wasserstein space

The space of probability distribution equipped with the Wasserstein metric ($\mathcal{P}_p(X)$, $W_2^2(X)$) defines a geodesic space with a Riemannian structure [Santambrogio, 2014].

• Geodesics are shortest curves on $\mathcal{P}_p(X)$ that link two distributions



Illustration by S. Kolhouri



Barycenters [Agueh and Carlier, 2011]

$$\bar{\mu} = \arg\min_{\mu} \quad \sum_{i}^{n} \lambda_{i} W_{p}^{p}(\mu^{i}, \mu)$$

- $\lambda_i > 0$ and $\sum_i^n \lambda_i = 1$.
- Uniform barycenter has $\lambda_i = \frac{1}{n}, \forall i$.
- Interpolation with n=2 and $\lambda = [1 t, t]$ with $0 \le t \le 1$ [McCann, 1997].
- Regularized barycenters using Bregman projections [Benamou et al., 2015].
- The cost and regularization impacts the interpolation trajectory.



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3D Wasserstein barycenter

Shape interpolation [Solomon et al., 2015]



Principal Geodesics Analysis



Geodesic PCA in the Wasserstein space [Bigot et al., 2017]

- Generalization of Principal Component Analysis to the Wassertsein manifold.
- Regularized OT [Seguy and Cuturi, 2015].
- Approximation using Wasserstein embedding [Courty et al., 2017].
- Also note recent Wasserstein Dictionary Learning approaches [Schmitz et al., 2017].

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Gromov-Wasserstein

We consider the case where c(x, y) is a strictly convex and increasing function of |x - y|.

- if $x_1 < x_2$ and $y_1 < y_2$, it is easy to check that $c(x_1, y_1) + c(x_2, y_2) < c(x_1, y_2) + c(x_2, y_1)$
- As such, any optimal transport plan respects the ordering of the elements, and the solution is given by the monotone rearrangement of μ_1 onto μ_2

This gives very simple algorithm to compute the transport in $O(N \log N)$, by sorting both x_i and y_i and summing the absolute values of differences.



Special case: 1D distribution

Consider the cumulative distribution functions F_{μ} associated to the μ distribution.

• It is defined such that $F_{\mu}(t) = \mu(-\infty, t]$.

We will note $F_{\mu}^{-1}(q), q \in [0,1]$ the corresponding generalized inverse distribution (or quantile function)

• defined as $F_{\mu}^{-1}(q) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} : F_{\mu}(x) \ge q\}.$

Then,

$$W_1(\boldsymbol{\mu_s}, \boldsymbol{\mu_t}) = \int_0^1 c(F_{\boldsymbol{\mu_s}}^{-1}(q), F_{\boldsymbol{\mu_t}}^{-1}(q)) dq$$



This property gives a method for computing Wasserstein in higher dimensions (n > 1). The principle is simple. Slice the distribution along lines, project the measures onto it and compute 1D Wasserstein along those projections. More formally, consider the Radon transform \mathcal{R} :

$$\mathcal{R}(\mu,\theta) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^{d-1}} \mu(\mathbf{x}) \delta(t-\theta.\mathbf{x}) dx$$

where $t \in \mathbb{R}$ parametrizes the support and $\forall \theta \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$ (unit sphere in \mathbb{R}^d). Then, the p-sliced Wasserstein distance is given by:

p-sliced Wasserstein distance pSW [Bonneel et al., 2015]

$$pSW_p^p(\boldsymbol{\mu_s}, \boldsymbol{\mu_t}) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^{d-1}} W_p^p(\mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\mu_s}, \theta), \mathcal{R}(\boldsymbol{\mu_t}, \theta)) d\theta$$

works well in 2D, impractical in larger dimensions.

Special case: transport between Gaussians

In the case where $\mu_s \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $\mu_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_2, \Sigma_2)$ the Wasserstein distance with $c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2$ reduces to:

 W_2^2 between Gaussians

$$W_2^2(\boldsymbol{\mu_s}, \boldsymbol{\mu_t}) = ||\mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{m}_2||_2^2 + \mathcal{B}(\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2)^2$$

where $\mathbb{B}(,)$ is the so-called Bures metric:

$$\mathcal{B}(\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2)^2 = \mathsf{trace}(\Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2 - 2(\Sigma_1^{1/2} \Sigma_2 \Sigma_1^{1/2})^{1/2}).$$

The optimal map T is given by

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{m}_2 + A(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_1)$$



with $A = \Sigma_1^{-1/2} (\Sigma_1^{1/2} \Sigma_2 \Sigma_1^{1/2})^{1/2} \Sigma_1^{-1/2}$

Optimal transport with discrete distributions



 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{OT Linear Program} \\ \boldsymbol{\gamma}_0 = \mathop{\mathrm{argmin}}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \quad \left\{ \langle \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{C} \rangle_F = \sum_{i,j} \gamma_{i,j} c_{i,j} \right\} \end{array}$

where C is a cost matrix with $c_{i,j} = c(\mathbf{x}_i^s, \mathbf{x}_j^t)$ and the marginals constraints are

$$\mathcal{P} = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\gamma} \in (\mathbb{R}^+)^{\mathbf{n_s} \times \mathbf{n_t}} \,|\, \boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{1_{n_t}} = \boldsymbol{\mu_s}, \boldsymbol{\gamma^T} \mathbf{1_{n_s}} = \boldsymbol{\mu_t} \right\}$$

Solved with Network Flow solver of complexity $O(n^3 \log(n))$.

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Solved with Network Flow solver of complexity $O(n^3 \log(n))$.



- ${\mathcal P}$ is the Birkhoff polytope
- No unique solution in some cases, numerical instabilities
- Not differentiable !

Regularized optimal transport

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}_0^{\lambda} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \quad \langle \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{C} \rangle_F + \lambda \Omega(\boldsymbol{\gamma}),$$

Regularization term $\Omega(\gamma)$

- Entropic regularization [Cuturi, 2013].
- Group Lasso [Courty et al., 2016].
- KL, Itakura Saito, β-divergences, [Dessein et al., 2016].

Why regularize?

- Smooth the "distance" estimation: $W_{\lambda}(\mu_s,\mu_t) = \left< \gamma_0^{\lambda}, \mathbf{C} \right>_F$
- Encode prior knowledge on the data.
- Better posed problem (convex, stability).
- Fast algorithms to solve the OT problem.



Entropic regularized optimal transport



Entropic regularization [Cuturi, 2013]

$$\Omega(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \sum_{i,j} \boldsymbol{\gamma}(i,j) (\log \boldsymbol{\gamma}(i,j) - 1)$$

• Regularization with the negative entropy of γ .

Entropic regularized optimal transport



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Entropy-regularized transport

The solution of entropy regularized optimal transport problem is of the form $\gamma_0^\lambda=\text{diag}(\mathbf{u})\exp(-\mathbf{C}/\lambda)\text{diag}(\mathbf{v})$

Why ? Consider the Lagrangian of the optimization problem:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{ij} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij} \mathbf{C}_{ij} + \lambda \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij} (\log \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij} - 1) + \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{\mathbf{T}} (\boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathbf{1}_{n_t} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_s) + \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\mathbf{T}} (\boldsymbol{\gamma}^T \mathbf{1}_{n_s} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_t)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij}} = \mathbf{C}_{ij} + \lambda \log \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij} + \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i + \beta_j$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij}} = 0 \implies \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij} = \exp(\frac{\alpha_i}{\lambda}) \exp(-\frac{\mathbf{C}_{ij}}{\lambda}) \exp(\frac{\beta_j}{\lambda})$$

- \bullet Through the Sinkhorn theorem $\mathsf{diag}(u)$ and $\mathsf{diag}(v)$ exist and are unique.
- Can be solved by the **Sinkhorn-Knopp** algorithm (implementation in parallel, GPU).

The Sinkhorn-Knopp algorithm performs alternatively a scaling along the rows and columns of $\mathbf{K}=\exp(-\frac{\mathbf{C}}{\lambda})$ to match the desired marginals.

Algorithm 1 Sinkhorn-Knopp Algorithm (SK).

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Require: } \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{C}, \lambda \\ \mathbf{u}^{(0)} = \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{K} = \exp(-\mathbf{C}/\lambda) \\ \textbf{for } i \text{ in } 1, \ldots, n_{it} \textbf{ do} \\ \mathbf{v}^{(i)} = \mathbf{b} \oslash \mathbf{K}^\top \mathbf{u}^{(i-1)} \ // \ \textbf{Update right scaling} \\ \mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \mathbf{a} \oslash \mathbf{K} \mathbf{v}^{(i)} \ // \ \textbf{Update left scaling} \\ \textbf{end for} \\ \textbf{return } \mathcal{T} = \text{diag}(\mathbf{u}^{(n_{it})}) \mathbf{K} \text{diag}(\mathbf{v}^{(n_{it})}) \end{array}$

- Complexity $O(kn^2)$, where k iterations are required to reach convergence
- Fast implementation in parallel, GPU friendly
- Convolutive/Heat structure for K [Solomon et al., 2015]

Sinkhorn as Bregman projections

Recalling that the Kullback Leibler (KL) divergence between two distribution is

$$\mathrm{KL}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\rho}) = \sum_{ij} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij} \log \frac{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{ij}}{\boldsymbol{\rho}_{ij}} = <\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \log \frac{\boldsymbol{\gamma}}{\boldsymbol{\rho}} >_{F},$$

Benamou *et al.* [Benamou et al., 2015] showed that solving for the OT problem is actually a Bregman projection

OT as a Bregman projection

 γ^{\star} is the solution of the following Bregman projection

$$\gamma^{\star} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\gamma \in \mathcal{P}} \operatorname{KL}(\gamma, \zeta), \tag{5}$$

where $\zeta = \exp(-\frac{C}{\lambda})$.

- Sinkhorn in this case is an iterative projection scheme, with alternative projections on marginal constraints.
- Generalizes well for barycenters computation

- Yet, solving for γ is impractical to intractable when dealing with high-dimensional distributions
- especially if one is interested in computing the gradients of the Wasserstein distance
- Other solving strategies should be taken into consideration
- Recalling that any LP problem can be turnt into its dual form:

primal form :dual form :minimize
$$z = \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$
,maximize $\tilde{z} = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y}$,so that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ so that $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} \leq \mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$

- Weak duality: \tilde{z} is a lower bound of z, Strong duality $\tilde{z} = z$
- Strong duality is usually achieved via Farkas Theorem

Duality: general case with continuous distributions

We now introduce two functions scalar functions ϕ and ψ (also known as Kantorovich potentials) that will act as our dual variables. Then, we consider the optimal problem is equivalent (by the Rockafellar-Fenchel theorem) to:

$$\max_{\phi,\psi} \left\{ \int \phi d\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{s}} + \int \psi d\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{t}} \mid \phi(x) + \psi(y) \le c(x,y) \right\}$$
(6)

Note that the marginal constraint has been turned into an equality constraint on ϕ and ψ

Introducing the *c*-transform (or *c*-conjugate) H^c which is in spirit close to a Legendre transform:

$$\phi^c \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} H^c(\phi) = \inf_x c(x, y) - \phi(x) \tag{7}$$

then the following problem is equivalent:

$$\max_{\phi} \left\{ \int \phi d\mu_s + \int \phi^c d\mu_t \mid \phi(x) + \phi^c(y) \le c(x,y) \right\}$$
(8)

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Case c(x, y) = |x - y| (a.k.a W_1^1)



Whenever c(x, y) = |x - y|, then:

- existence of a solution but not unique
- For any $\phi \in \operatorname{Lip}^1$ (set of 1-Lipschitz functions), we have $\phi^c(x) = -\phi(x)$

The optimal transport problem then amounts to find $\phi \in \mathsf{Lip}^1$ as

$$\sup_{\phi \in \text{Lip}^1} \int \phi d(\boldsymbol{\mu}_s - \boldsymbol{\mu}_t) = \sup_{\phi \in \text{Lip}^1} \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\mathbf{x} \sim \boldsymbol{\mu}_s} [\phi(x)] - \mathop{\mathbb{E}}_{\mathbf{y} \sim \boldsymbol{\mu}_t} [\phi(y)]$$
(9)

- also known as Kantorovich-Rubinstein duality
- ϕ can be learnt as a neural network constrained to the set ${\rm Lip}^1,$ see next section on GAN

Whenever the cost is quadratic, $c(x,y) = |x - y|^2/2$, then:

- T(x) the transport mapping exists and is unique
- More remarkably, it is a gradient of a convex functions $\Phi(x)$

$$T(x) = x - \nabla \phi(x) = \nabla (\frac{x^2}{2} - \phi(x)) = \nabla (\Phi(x))$$
(10)

• This is also known as Brenier's Theorem

In the case when we have access to discrete distributions, μ_s (resp. μ_t) is characterized by a set of locations \mathbf{X}^s and masses $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{n^s}$ (resp. \mathbf{X}^t and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{n^t}$)

Discrete dual version of OT

$$W(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{s}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{t}) = \max_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{n^{s}}, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^{n^{t}}, \alpha_{i}+\beta_{j} \leq c(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{s}, \mathbf{X}_{i}^{t})} \alpha^{T} \mathbf{a} + \beta^{T} \mathbf{b}$$
(11)

i.e. find a scalar values per sample

Adding regularization to the original problem turns the dual computation to an unconstrained problem !

In the case of entropy regularization, i.e.

 $W_{\lambda}(\mu_s, \mu_t) = \min_{\gamma \in \mathcal{P}} \quad \langle \gamma, \mathbf{C} \rangle_F + \lambda \Omega(\gamma) \text{ with } \Omega(\gamma) = \sum_{i,j} \gamma(i,j) \log \gamma(i,j),$

the dual now reads (in a discrete settings, measures are collections of Diracs):

$$\max_{\alpha,\beta} \alpha^T \boldsymbol{\mu_s} + \beta^T \boldsymbol{\mu_t} - \frac{1}{\lambda} \exp(\frac{\alpha}{\lambda})^T \mathbf{K} \exp(\frac{\beta}{\lambda})$$
(12)

with $\mathbf{K} = \exp(-\frac{\mathbf{C}}{\lambda})$.

Remark: The Sinkhorn algorithm is a gradient ascent on the dual variables !

With this unconstrained problem, incremental gradients techniques (SGD, SAG) can be used to solve the problem !

- [Genevay et al., 2016] used the semi-dual formulation (one variable is removed by replacing it with its c-transform) int the first stochastic version of Optimal Transport problem
- [Seguy et al., 2017] used the full dual version with entropic and L2 regularizations, together with neural networks to parameterize the problem.









In machine learning applications, one can be interested in finding distributions that minimize the Wasserstein distance wrt. a reference measure. There are two ways of understanding this:

- \bullet case 1: for a fixed support X, find the corresponding probability masses $\mathbf m$
- case 2: for a fixed vector of probability masses m, e.g. uniform distribution, find the corresponding support ${\bf X}$

Recalling the form of the dual

$$W(\mu, \mu_t) = \max_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{n^s}, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^{n^t}, \alpha_i + \beta_j \le c(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}_j^t)} \alpha^T \mathbf{m} + \beta^T \mathbf{b}$$
(13)

- $W(\mu, \mu_t)$ is convex wrt. **m**
- $\partial_{\mathbf{m}}W(\mu, \mu_t) = \alpha^*$
- Entropy regularized case: $W_{\lambda}(\mu, \mu_t)$ is convex and $\nabla_{\mathbf{m}} W_{\lambda}(\mu, \mu_t) = \lambda \log \mathbf{u}$

Recalling the form of the primal problem

$$W_2^2(\mu,\mu_t) = \min_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \quad <\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathbf{1_{n^s} \mathbf{1_{n^t}^T X^2 + X^{t \, 2T} \mathbf{1_{n^t} \mathbf{1_{n^s} - 2XX^t}}} >$$
(14)

- $W_2^2(\mu, \mu_t)$ decreases if $\mathbf{X} \leftarrow \mathbf{X}^t \boldsymbol{\gamma}^{*T} \mathsf{diag}(\mathbf{m}^{-1})$
- explicit gradient for the regularized case.
- Barycentric interpolation !
- see Rémi next slides

Automatic differentiation to the rescue !



Image from Marco Cuturi

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Taking into account spaces discrepancy





 \Rightarrow We can't define direct dissimilarities between source and target samples

If Ω_s and Ω_t are two spaces of different dimensions, Mémoli [Mémoli, 2011] proposed the Gromov-Wasserstein Distance between the two measured dissimilarity matrices (C,p) and (\overline{C},q) :

Gromov-Wasserstein distance

$$GW(C, \overline{C}, \mu_s, \mu_t) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \left(\sum_{i,j,k,l} L(C_{i,k}, \overline{C}_{j,l}) * \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i,j} * \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{k,l} \right)$$

- This is related to a Quadratic Assignment Problem (QAP), opposed to the linear assignment problem as with the classical OT problem.
- non-convex problem, NP-hard

What is $L(C_{i,k}, \overline{C}_{j,l})$?

- Distance/dissimilarity between distances
- Several Choices are possible :

•
$$L(a,b) = \frac{1}{2}|a-b|^2$$

•
$$L(a,b) = \tilde{\mathsf{KL}}(a|b) = a * log(\frac{a}{b}) - a + b$$



Computing GW coupling

Peyré and colleagues consider the entropic regularization of this problem [Peyré et al., 2016] :

$$GW(C, \overline{C}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_s, \boldsymbol{\mu}_t) = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \left(\sum_{i, j, k, l} L(C_{i,k}, \overline{C}_{j,l}) * \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{i,j} * \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{k,l} - \boldsymbol{\gamma} H(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) \right)$$

One can easily compute **GW** by using projected gradient descent. With the right parameters, iterations can be simplified in :

Iteration :

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{k+1} \leftarrow \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in \mathcal{P}} \quad \left\langle \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \mathcal{L}(C, \overline{C}) \otimes \boldsymbol{\gamma}^k \right\rangle - \gamma H(\boldsymbol{\gamma})$$

Where \otimes denotes the tensorial product:

$$\mathcal{L}(C,\overline{C})\otimes\boldsymbol{\gamma} = \left(\sum_{k,l} L(C_{i,k},\overline{C}_{j,l})\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{k,l}\right)_{i,j}$$

The projection can be solved by simply applying a Sinkhorn algorithm.

We can show that, if L(a, b) can be written as $f_1(a) + f_2(b) - h_1(a)h_2(b)$, $\mathcal{L}(C, \overline{C}) \otimes \boldsymbol{\gamma} = c_{C, \overline{C}} - h_1(C)\boldsymbol{\gamma}h_2(\overline{C})^T$ with $c_{C, \overline{C}} = f_1(C)p\mathbf{I}_{N_2}^T + \mathbf{I}_{N_1}q^Tf_2(\overline{C})^T$ (independant of $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$)

example :

$$L(a,b) = \frac{1}{2}|a-b|^2 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} f_1(a) &= \frac{1}{2}a^2\\ f_2(b) &= \frac{1}{2}b^2\\ h_1(a) &= a\\ h_2(b) &= b \end{cases}$$

example : 3D to 2D projection



Figure 1: Source and target measures and associated cost matrices C and \overline{C}

GW coupling matrix :



Illustration of applications of GW



Figure 2: Shape matching between 3D and 2D objects



Figure 3: Visualization/classification of shapes datasets

Gromov-Wasserstein barycenters

Since we have defined a distance between two measured similarity matrices, we can compute barycenters between those spaces.

Example : progressive shape interpolation with Gromov-Wasserstein barycenters



Optimal transport is a well theoretically grounded ways of comparing probability distributions

- that allows to compare empirical distributions in a non-parametric ways
- that leverages on a ground metric in the embedding space
- for which exist several algorithmic solutions

It comes in several flavours:

- Monge problem: find a mapping (transport map)
- Kantorovich problem: find a coupling (transport plan)

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