

Introduction to Computational Optimal Transport

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“Distance” between Two Probability Distributions

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To do so, we minimise the *Kullback-Leibler divergence* between p and q :

$$\mathbf{KL}(p \parallel q) := \int_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})} \right].$$

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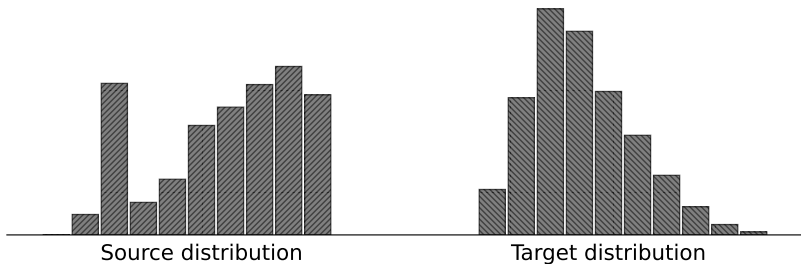
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- ▶ Measures the relative entropy between p and q .
- ▶ Examples: maximum likelihood, variational inference, etc.
- ▶ Always non-negative: $\forall p, q, \mathbf{KL}(p \parallel q) \geq 0$.
- ▶ Zero iff p and q are equal.
- ▶ But not symmetric in general: $\mathbf{KL}(p \parallel q) \neq \mathbf{KL}(q \parallel p)$.
- ▶ Similar to Bregman, KL divergence is *not* a distance metric.

Moving Masses

Consider each (discrete) probability distribution as a pile of sand.

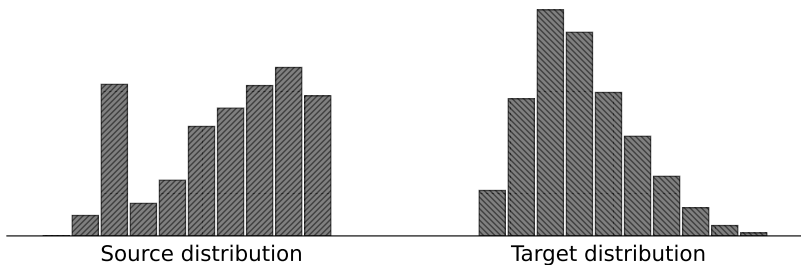
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The question is, how do we move one pile to another *efficiently*?

- ▶ Move some mass from a bin in p to a bin in q .
- ▶ Cost proportional to amount of mass moved.

Suppose \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{c} are n -dimensional probability vectors. That is, they belong to the $(n - 1)$ -dimensional simplex Δ_{n-1} .

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Therefore, the total cost is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{C}_{i,j} \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j} = \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle.$$

We will aim to minimise this cost.

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- ▶ All masses must flow out of \mathbf{r} (row constraints):

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{X}_{i,j} = \mathbf{c}_j \quad \forall j \iff \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{c}.$$

Such an \mathbf{X} satisfying these constraints is called a *coupling* of \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{c} . That is, \mathbf{X} is a joint distribution with marginals \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{c} .

To get the optimal cost, we solve the linear program:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimise} & \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle \\ & \mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{0} \\ \text{subject to} & \mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{r} \\ & \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{c}. \end{array}$$

We can extend this problem for (continuous) distributions p and q :

$$\min_{\pi \in \Pi(p, q)} \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \sim \pi} [c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')],$$

where π is a coupling of p and q , and $c(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a cost function.

In fact, if c is a distance metric, we have the ρ -Wasserstein distance:

$$W_\rho(p, q) = \inf_{\pi \in \Pi(p, q)} \left(\mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \sim \pi} [c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')^\rho] \right)^{1/\rho}.$$

We will focus on solving for the optimal transport plan \mathbf{X} in the discrete case.

Example: Word Mover's Distance 1

Word2Vec is a common *word embedding* in natural language processing.

- ▶ Each word in the vocabulary is mapped to a d -dimensional vector.
- ▶ The embedding is trained to accurately predict a word given its context.
 - ▶ Given a context $c = [\text{the, Prime, } \square, \text{of, Australia}]$
 - ▶ We should have $p(\square = \text{Minister} \mid c) > p(\square = \text{Governor} \mid c)$.

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The Word2Vec space also encodes interesting *semantic relationships*.

- ▶ $\text{vec}(\text{Canberra}) - \text{vec}(\text{Australia}) \approx \text{vec}(\text{Stockholm}) - \text{vec}(\text{Sweden})$.
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1. How do we represent a document?
2. How do we define the cost between moving from word i to word j ?

Example: Word Mover's Distance 2

1. Document as a *bag of words*.
 - ▶ Count the occurrences of each word in a document.
 - ▶ Then normalise so the frequencies add up to 1.
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So, given two documents \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{c} , both as probability distributions over the vocabulary, the distance between them is the solution to the same problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{X}} \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle \quad \text{s.t. } \mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{c}.$$

The optimal value is called the *word mover's distance*.

Example: Word Mover's Distance 3

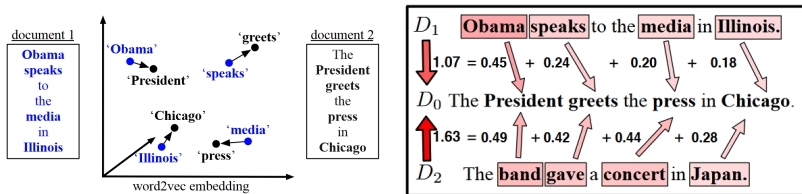


Figure: Visual illustration of the word mover's distance. Source: Kusner et al.

What can we do after calculating document distances?

- ▶ k -nearest neighbour prediction.
- ▶ Agglomerative clustering.
- ▶ etc.

Solving Optimal Transport: Linear Program

Given the linear program above, we can solve it using widely implemented methods like the *simplex* algorithm. Here's an example using `cvxpy`.

```
1 x = cp.Variable(n * n)
2 objective = cp.Minimize(C.flatten() @ x)
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4 constraints = [x >= 0]
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6 for i in range(n):
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We will solve the problem numerically by designing two techniques, *regularisation* and *duality*.

Define a slightly modified objective function:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) := \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle - \gamma \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}) = \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle + \gamma \sum_{i,j} \mathbf{X}_{i,j} \log \mathbf{X}_{i,j}.$$

- ▶ $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{X}) := -\sum_{i,j} \mathbf{X}_{i,j} \log \mathbf{X}_{i,j}$ is the *discrete entropy* of a coupling matrix.
 - ▶ Forces all $\mathbf{X}_{i,j}$ to be positive.
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Why add this term?

- ▶ The entropy is 1-strongly concave, which makes f γ -strongly convex w.r.t $\|\cdot\|_1$. Therefore, it accepts a unique minimiser.
- ▶ We can implicitly remove the constraint $\mathbf{X} \geq \mathbf{0}$.
- ▶ (Other motivations are traced back to modelling in transport theory.)

We have the entropic regularised problem as follows:

$$\min_{\mathbf{X}} \{f(\mathbf{X}) := \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle + \gamma \langle \mathbf{X}, \log \mathbf{X} \rangle\} \quad \text{s.t. } \mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{r} \text{ and } \mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{c}.$$

What is the relationship between the original and regularised problems? The following result ([2, Proposition 4.1]) describes it.

Theorem

Let L and L_{γ} be the optimal objective values for the original linear program and the regularised problem, respectively. Then, as $\gamma \rightarrow 0$, $L_{\gamma} \rightarrow L$.

In other words, we recover the original solution as regularisation vanishes.

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Let $\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the dual variables associated with the two equality constraints. The Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}) = \langle \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{X} \rangle + \gamma \langle \mathbf{X}, \log \mathbf{X} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{r} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{c} \rangle.$$

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At optimality, the gradient of the Lagrangian w.r.t. \mathbf{X} is zero. This helps us establish the relationship between \mathbf{X} and the dual variables \mathbf{g} and \mathbf{h} .

Since $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h})$ is jointly strongly convex w.r.t. \mathbf{X} , we solve $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}_{i,j}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}) = 0$ as follows.

The components of \mathcal{L} containing $\mathbf{X}_{i,j}$ are

$$\mathcal{L}_{i,j}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{C}_{i,j} \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j} + \gamma \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j} \cdot \log \mathbf{X}_{i,j} + \mathbf{g}_i \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j} + \mathbf{h}_j \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j}.$$

Setting the gradient to zero:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{i,j}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h})}{\partial \mathbf{X}_{i,j}} = \mathbf{C}_{i,j} + \gamma \log \mathbf{X}_{i,j} + \gamma + \mathbf{g}_i + \mathbf{h}_j = 0,$$

which gives

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,j} = \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{\gamma} (-\mathbf{C}_{i,j} - \mathbf{g}_i - \mathbf{h}_j) - 1 \right\}.$$

We can rewrite \mathbf{X} as:

$$\mathbf{X}_{i,j} = \exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{g}_i}{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2} \right\} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{C}_{i,j}}{\gamma} \right\} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{h}_j}{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2} \right\}.$$

Note that $\exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{C}_{i,j}}{\gamma} \right\}$ is constant. The matrix $\mathbf{K} = \exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{C}}{\gamma} \right\}$ is called the *Gibbs kernel*.

Further, if we let $\mathbf{u} = \exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{g}}{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2} \right\}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \exp \left\{ -\frac{\mathbf{h}}{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2} \right\}$, then

$$\mathbf{X} = \text{diag}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{K}\text{diag}(\mathbf{v}).$$

The solution \mathbf{X} only depends on two (unknown) scaling variables $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_{++}^n$.

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The question now is, how do we find \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} ?

Solving OT: The Sinkhorn Algorithm 1

Iterative algorithm based on a simple idea.

If \mathbf{X} is the solution, it must satisfy

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} &= \mathbf{r} && \text{(Marginal constraints for rows)} \\ \text{diag}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{K}\text{diag}(\mathbf{v})\mathbf{1} &= \mathbf{r} && \text{(First-order condition)} \\ \text{diag}(\mathbf{u})(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{r} && \text{(Since } \text{diag}(\mathbf{v})\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{v} \text{)} \\ \mathbf{u} \odot (\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{r}. && \text{(Element-wise multiplication)}\end{aligned}$$

This suggests us that, *if \mathbf{v} is kept fixed*, \mathbf{u} should be updated as

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r} \oslash (\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}). \quad \text{(Element-wise division)}$$

Similar for \mathbf{v} .

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Iterative algorithm based on a simple idea.

If \mathbf{X} is the solution, it must satisfy

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} &= \mathbf{r} && \text{(Marginal constraints for rows)} \\ \text{diag}(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{K}\text{diag}(\mathbf{v})\mathbf{1} &= \mathbf{r} && \text{(First-order condition)} \\ \text{diag}(\mathbf{u})(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{r} && \text{(Since } \text{diag}(\mathbf{v})\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{v} \text{)} \\ \mathbf{u} \odot (\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{r}. && \text{(Element-wise multiplication)}\end{aligned}$$

This suggests us that, *if \mathbf{v} is kept fixed*, \mathbf{u} should be updated as

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r} \oslash (\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}). \quad \text{(Element-wise division)}$$

Similar for \mathbf{v} .

Sinkhorn: start with positive vectors $\mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{v}_0$. Alternatingly update \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} as

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{r} \oslash (\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}_k), \\ \mathbf{v}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{c} \oslash (\mathbf{K}^\top \mathbf{u}_{k+1}).\end{aligned}$$

Here's a simple implementation in numpy.

```
1 K = np.exp(-C / gamma)
2 u = np.random.rand(n)
3 v = np.random.rand(n)
4
5 for i in range(num_iters):
6     if i % 2 == 0:
7         u = r / (K @ v)
8     else:
9         v = c / (K.T @ u)
10
11 X = np.diag(u) @ K @ np.diag(v)
```

How should we set `num_iters`? Given a tolerance ϵ :

- ▶ Row constraints violation: $\|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{r}\| < \epsilon$.
- ▶ Column constraints violation: $\|\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{c}\| < \epsilon$.
- ▶ A combination of them.

It turns out, these conditions relate to the convergence of $(\mathbf{u}_k, \mathbf{v}_k)$ to $(\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{v}^*)$ (details omitted).

Why do the Sinkhorn iterates $(\mathbf{u}_k, \mathbf{v}_k)$ converge to $(\mathbf{u}^*, \mathbf{v}^*)$? A sketch

- ▶ The objective function $f(\mathbf{X})$ can be written as a KL divergence:¹

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{X}) &= \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{C} + \gamma \log \mathbf{X} \rangle \\ &= \gamma \left\langle \mathbf{X}, -\log \underbrace{\left(e^{-\mathbf{C}/\gamma} \right)}_{=\mathbf{K}} + \log \mathbf{X} \right\rangle \\ &= \gamma \left\langle \mathbf{X}, \log \frac{\mathbf{X}}{\mathbf{K}} \right\rangle \\ &= \gamma \mathbf{KL}(\mathbf{X} \parallel \mathbf{K}). \end{aligned}$$

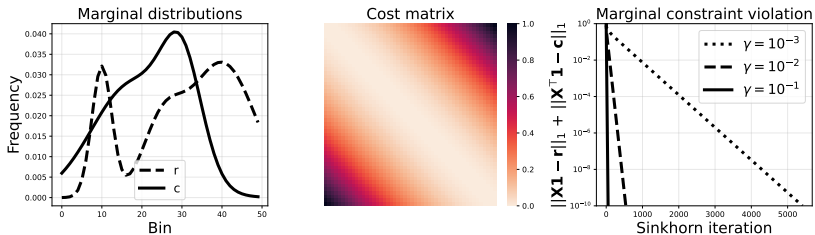
- ▶ The operation $\mathbf{u}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r} \oslash (\mathbf{K}\mathbf{v}_k)$ is equivalent to a *proximal projection* of \mathbf{X} onto the affine set $\{\mathbf{X}: \mathbf{X}\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{r}\}$. Similar for \mathbf{v}_{k+1} .
- ▶ These iterative projections are known to converge to \mathbf{X} that minimises the KL divergence above.

We omit the convergence rate analysis in this lecture.

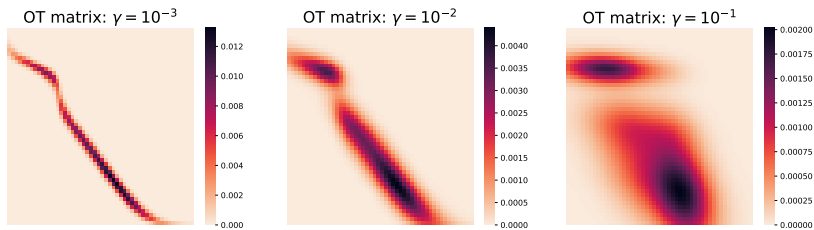
¹KL is also defined for “non-probability” matrix \mathbf{K} . It is still non-negative and is zero iff the two⁴⁴ matrices equal.

Solving OT: The Sinkhorn Algorithm 4

Here's an example of running Sinkhorn between two Gaussian mixtures.



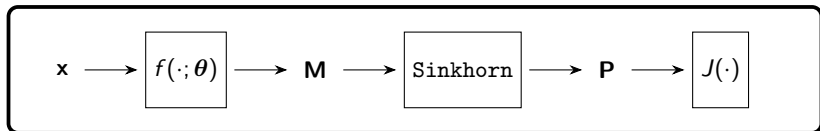
Effect of regularisation strength γ on the sparseness of solution.



Many open problems relating to optimal transport:

- ▶ Other regularisers than entropy: l_1 , l_2 , l_∞ , etc.
- ▶ Unbalanced sources: what if \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{c} don't have the same total mass? We could only transport a portion of them.
 - ▶ Unbalanced OT: using more KL regularisers in the objective.
 - ▶ Partial OT: constrain the amount of transported mass to some value.
- ▶ Multi-marginal OT: when you have more than 2 sources of mass.
 - ▶ High-dimensional problem. Requires tensor operations.
- ▶ Any other algorithms than Sinkhorn?
 - ▶ OT is a case of $\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$ s.t. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where f is strongly convex.
 - ▶ Therefore, the dual problem $\min_{\mathbf{y}} g(\mathbf{y})$ has a smooth and differentiable objective.
 - ▶ This makes (accelerated) gradient methods particularly useful.
- ▶ Applications of OT: generative modelling (diffusion models), etc.
- ▶ And many more. . .

- [1] Stephen Gould, Dylan Campbell, Itzik Ben-Shabat, Chamin Hewa Koneputugodage, and Zhiwei Xu. “Exploiting Problem Structure in Deep Declarative Networks: Two Case Studies”. In: *OT-SDM 2022: The 1st International Workshop on Optimal Transport and Structured Data Modeling* (2022) (cit. on p. 49).
- [2] Gabriel Peyré and Marco Cuturi. “Computational Optimal Transport: With Applications to Data Science”. In: *Foundations and Trends® in Machine Learning* 11.5-6 (2019), pp. 355–607 (cit. on p. 33).
- [3] Jason Altschuler, Jonathan Niles-Weed, and Philippe Rigollet. “Near-Linear Time Approximation Algorithms for Optimal Transport via Sinkhorn Iteration”. In: *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*. 2017.
- [4] Matt Kusner, Yu Sun, Nicholas Kolkin, and Kilian Weinberger. “From Word Embeddings to Document Distances”. In: *International Conference on Machine Learning*. 2015, pp. 957–966 (cit. on p. 27).



Problem: $\min_{\theta} J$, where, \mathbf{P} is the solution to the entropic regularised OT.

Our goal is to find $DJ(\theta) = DJ(\mathbf{P}) \cdot DSinkhorn(\mathbf{M}) \cdot Df(\mathbf{M}; \theta)$.

- ▶ $DJ(\mathbf{P})$ and $Df(\mathbf{M}; \theta)$ can be found normally as in a imperative node.
- ▶ However, $DSinkhorn(\mathbf{M})$ requires unrolling all Sinkhorn steps, which is a huge memory requirement.

This fits directly into the deep declarative network setting

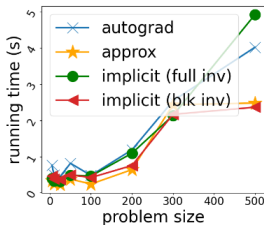
$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimise } J(\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})) \\ &\text{where } \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) \in \arg \min_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) \text{ s.t. } h_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = 0, i = 1, \dots, p, \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbf{y} acts as \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{x} as \mathbf{M} .

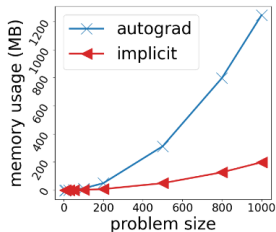
We learned that the expression for $Dy(\mathbf{x})$ is

$$\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^\top(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^\top)^{-1}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{C}) - \mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{B}.$$

The most expensive operation is computing $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^\top)^{-1}$. Luckily, this is a *block* matrix, containing only non-zero blocks along the diagonal. Therefore, we can invert it more efficiently.



(a) CPU (batch size 1)



(c) 10 iterations

Figure: Time and memory comparison for autograd and implicit differentiation. Source: Gould et al.