Lecture 3

Recall:

 $t^{\#}\mu = \mathcal{V} (\mathbb{B}) = \mu (t^{-1}(\mathbb{B})) \forall \mathbb{B} \in \mathbb{B}(\mathcal{H})$ $(\Longrightarrow) S \mathcal{P}(t(x)) d\mu(x) = S \mathcal{P}(y) d\mathcal{V}(y) \forall \mathcal{P} \in L^{2}(\mathcal{V})$ χ Borel mean.



Reasons the Monge problem is difficult: Difficulty #1: the constraint set can be empty

Del: $\mu \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ is an empirical measure if $\mu = \mathcal{F} \underset{i=1}{\overset{\sim}{\Sigma}} \mathcal{S}_{X_{i}}$ for $\underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{X_{i}}}_{X_{i}} \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{X_{i}}}_{X_{i}} \mathbb{E}_{X_{i}} \mathbb{E}_{X_{i}}$

Exercise: If μ is an empirical measure, then for any transp. map. t, t# μ is an emp. meas.

Difficulty#2: solutions may not be unique

Difficulty #3: the constraint set is nonconvex (along linear interpolations)

Recall:

Def: A subset C of a vector space X is convex, if, $\forall x_0, x, \in C$, lalong lin. interp.)

 $\chi_{\alpha} := (I - \lambda) \chi_{0} + \alpha \chi_{1} \in C, \forall \alpha \in [0, 1].$

Generally, in optimization, we want our constraint set C to be convex, since our normal strategy is to take an initial guess, perturb it, and see if the objective function decreases. If the objective function decreases. (linear) perturbations can kick us out of the constraint set



$t_0(\chi) = \chi + \frac{1}{4}$	
$t_1(\chi) = \{\chi + 1$	$if \chi \in [0, 1/4)$
$(\propto$	otherwise

Consider a convex combination: $t_{x}(x) = (1-x)t_{0}(x) + xt_{1}(x)$

For example, $t_{\frac{1}{2}}(x) = \{x + \frac{5}{8} \text{ if } x \in [0, \frac{1}{4}] \\ (x + \frac{1}{8} \text{ otherwise} \}$

Then,



Moral: Even though to $\#\mu = v$ and $t_1 \#\mu = v$, we do not have $t_{\alpha} \#\mu = v$ for all $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. That is, $\xi t : t \#\mu = v \xi$ is not convex. Solution: consider transport plans

In fact, finding t s.t. t# 1= v relates to well-known problems in geometric PDE.

Proplehange of variables formula): Suppose $\mu \in L^{1}(\mathbb{R}^{d}) \cap \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^{d})$ and $t:\mathbb{R}^{d} \to \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is C^{1} , one to one and det $Dt \neq 0$. Then, $t' \circ t = id$ t'(t(x)) = x

$$d(t \# \mu)(y) = \frac{\mu}{|det Dt|} \circ t^{-1}(y) \frac{1}{|t| R^{\alpha}}(y) dy$$

$$d\chi(y)|_{t(R^{\alpha})}$$

Pl: By definition of the pushforward, for all bounded, meas P,

Sqly dlt#mly $= \int \mathcal{P} \cdot t(x) d\mu(x)$ = $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} P \cdot t(x) \mu(x) dx$ = S Pot(x) µ°t'ot(x) <u>idet Dt(k)</u> Rd jchange of variables thm y = t(x)dy = 1 det Dt 1 (c) dx = S Ply) 10 t'(y) Idet Dt10 z'(y) dy = S Ply) (det Dti) o t'ly) I t(Ra) ly) dy In particular, for 9=1B, BEB(x). Note that if $B \subseteq t(\mathbb{R}^{d})^{c}$, then $(t \neq \mu)(B) = 0$.

Exercise: Suppose $\mu \in L^{2}(\mathbb{R}^{d})$ and t(x) = ax+bfor a>0, $b\in(\mathbb{R}^{d})$. Prove that $d(t*\mu)(y) = a^{2}\mu(\frac{y-b}{a})dy$.

Thus, if $t = \nabla q$, the above proposition ensures that $t^* m = v$ iff

Given μ, ν , we would seek to solve for 9 such that the above equation holds. We will often restrict to 9 s.t. $det D^2 P(x) > 0$.

This is a type of Mange Ampére equation: $\{Find \ \ensuremath{\mathcal{P}}\ s.t. \ det \ D^2 \ \ensuremath{\mathcal{P}}\ (\chi) = F(\chi, \ensuremath{\mathcal{P}}\ (\chi), \ensuremath{\mathcal{P}}\ (\chi)).$

How can we get around the difficulties of Monge's problem?



Leonid Kantorovich, 1942 / Red Plenty "On the translocation of masses"

Notation:

Projection maps: for i=1,2, define $\pi^{i}: \chi \times \chi \to \chi$ by $\pi^{1}(\chi^{1}, \chi^{2}) = \chi^{2}, \pi^{2}(\chi^{1}, \chi^{2}) = \chi^{2}.$

 $\begin{array}{l} \underbrace{\operatorname{Marginals}: \mbox{for } & & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ &$

Del: Given $\mu, \nu \in P(X)$, the set of <u>transport plans</u> from μ to ν is

 $\Gamma(\mu,\nu) = \{ \forall \in P(X \times \chi) : \pi^{1} \# \forall = \mu, \pi^{2} \# \forall = \nu \}.$

We will use transport plans as a new way to model rearranging mass in u to look like v.

 $\delta(A \times B)$ = the amount of mass from $\mu(A)$ that is sent to $\nu(B)$. How do transport plans relate to transport maps? $\frac{\text{demma}}{\text{then}} : \text{Given } \mu, \nu \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X}), \text{ if } t \# \mu = \nu,$ then $\mathcal{V} := (id \times t) \# \mu \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu).$ Pf: By definition, $\mathcal{V}(A \times B) = \mu((id \times t)^{-1}(A \times B))$ $= \mu(\{\chi : (\chi, t(\chi)) \in A \times B\})$ $= \mu(\{x \in A : t(x) \in B\})$ Then, for all $A \in B(X)$ $(\pi^{-} \# X)(A) = X(A \times X) = \mu(A)$, so $\pi^{-} \# X = \mu$. Similarly, $\pi^2 \# \mathcal{X}(\mathcal{B}) = \mathcal{X}(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{B}) = \mu(\mathfrak{t}'(\mathcal{B})) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{B})$ for all $\mathcal{B} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$, so $\pi^2 \# \mathcal{X} = \mathcal{V}$.

Visualizing transport plans



Remark: This example illustrates the fact that, for any $\mu, \nu \in P(X)$, there exists $\mathcal{T} \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)$ given by $\mathcal{T} \coloneqq \mu \otimes \nu$,

 $\mu \otimes \neg (A \times B) = \mu (A) \neg (B)$

For any $\mu, \nu \in \mathbb{P}(x)$, the transport plan $\chi = \mu \otimes \mathcal{P}$ "takes mass from any location χ_0 in μ and distributes it across ν , in proportion to the amount of mass ν assigns to each location."

Moral: () Y M, V & P(X), [1/M, V) # Ø 2 transport plans can "split mass"

Ex: For $\mu = \frac{1}{2}(1_{[0,1]} + 1_{[2,3]}), \forall = \frac{1}{2}(1_{[0,2]}),$ consider the transport map

 $t(x) = \begin{cases} x & if x \in [0, 1] \\ x = 1 & if otherwise \end{cases}$



Mass starting at xo is only sent to t(xo). & is the uniform Bird's eye view: prob. meas. supported on $\Sigma(x, t(x)): x \in [0,1]$ U[2,3]{ ・(x,t(x)) $\mu = \frac{1}{2} \left(1_{[0,1]} + 1_{[2,3]} \right)$ $\mathcal{J}(\chi^1,\chi^2)$ Side view:

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Foreshadowing: When $\mu << \lambda^d$, we will see that ϑ is an optimal transport plan from μ to ϑ if f it is supported on $\frac{\xi(x, t/x)}{\chi \in \mathbb{R}^d}$ for an increasing function $\frac{t}{x}$.