

Measures are fun

Introduction to the Wasserstein distance and its geometry

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LITIS doctoral seminar



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What is a measure

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Def 1 – Probability measure

Let $(\Omega; \Sigma)$ be a measurable space. A probability measure μ is an application from Σ to $[0, 1]$ such that $\mu(\Omega) = 1$ and for any disjoint sequence $(A_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$,

$$\mu\left(\bigsqcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} A_i\right) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mu(A_i).$$

Why are we interested...

Applications in

- transport (LMI): limits from peaton models to fluid models

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With the total variation

$$|\mu - \nu|_{\text{TV}} = \sup_{\mathcal{A} \in \text{countable measurable partitions of } \Omega} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} |\mu(A) - \nu(A)|,$$

we would have $|\delta_0 - \delta_t|_{\text{TV}} = 2$ regardless of how close t is to 0.

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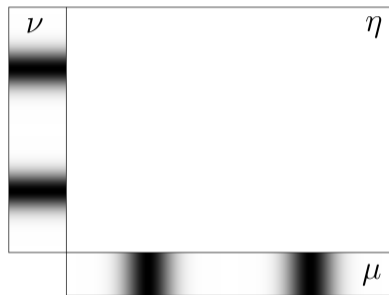
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Introducing the Wasserstein distance

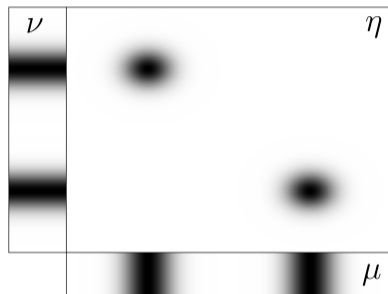
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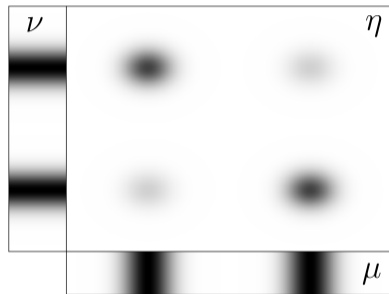
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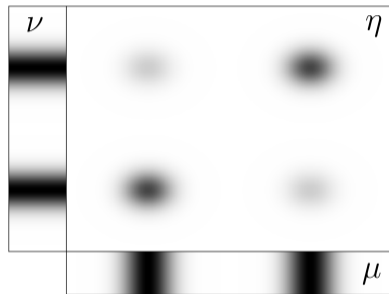
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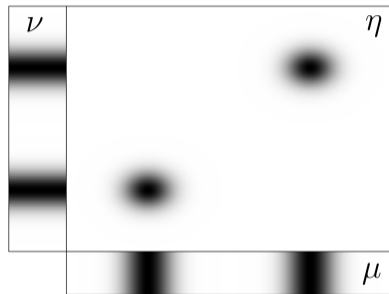
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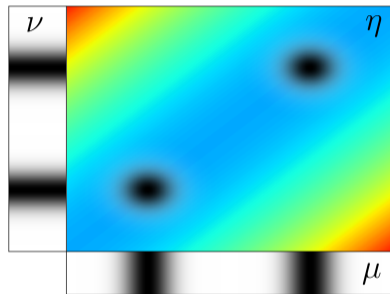
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$$d_{\mathcal{W}}^2(\mu, \nu) := \inf_{\eta \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)} \int_{(x, y)} |x - y|^2 d\eta(x, y).$$



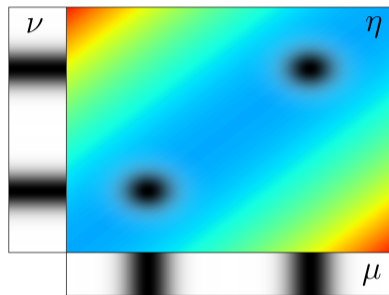
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Def 2 – [San15] We call **Wasserstein space** the set $\mathcal{P}_2(\Omega)$ or measures μ such that $d_{\mathcal{W}}(\mu, \delta_0)$ is finite, endowed with the distance $d_{\mathcal{W}}$.

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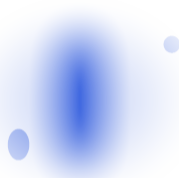
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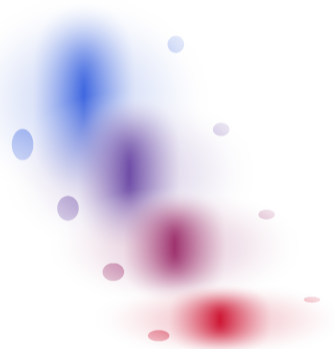


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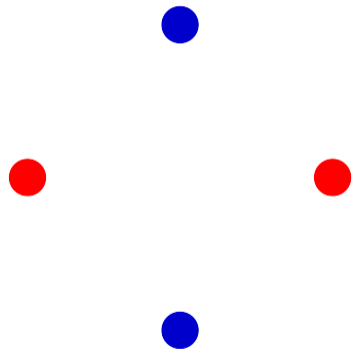


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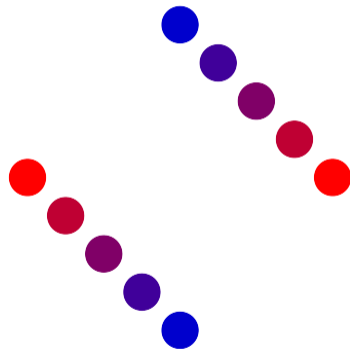


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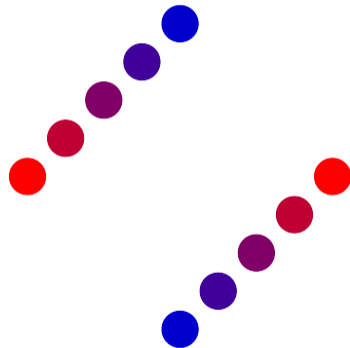


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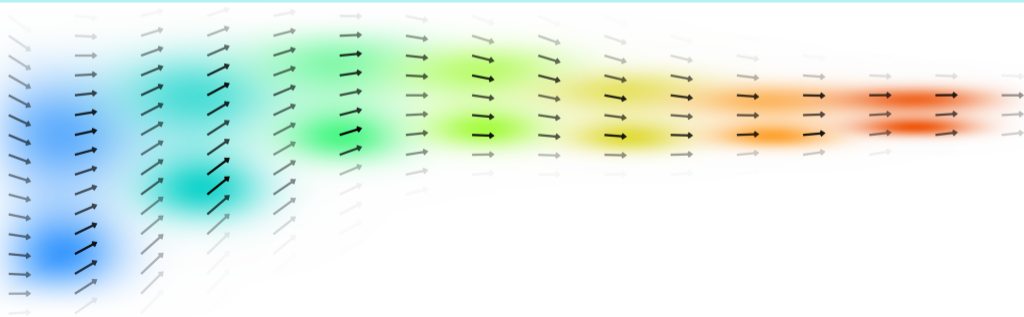
Def 3 – Fokker-Planck equation Given an initial measure $\nu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\Omega)$, find a curve $(\mu_t)_{t \in [0, T]}$ that satisfies $\mu_0 = \nu$ and solves in the sense of distributions 

$$\partial_t \mu_t + \operatorname{div} (f(t, x, \mu_t) \# \mu_t) = 0 \quad \forall t \in (0, T). \quad (1)$$

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The Cauchy-Lipschitz framework

Theorem 1 – Well-posedness [BF23] Assume that $f : [0, T] \times \Omega \times \mathcal{P}_2(\Omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ is bounded and Lipschitz-continuous in all its variables (with respect to d_W for the measure variable). Then there exists a unique solution to (1), that is given by

$$\mu_t = \Phi_t^\mu \# \nu, \quad \text{where} \quad \frac{d}{dt} \Phi_t^\mu(x) = f(t, \Phi_t^\mu(x), \mu_t) \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi_0^\mu(x) = x.$$

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For instance,

$$f(t, x, \mu) := g(t, x) + \int_{y \in \Omega} \varphi(t, x, y) d\mu(y)$$

where $g : [0, T] \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\varphi \in \mathcal{C}_c([0, T] \times \Omega \times \Omega; \mathbb{R}^d)$ are Lipschitz in all variables.

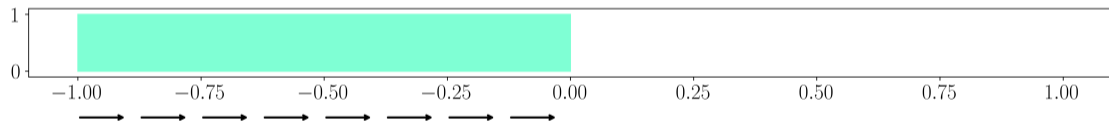
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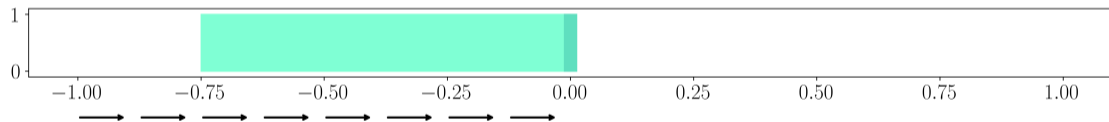
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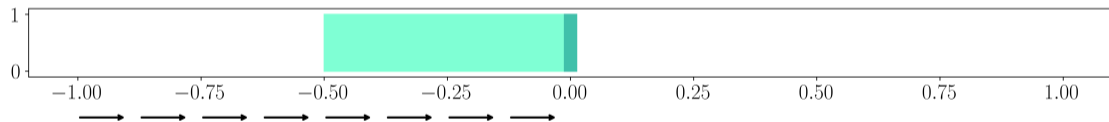
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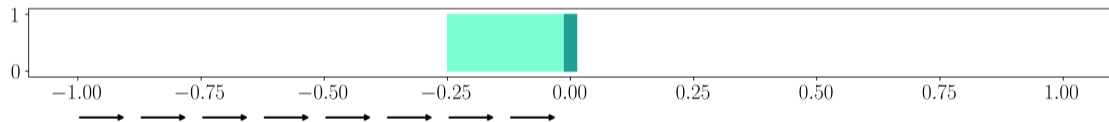
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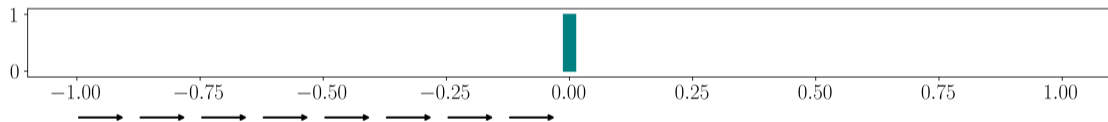
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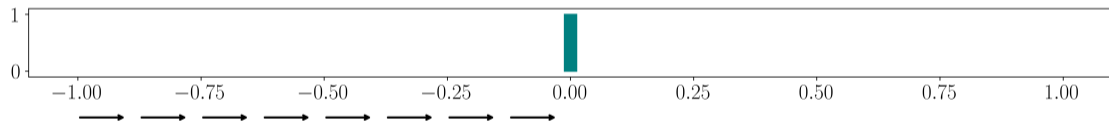
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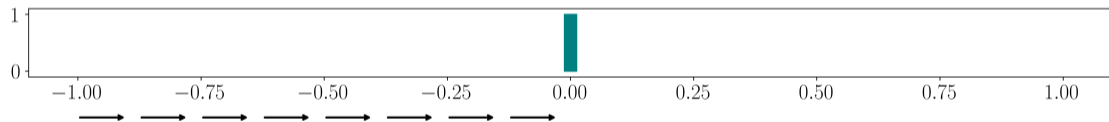


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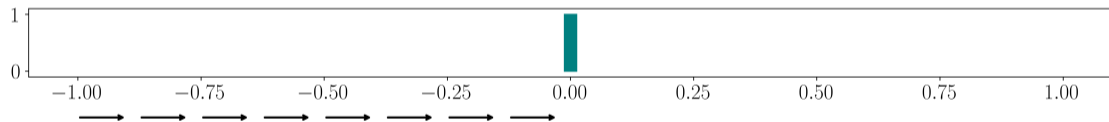
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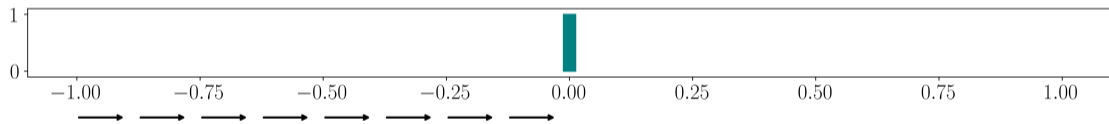
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- Here f is not Lipschitz-continuous, actually no available theory in this case.

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The Hodge-Helmholtz decomposition

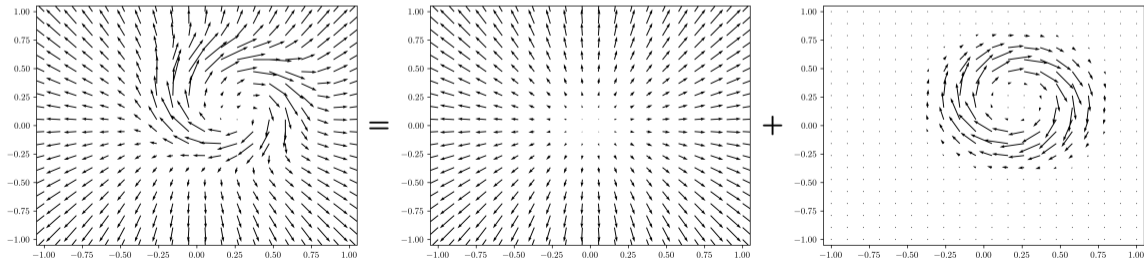
Theorem 2 – HH decomposition [Lad87] Let $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^d)$. There exists two uniquely defined vector fields $g, h \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}^d)$ such that

$$f = g + h, \quad g \simeq \nabla\varphi, \quad \operatorname{div}(h) \simeq 0. \quad (2)$$

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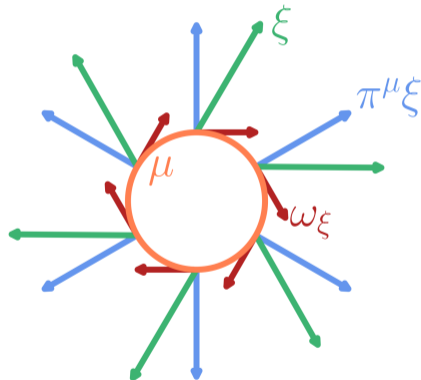
This can be extended to any measure, and to fields that put different probability over different directions.

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Fundamental property of divergence-free fields:
their flow let the Lebesgue measure invariant.

This can be extended to any measure, and to fields that put different probability over different directions.

Theorem 3 – Hodge decomposition Any field $\xi \in \mathcal{P}_2(T\Omega)$ decomposes in a “tangent” component akin to a gradient, and a “divergence-free” component.



Thank you!

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