# Chapter 9

# Probability metrics

#### 9.1 Total variation distance

For probability measures  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  on a measurable space  $(S, \mathcal{S})$ , the total variation distance is defined by

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \sup_{A \in \mathcal{S}} |\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A)|. \tag{9.1.1}$$

**Proposition 9.1.1.**  $d_{tv}$  is a metric on the space of probability measures on  $(S, \mathcal{S})$ .

*Proof.* (i) Obviously  $d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_1) = 0$ . On the other hand, if  $d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2) = 0$ , then  $|\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A)| = 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{S}$ , so that  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ .

- (ii) Obviously  $d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2) = d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ .
- (iii) Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3$  be probability measures on  $(S, \mathcal{S})$ . The triangle inequality for the Euclidean norm on the real line implies that

$$\sup_{A \in \mathcal{S}} |\mu_1(A) - \mu_3(A)| \leq \sup_{A \in \mathcal{S}} \left( |\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A)| + |\mu_2(A) - \mu_3(A)| \right) 
\leq \sup_{A \in \mathcal{S}} |\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A)| + \sup_{A \in \mathcal{S}} |\mu_2(A) - \mu_3(A)|,$$

so that 
$$d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_3) \leq d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2) + d_{tv}(\mu_2, \mu_3)$$
.

The following result provides a helpful symmetry property for densities of probability measures. Remember that by Radon–Nikodym theorem, any pair of probability measures admit density functions with respect to some reference measure.

**Lemma 9.1.2.** Let  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  be probability measures admitting density functions  $f_1, f_2 : S \to \mathbb{R}_+$  with respect to a measure  $\nu$  on  $(S, \mathcal{S})$ . Then

$$\int_{S} (f_1 - f_2)_{+} d\nu = \int_{S} (f_2 - f_1)_{+} d\nu = \frac{1}{2} \int_{S} |f_1 - f_2| d\nu \qquad (9.1.2)$$

and

$$\int_{S} (f_1 \wedge f_2) \, d\nu = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \int_{S} |f_1 - f_2| \, d\nu.$$

Draw a picture.

*Proof.* Observe that  $|x-y| = (x-y)_+ + (y-x)_+$  where  $a_+ = \max\{a, 0\}$  denotes the positive part of a real number a. Then

$$\int_{S} |f_1 - f_2| \, d\nu = \int_{S} (f_1 - f_2)_+ \, d\nu + \int_{S} (f_2 - f_1)_+ \, d\nu. \tag{9.1.3}$$

Denoting  $A_1 = \{x : f_1(x) > f_2(x)\}$ , we see that

$$(f_1 - f_2)_+ = (f_1 - f_2)1_{A_1},$$
  
 $(f_2 - f_1)_+ = (f_2 - f_1)1_{A_1^c}.$ 

Hence

$$\int_{S} (f_{1} - f_{2})_{+} d\nu = \int_{A_{1}} (f_{1} - f_{2}) d\nu = \mu_{1}(A_{1}) - \mu_{2}(A_{1}), 
\int_{S} (f_{2} - f_{1})_{+} d\nu = \int_{A_{1}^{c}} (f_{2} - f_{1}) d\nu = \mu_{2}(A_{1}^{c}) - \mu_{1}(A_{1}^{c}).$$

Because  $\mu_1(A_1) = 1 - \mu_1(A_1^c)$  and  $\mu_2(A_1) = 1 - \mu_2(A_1^c)$ , we find that the above integrals are equal to each other, and we conclude using (9.1.3) that (9.1.2) is valid.

Next, we note that

$$\int_S (f_1 \wedge f_2) \, d\nu \; = \; \int_{A_1} f_2 \, d\nu + \int_{A_1^c} f_1 \, d\nu \; = \; \mu_2(A_1) + \mu_1(A_1^c) \; = \; 1 - \mu_1(A_1) + \mu_2(A_1).$$

It follows that

$$\int_{S} (f_1 \wedge f_2) \, d\nu = 1 - \int_{S} (f_1 - f_2)_+ \, d\nu = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \int_{S} |f_1 - f_2| \, d\nu.$$

**Proposition 9.1.3.** Let  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  be probability measures on  $(S, \mathcal{S})$  admitting densities  $f_1, f_2 : S \to \mathbb{R}_+$  with respect to a reference measure  $\nu$  on  $(S, \mathcal{S})$ . Then

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \frac{1}{2} \int_S |f_1(x) - f_2(x)| \, \nu(dx). \tag{9.1.4}$$

*Proof.* (i) By Lemma 9.1.2, we see that

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{S} |f_1 - f_2| \, d\nu = \int_{S} (f_1 - f_2)_+ \, d\nu.$$

By writing  $(f_1 - f_2)_+ = (f_1 - f_2)1_A$  for  $A = \{x : f_1(x) > f_2(x)\}$ , we see that

$$\int_{S} (f_1 - f_2)_+ d\nu = \int_{A} f_1 d\nu - \int_{A} f_2 d\nu = \mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A) \le |\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A)|.$$

Hence  $\frac{1}{2} \int_{S} |f_1 - f_2| d\nu \le d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ . (ii) Fix a set  $A \in \mathcal{S}$ . Observe that  $(f_1 - f_2)1_A \le (f_1 - f_2)_+ 1_A \le (f_1 - f_2)_+$ pointwise. Hence

$$\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A) = \int_A f_1 \, d\nu - \int_A f_2 \, d\nu = \int_S (f_1 - f_2) 1_A \, d\nu \le \int_S (f_1 - f_2)_+ \, d\nu.$$

Similarly, we find that

$$\mu_2(A) - \mu_1(A) \leq \int_S (f_2 - f_1)_+ d\nu.$$

In light of Lemma 9.1.2, both of the rightmost integrals appearing in the above inequalities are equal to  $\frac{1}{2} \int_S |f_1 - f_2| d\nu$ . As a consequence,

$$|\mu_1(A) - \mu_2(A)| \le \frac{1}{2} \int_S |f_1 - f_2| \, d\nu.$$

Because this is true for all  $A \in \mathcal{S}$ , we see that  $d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2) \leq \frac{1}{2} \int_S |f_1 - f_2| d\nu$ .

The factor  $\frac{1}{2}$  in front of the  $L_1$ -distance could be eliminated by normalising the total variation distance differently. The motivation for the current normalisation is that now  $d_{\rm tv}(\mu_1,\mu_2) \in [0,1]$  always, as confirmed by for-mula (9.1.1).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Here we need densities to be finite-valued because we compute  $f_1 - f_2$ .

**Example 9.1.4.** Denote by Ber(p) the Bernoulli distribution with parameter  $p \in [0, 1]$ . Determine the total variation distance between Ber(p) and Ber(q). Recall that Ber(p) is a probability measure with density

$$f_p(x) = \begin{cases} 1-p & x=0, \\ p & x=1, \\ 0 & \text{else,} \end{cases}$$

with respect to the counting measure # on  $(\mathbb{Z}, 2^{\mathbb{Z}})$ . By Proposition 9.1.3,

$$d_{tv}(Ber(p), Ber(q)) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}} |f_p(x) - f_q(x)| \#(dx)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} |f_p(x) - f_q(x)|$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \Big( |(1-p) - (1-q)| + |p-q| \Big)$$

$$= |p-q|.$$

### 9.2 Couplings

A coupling of probability measures  $\mu_1$  on  $(S_1, \mathcal{S}_1)$  and  $\mu_2$  on  $(S_2, \mathcal{S}_2)$  is a probability measure  $\lambda$  on  $(S_1 \times S_2, \mathcal{S}_1 \otimes \mathcal{S}_2)$  with marginal distributions  $\mu_1, \mu_2$ , that is,

$$\lambda(B_1 \times S_2) = \mu_1(B_1) \quad \text{for all } B_1 \in \mathcal{S}_1,$$
  
$$\lambda(S_1 \times B_2) = \mu_2(B_2) \quad \text{for all } B_2 \in \mathcal{S}_2.$$
 (9.2.1)

This is related to mass transportation.

Equivalently, a coupling is a pair  $(X_1, X_2)$  of random variables  $X_1 : \Omega \to S_1$  and  $X_2 : \Omega \to S_2$  defined on some probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$  such that  $\text{Law}(X_1) = \mu_1$  and  $\text{Law}(X_2) = \mu_2$ .

**Proposition 9.2.1.**  $d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \inf_{\lambda \in \Gamma(\mu_1, \mu_2)} \lambda\{(x_1, x_2) : x_1 \neq x_2\}$ , where  $\Gamma(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  denotes the set of couplings of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ , and the infimum is attained by a coupling  $\lambda_*$ .

*Proof.* (i) Assume that  $\lambda$  is a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ . Then  $\lambda$  is a probability measure on  $(S \times S, \mathcal{S} \otimes \mathcal{S})$  with marginals  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ . Then for any  $A \in \mathcal{S}$ ,

$$\mu_{1}(A) - \mu_{2}(A) = \lambda(A \times S) - \lambda(S \times A)$$

$$= \int_{S \times S} \left( 1_{A \times S}(x_{1}, x_{2}) - 1_{S \times A}(x_{1}, x_{2}) \right) \lambda(dx_{1}, dx_{2})$$

$$= \int_{S \times S} \left( 1_{A}(x_{1}) - 1_{A}(x_{2}) \right) \lambda(dx_{1}, dx_{2}).$$

We note that  $1_A(x_1) - 1_A(x_2) = 0$  whenever  $x_1 = x_2$ . Therefore,

$$|1_A(x_1) - 1_A(x_2)| \le 1_D(x_1, x_2)$$

where  $D = \{(x_1, x_2) \in S \times S \colon x_1 \neq x_2\}$ . It follows that

$$|\mu_{1}(A) - \mu_{2}(A)| \leq \int_{S \times S} |1_{A}(x_{1}) - 1_{A}(x_{2})| \lambda(dx_{1}, dx_{2})$$
  
$$\leq \int_{S \times S} 1_{D}(x_{1}, x_{2}) \lambda(dx_{1}, dx_{2})$$
  
$$= \lambda(D).$$

We conclude that

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\mu_1, \mu_2) \le \lambda(D)$$
 for all couplings  $\lambda$ . (9.2.2)

(ii) We will construct<sup>2</sup> a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ . We assume that  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  admit<sup>3</sup> density functions  $f_1, f_2 : S \to \mathbb{R}_+$  for some reference measure  $\nu$ . Define

$$c = \int_{S} (f_1 \wedge f_2) \, d\nu.$$

Assume 0 < c < 1, and define The case with c = 0 and the case with c = 1 are homeworks?

$$g_0(x) = \frac{f_1(x) \wedge f_2(x)}{c},$$

$$g_1(x) = \frac{(f_1(x) - f_2(x))_+}{1 - c},$$

$$g_2(x) = \frac{(f_2(x) - f_1(x))_+}{1 - c}.$$

With the help of Lemma 9.1.2, we see that  $\int_S g_k d\nu = 1$  for all k, so that the weighted measures  $\mu_k(A) = \int_A g_k d\nu$  are probability measures on  $(S, \mathcal{S})$ . Now define (see Remark 9.2.3 for an intuitive meaning)

$$\lambda_* = c(\mu_0 \circ \psi^{-1}) + (1 - c)(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2),$$

where  $\psi \colon x \mapsto (x, x)$ . Being a linear combination of probability measures  $\mu_0 \circ \psi^{-1}$  and  $\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2$ , we see that  $\lambda_*$  is a probability measure on  $(S \times S, \mathcal{S} \otimes \mathcal{S})$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This could be in appendix, not the most important thing.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This is without loss of generality. Let  $\nu = \mu_1 + \mu_2$ . This is a finite measure that dominates  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  in the sense that  $\nu(A) = 0 \implies \mu_1(A) = 0$  and  $\mu_2(A) = 0$ . By the Radon–Nikodym theorem ref there exist densities  $f_1, f_2 \colon S \to \mathbb{R}_+$  of  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  with respect to  $\nu$ 

(iii) Let us verify that  $\lambda_*$  is a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ . Fix a set  $B_1 \in \mathcal{S}$ . We note that

$$\psi^{-1}(B_1 \times S) = \{ x \in S \colon (x, x) \in B_1 \times S \} = B_1.$$

Hence

$$\lambda_*(B_1 \times S) = c \,\mu_0(\psi^{-1}(B_1 \times S)) + (1 - c) \,(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2)(B_1 \times S)$$
  
=  $c \mu_0(B_1) + (1 - c) \mu_1(B_1),$ 

so that by plugging in the density formulas, we see that

$$\lambda_*(B_1 \times S) = \int_{B_1} \left( (f_1 \wedge f_2) + (f_1 - f_2)_+ \right) d\nu = \int_{B_1} f_1 d\nu = \mu_1(B_1).$$

A similar computation shows that  $\lambda_*(S \times B_2) = \mu_2(B_2)$  for all  $B_2 \in \mathcal{S}$ . Hence  $\lambda_*$  is a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ .

(iv) Finally, by noting that  $\psi^{-1}(D) = \emptyset$ , we find that

$$\lambda_*(D) = (1-c)(\mu_1 \otimes \mu_2)(D) \leq 1-c = d_{tv}(\mu_1, \mu_2).$$

In light of (9.2.2), we conclude that

$$\lambda_*(D) = \inf_{\lambda \in \Gamma(\mu_1, \mu_2)} \lambda(D) = d_{\mathrm{tv}}(\mu_1, \mu_2).$$

**Example 9.2.2** (Coupling two coins). Construct a coupling  $\lambda$  of Bernoulli distributions Ber(p) and Ber(q) such that  $0 \leq p \leq q \leq 1$ , for which the probability  $\lambda\{(i,j): i \neq j\}$  is small.

Define a probability mass function on  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  by  $h(i,j) = L_{ij}$  for  $i,j \in \{0,1\}$  and f(i,j) = 0 otherwise, where

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - q & q - p \\ 0 & p \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then the probability measure  $\lambda(A) = \sum_{(i,j) \in A} h(i,j)$  on  $(\mathbb{Z}^2, 2^{\mathbb{Z}^2})$  has marginals  $\operatorname{Ber}(p)$  and  $\operatorname{Ber}(q)$ , and

$$\lambda\{(i,j): i \neq j\} = L_{01} + L_{10} = q - p.$$

Hence by the coupling inequality ref, we find that  $d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Ber}(p), \text{Ber}(q)) \leq q - p$ . We saw in Example 9.1.4 that  $d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Ber}(p), \text{Ber}(q)) = q - p$ . Hence the  $\lambda$  is actually an optimal coupling.

**Remark 9.2.3.** A probabilistic interpretation of Proposition 9.2.1 is obtained by construction random variables  $X_1, X_2$  whose joint law is the optimal coupling  $\lambda_*$ . Let  $I, W_0, W_1, W_2$  be independent random variables defined on some probability space such that Law(I) = Ber(c) and  $\text{Law}(W_k) = \mu_k$  for k = 0, 1, 2. Define

$$X_1 = \begin{cases} W_0 & I = 1, \\ W_1 & I = 0, \end{cases}$$
 and  $X_2 = \begin{cases} W_0 & I = 1, \\ W_2 & I = 0. \end{cases}$ 

Then the joint law of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  equals the optimal coupling  $\lambda_*$  (homework).

Lindvall [Lin92] points out a subtle thing: To compute  $\mathbb{P}(X_1 \neq X_2)$  the diagonal  $\{(x,x): x \in S\}$  should be a measurable set in  $S \otimes S$ . This is ok for Polish spaces.

### 9.3 Convergence in total variation

Convergence in total variation for discrete probability spaces corresponds to pointwise convergence of probability mass functions. Somewhat surprisingly, pointwise convergence and  $L_1$ -convergence are equivalent in this setting.

**Proposition 9.3.1.** Let S be countable. Then the following are equivalent for probability measures  $\mu_n$ ,  $\mu$  on  $(S, 2^S)$  with probability mass functions  $f_n$ , f:

- (i)  $d_{tv}(\mu_n, \mu) \to 0$ .
- (ii)  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for every  $x \in S$ .
- (iii)  $\sum_{x \in S} |f_n(x) f(x)| \to 0$ .

*Proof.* (i)  $\iff$  (iii) follows by Proposition 9.1.3.

- $(iii) \Longrightarrow (ii)$  is obvious.
- (ii)  $\Longrightarrow$  (iii). Assume that  $f_n(x) \to f(x)$  for every  $x \in S$ . Enumerate  $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ . Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Because  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f(x_k) = 1$ , we may fix an integer  $K \ge 1$  such that  $\sum_{k>K}^{\infty} f(x_k) \le \epsilon$ . Then

$$\sum_{k>K} f_n(x_k) = \sum_{k>K} f(x_k) + \sum_{k>K} (f_n(x_k) - f(x_k))$$

$$= \sum_{k>K} f(x_k) + \sum_{k\leq K} (f(x_k) - f_n(x_k))$$

$$\leq \sum_{k>K} f(x_k) + \sum_{k\leq K} |f_n(x_k) - f(x_k)|.$$

Hence

$$\sum_{x \in S} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = \sum_{k \le K} |f_n(x_k) - f(x_k)| + \sum_{k > K} |f_n(x_k) - f(x_k)|$$

$$\leq \sum_{k \le K} |f_n(x_k) - f(x_k)| + \sum_{k > K} (f_n(x_k) + f(x_k))$$

$$\leq 2\sum_{k \le K} |f_n(x_k) - f(x_k)| + 2\sum_{k > K} f(x_k)$$

$$\leq 2K \max_{k \le K} |f_n(x_k) - f(x_k)| + 2\epsilon.$$

By taking limits as  $n \to \infty$ , we find that

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \sum_{x \in S} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \le 2\epsilon.$$

Because the above inequality is true for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , we conclude that (iii) holds.

## 9.4 Poisson approximation

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be mutually independent  $\operatorname{Ber}(p)$ -distributed random variables defined on some probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ . Define  $S_n = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$ . Observe that  $\mathbb{E}S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{E}X_k = np$ . When np is a small, a classical result, discovered by Siméon Poisson<sup>4</sup>, is that  $S_n$  is approximately Poisson distributed.

**Proposition 9.4.1.** When  $p_n = \lambda/n$  for some constant  $0 < \lambda < \infty$ , then  $Bin(n, p_n) \to Poi(\lambda)$  in total variation as  $n \to \infty$ .

*Proof.* Fix an integer  $n \geq 1$ . We construct a coupling of  $Bin(n, p_n)$  and  $Poi(\lambda)$  as follows. Let  $\lambda$  be an optimal coupling of  $Ber(p_n)$  and  $Poi(p_n)$ , so that  $\lambda\{(x_1, \tilde{x}_1): x_1 \neq \tilde{x}_1\} = d_{tv}(Ber(p_n), Poi(p_n))$ . Define

$$S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n,$$
  

$$\tilde{S}_n = \tilde{X}_1 + \dots + \tilde{X}_n,$$

where  $(X_1, \tilde{X}_1), \ldots, (X_n, \tilde{X}_n)$  are independent  $\lambda$ -distributed random variables in  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ , defined on some probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ . Then  $\text{Law}(S_n) = \text{Bin}(n, p_n)$  and  $\text{Law}(\tilde{S}_n) = \text{Poi}(np_n)$ . Hence the joint law  $\lambda_n = \text{Law}(S_n, \tilde{S}_n)$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>1781 – 1840, PhD École Polytechnique 1800 for Lagrange and Laplace.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>This is a preliminary, that the sum of independent Poisson random variables is Poisson.

constitutes a coupling of  $Bin(n, p_n)$  and  $Poi(np_n)$ . The construction of the coupling shows that  $S_n \neq \tilde{S}_n$  is possible only when  $X_k \neq \tilde{X}_k$  for some k = 1, ..., n. Hence the union bound implies that

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n \neq \tilde{S}_n) \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_k \neq \tilde{X}_k).$$

We conclude by the coupling inequality that

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Bin}(n, p_n), \text{Poi}(np_n)) \leq n d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Ber}(p_n), \text{Poi}(p_n)).$$
 (9.4.1)

Next, with the help of Proposition 9.1.3 we note that (exercise)

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Ber}(p), \text{Poi}(p)) = p(1 - e^{-p}) \quad \text{for all } 0 \le p \le 1.$$
 (9.4.2)

By plugging this into (9.4.1) and applying the bound  $1-t \le e^{-t}$ , we conclude that

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Bin}(n, p_n), \text{Poi}(np_n)) \leq np_n^2$$

Recalling that  $p_n = \lambda/n$ , we see that

$$d_{\text{tv}}(\text{Bin}(n, p_n), \text{Poi}(\lambda)) \leq \lambda^2/n \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$

#### 9.5 Wasserstein distances

The Wasserstein distance<sup>6</sup> of order p between probability measures on a metric space (S, d) is defined by

$$W_p(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \inf_{\lambda \in \Gamma(\mu_1, \mu_2)} \left( \int_{S \times S} d(x_1, x_2)^p \, \lambda(dx_1, dx_2) \right)^{1/p}, \tag{9.5.1}$$

where  $\Gamma(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  denotes the set of coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ . The Wasserstein distance  $W_1$  is also called *earth mover's distance*, because it can be viewed as a minimum transportation cost in the following setting:

- $\mu_1(dx_1)$  is the amount of mass supplied at  $x_1$ ,
- $\mu_2(dx_2)$  is the amount of mass demanded at  $x_2$ ,
- $d(x_1, x_2)$  is the transportation cost from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Named after Leonid Vaserstein (1944–). PhD 1969 @ Moscow State University.

A coupling  $\lambda$  corresponds to a transportation plan in which  $\lambda(dx_1, dx_2)$  is the amount of mass transported from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$ . The cost of the transportation plan is  $\int_{S\times S} d(x_1, x_2) \, \lambda(dx_1, dx_2)$ . The constraint  $\lambda \in \Gamma(\mu_1, \mu_2)$  means that the transportation plan meets supply and demand.

**Example 9.5.1** (Discrete metric). For the metric  $d_0(x,y) = 1(x \neq y)$ , we see that

$$\int_{S\times S} d_0(x_1, x_2) \,\lambda(dx_1, dx_2) = \lambda\{(x_1, x_2) \colon x_1 \neq x_2\}.$$

Proposition 9.2.1 tells that the Wasserstein distance  $W_1$  corresponding to the discrete metric equals the total variation distance.

**Example 9.5.2** (Euclidian metric). Consider the space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with the metric  $d(x,y) = \|x-y\|$  induced by the Euclidean norm  $\|x\| = (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{1/2}$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}_1(\mathbb{R}^n)$  be the space of probability measures  $\mu$  on  $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n))$  such that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \|x\| \, \mu(dx) < \infty$ . It is possible but not that easy to prove that  $W_1$  is a metric on  $\mathcal{P}_1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , see [AGS08, Vil09].

#### 9.6 Wasserstein distances on the real line

Wasserstein distances are in general not easy to compute in analytical form. Neither are optimal coupling achieving a minimum in (9.5.1) easy to find. An exception is the case of univariate probability distributions on the real line, for which an optimal coupling can be formed by a standard simulation method known as inverse transform sampling. In deriving a simple formula for Wasserstein distances for probability distributions on  $\mathbb{R}$ , the following formulas will turn out useful.

**Lemma 9.6.1.** For any (possibly dependent) real-valued random variables X and Y defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}(Y - X)_{+} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{P}(X \le t < Y) dt, \tag{9.6.1}$$

$$\mathbb{E}|Y - X| = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \mathbb{P}(X \le t < Y) + \mathbb{P}(Y \le t < X) \right) dt. \tag{9.6.2}$$

*Proof.* The Lebesgue measure of any real interval [x, y) can be expressed either as the interval length  $(y - x)_+$ , or as the integral of the indicator  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} 1_{[x,y)}(t) dt$ . As a consequence, we see that

$$(Y(\omega) - X(\omega))_+ = \int_{\mathbb{R}} 1_{[X(\omega), Y(\omega))}(t) dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} 1_{A_t}(\omega) dt,$$

where  $A_t = \{\omega \colon X(\omega) \le t < Y(\omega)\}$ . By taking expectations and using Fubini's theorem to interchange the expectation and the integral, we find that

$$\mathbb{E}(Y - X)_{+} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}1_{A_{t}} dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{P}(A_{t}) dt,$$

which confirms (9.6.1).

A symmetric argument shows that formula (9.6.1) also holds with the roles of X and Y swapped. By writing  $|Y - X| = (Y - X)_+ + (X - Y)_+$ , and taking expectations, we find that

$$\mathbb{E}|Y - X| = \mathbb{E}(Y - X)_{+} + \mathbb{E}(X - Y)_{+}.$$

Formula (9.6.2) then follows by applying (9.6.1) and its symmetric analogue.

**Proposition 9.6.2.** For probability measures on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$ , the Wasserstein distance of order 1 can be computed by  $W_1(\mu_1, \mu_2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |F_1(t) - F_2(t)| dt$  where  $F_i(t) = \mu_i((-\infty, t])$  is the cumulative distribution function of  $\mu_i$ .

Proof. (i) We construct a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  using a method called *inverse* transform sampling that is a standard method to simulate random variables from a given univariate probability distribution. Assume that the  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$  are invertible<sup>7</sup>. Then define  $X_1 = F_1^{-1}(U)$  and  $X_2 = F_2^{-1}(U)$  with U being uniformly distributed in (0,1). Then Law $(X_1,X_2)$  is a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  (check this yourself), and

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1 - X_2| = \mathbb{E}|F_1^{-1}(U) - F_2^{-1}(U)| = \int_0^1 |F_1^{-1}(u) - F_2^{-1}(u)| du.$$

We claim that

$$\int_0^1 |F_1^{-1}(u) - F_2^{-1}(u)| \, du = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |F_1(t) - F_2(t)| \, dt.$$

By Lemma 9.6.1, we see that

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1 - X_2| = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) + \mathbb{P}(X_2 \le t < X_1) \right) dt.$$

We note that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) = \mathbb{P}(F_1^{-1}(U) \le t < F_2^{-1}(U))$$
$$= \mathbb{P}(F_2(t) < U < F_1(t)).$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>If they are not, we use use a generalised inverse, that is, a quantile function.

Because  $\mathbb{P}(U \in B)$  equals the Lebesgue measure of B for any  $B \subset [0,1]$ , we conclude that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) = (F_1(t) - F_2(t))_+.$$

By symmetry, the above formula holds also with the roles of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  swapped. We conclude that

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1 - X_2| = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) + \mathbb{P}(X_2 \le t < X_1) \right) dt$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( (F_1(t) - F_2(t))_+ + (F_2(t) - F_1(t))_+ \right) dt$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} |F_1(t) - F_2(t)| dt.$$

Hence  $\lambda = \text{Law}(X_1, X_2)$  is a coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$ , for which

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} |x_1 - x_2| \, \lambda(dx_1, dx_2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |F_1(t) - F_2(t)| \, dt. \tag{9.6.3}$$

(ii) It remains to show that no coupling of  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  attains a smaller value for  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} |x_1 - x_2| \, \lambda(dx_1, dx_2)$  than the right side of (9.6.3). Let  $(X_1, X_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  be random vector such that  $\text{Law}(X_1) = \mu_1$  and  $\text{Law}(X_2) = \mu_2$ . By Lemma 9.6.1, we see that

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1 - X_2| = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) + \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) \right) dt.$$

We also note that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t < X_2) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le t, X_2 > t) = F_1(t) - F_{12}(t), 
\mathbb{P}(X_2 \le t < X_1) = \mathbb{P}(X_2 \le t, X_1 > t) = F_2(t) - F_{12}(t),$$

where  $F_i(t) = \mathbb{P}(X_i \leq t)$  and  $F_{12}(t) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq t, X_2 \leq t)$ . Hence

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1 - X_2| = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( F_1(t) + F_2(t) - 2F_{12}(t) \right) dt. \tag{9.6.4}$$

Furthermore,  $F_{12}(t) \leq F_i(t)$  for i = 1, 2 implies that  $F_{12}(t) \leq F_1(t) \wedge F_2(t)$ . We also note that the formula  $x - (x \wedge y) = (x - y)_+$  implies that

$$x + y - 2(x \wedge y) = (x - y)_{+} + (y - x)_{+} = |x - y|.$$

Therefore, (9.6.4) implies that

$$\mathbb{E}|X_1 - X_2| \ge \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( F_1(t) + F_2(t) - 2(F_1(t) \wedge F_2(t)) \right) dt$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} |F_1(t) - F_2(t)| dt.$$

Because the above inequality holds for all random vectors  $(X_1, X_2)$  with  $\text{Law}(X_1) = \mu_1$  and  $\text{Law}(X_2) = \mu_2$ , we conclude that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |F_1(t) - F_2(t)| dt \leq W_1(\mu_1, \mu_2).$$