

# On the connection between the Thin-Shell conjecture and the KLS Conjecture.

Ronen Eldan, Tel Aviv University

Phenomena in high dimensions, Roscoff

June 2012

# Isotropic log-concave measures

- A probability density  $\rho : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is called *log-concave* if it takes the form  $\rho = \exp(-H)$  for a convex function  $H : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ . A probability measure is log concave if its density is log concave.
- Typical examples: the uniform measure on a convex body, a Gaussian measure.
- For a probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , define

$$b(\mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x d\mu(x), \quad \text{Cov}(\mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x-b(\mu)) \otimes (x-b(\mu)) d\mu(x),$$

a probability measure  $\mu$  is called *isotropic* if its barycenter lies at the origin and its covariance matrix is the identity matrix.

# Isotropic log-concave measures

- A probability density  $\rho : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is called *log-concave* if it takes the form  $\rho = \exp(-H)$  for a convex function  $H : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ . A probability measure is log concave if its density is log concave.
- Typical examples: the uniform measure on a convex body, a Gaussian measure.
- For a probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , define

$$b(\mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x d\mu(x), \quad \text{Cov}(\mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x-b(\mu)) \otimes (x-b(\mu)) d\mu(x),$$

a probability measure  $\mu$  is called *isotropic* if its barycenter lies at the origin and its covariance matrix is the identity matrix.

# Isotropic log-concave measures

- A probability density  $\rho : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is called *log-concave* if it takes the form  $\rho = \exp(-H)$  for a convex function  $H : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ . A probability measure is log concave if its density is log concave.
- Typical examples: the uniform measure on a convex body, a Gaussian measure.
- For a probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , define

$$b(\mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x d\mu(x), \quad \text{Cov}(\mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x-b(\mu)) \otimes (x-b(\mu)) d\mu(x),$$

a probability measure  $\mu$  is called *isotropic* if its barycenter lies at the origin and its covariance matrix is the identity matrix.

# Isoperimetry for log-concave measures

- Define for a measurable  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\mu^+(A) = \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mu(A_\varepsilon) - \mu(A)}{\varepsilon}$$

where  $A_\varepsilon := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n; \exists y, |x - y| \leq \varepsilon\}$ .

- If  $\mu$  is isotropic and log-concave and  $H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is an  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional subspace, then

$$C^{-1} \leq \mu^+(H) \leq C$$

for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- Define the constant  $G_n$  by the equation,

$$G_n^{-1} = \inf_{\mu, T} \mu^+(T)$$

where the infimum is taken over all isotropic log-concave probability measures  $\mu$  and measurable sets satisfying  $\mu(T) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

# Isoperimetry for log-concave measures

- Define for a measurable  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\mu^+(A) = \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mu(A_\varepsilon) - \mu(A)}{\varepsilon}$$

where  $A_\varepsilon := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n; \exists y, |x - y| \leq \varepsilon\}$ .

- If  $\mu$  is isotropic and log-concave and  $H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is an  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional subspace, then

$$C^{-1} \leq \mu^+(H) \leq C$$

for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- Define the constant  $G_n$  by the equation,

$$G_n^{-1} = \inf_{\mu, T} \mu^+(T)$$

where the infimum is taken over all isotropic log-concave probability measures  $\mu$  and measurable sets satisfying  $\mu(T) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

# Isoperimetry for log-concave measures

- Define for a measurable  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\mu^+(A) = \liminf_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mu(A_\varepsilon) - \mu(A)}{\varepsilon}$$

where  $A_\varepsilon := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n; \exists y, |x - y| \leq \varepsilon\}$ .

- If  $\mu$  is isotropic and log-concave and  $H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is an  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional subspace, then

$$C^{-1} \leq \mu^+(H) \leq C$$

for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- Define the constant  $G_n$  by the equation,

$$G_n^{-1} = \inf_{\mu, T} \mu^+(T)$$

where the infimum is taken over all isotropic log-concave probability measures  $\mu$  and measurable sets satisfying  $\mu(T) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

# The KLS conjecture

- As we have seen above (above = 2 days ago), by works of Buser, Cheeger, Gromov-V.Milman, Ledoux and E.Milman the constant  $G_n$  has several equivalent definitions related to the optimal Cheeger constant, spectral gap, exponential concentration and first moment concentration a log concave measure.

## Conjecture(Kannan-Lovász-Simonovits)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $G_n < C$ .

- In other words, the KLS conjecture suggests that, up to a constant, the worst isoperimetric surfaces are hyperplanes.



# The KLS conjecture

- As we have seen above (above = 2 days ago), by works of Buser, Cheeger, Gromov-V.Milman, Ledoux and E.Milman the constant  $G_n$  has several equivalent definitions related to the optimal Cheeger constant, spectral gap, exponential concentration and first moment concentration a log concave measure.

## Conjecture(Kannan-Lovász-Simonovits)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $G_n < C$ .

- In other words, the KLS conjecture suggests that, up to a constant, the worst isoperimetric surfaces are hyperplanes.

# The KLS conjecture

- As we have seen above (above = 2 days ago), by works of Buser, Cheeger, Gromov-V.Milman, Ledoux and E.Milman the constant  $G_n$  has several equivalent definitions related to the optimal Cheeger constant, spectral gap, exponential concentration and first moment concentration a log concave measure.

## Conjecture(Kannan-Lovász-Simonovits)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $G_n < C$ .

- In other words, the KLS conjecture suggests that, up to a constant, the worst isoperimetric surfaces are hyperplanes.

# Thin-shell concentration

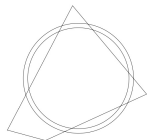
- Observe that when  $X$  is an isotropic random vector,  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] = n$ .
- Define,

$$\sigma_n = \sup_X \sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}$$

where  $X$  runs over all isotropic log-concave random vectors.

- It turns out that,

$$\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]} \leq \sigma_n \ll \mathbb{E}[|X|]$$



These are usually referred to as *thin-shell* estimates. The first result of this kind was proved by B.Klartag. Several alternative proofs and improvements were introduced by Fleury, Guédon, E.Milman and Paouris. The currently best known bound is due to Guédon-Milman who show that  $\sigma_n \leq Cn^{1/3}$ .

# Thin-shell concentration

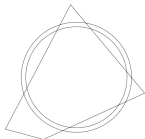
- Observe that when  $X$  is an isotropic random vector,  
 $\mathbb{E}[|X|^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] = n.$
- Define,

$$\sigma_n = \sup_X \sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}$$

where  $X$  runs over all isotropic log-concave random vectors.

- It turns out that,

$$\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]} \leq \sigma_n \ll \mathbb{E}[|X|]$$



These are usually referred to as *thin-shell* estimates. The first result of this kind was proved by B.Klartag. Several alternative proofs and improvements were introduced by Fleury, Guédon, E.Milman and Paouris. The currently best known bound is due to Guédon-Milman who show that  $\sigma_n \leq Cn^{1/3}.$

# Thin-shell concentration

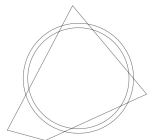
- Observe that when  $X$  is an isotropic random vector,  
 $\mathbb{E}[|X|^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] = n$ .
- Define,

$$\sigma_n = \sup_X \sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}$$

where  $X$  runs over all isotropic log-concave random vectors.

- It turns out that,

$$\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]} \leq \sigma_n \ll \mathbb{E}[|X|]$$



These are usually referred to as *thin-shell* estimates. The first result of this kind was proved by B.Klartag. Several alternative proofs and improvements were introduced by Fleury, Guédon, E.Milman and Paouris. The currently best known bound is due to Guédon-Milman who show that  $\sigma_n \leq Cn^{1/3}$ .

# The thin-shell conjecture

The Thin-Shell conjecture (Anttila-Ball-Perissinaki and Bobkov-Koldobsky)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $\sigma_n < C$ .

- By a theorem of Cheeger, when  $\mu$  is isotropic, for any smooth function  $\varphi$ ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( \varphi - \int \varphi d\mu \right)^2 d\mu \leq CG_n^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla \varphi|^2 d\mu$$

- By taking  $\varphi(x) = |x|^2$ , we see that  $\sigma_n \leq CG_n$ . In particular, the KLS conjecture implies the thin-shell conjecture.
- Thin-shell concentration just means that a euclidean ball of radius  $\approx \sqrt{n}$  has a large surface area with respect to  $\mu$ .

# The thin-shell conjecture

The Thin-Shell conjecture (Anttila-Ball-Perissinaki and Bobkov-Koldobsky)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $\sigma_n < C$ .

- By a theorem of Cheeger, when  $\mu$  is isotropic, for any smooth function  $\varphi$ ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( \varphi - \int \varphi d\mu \right)^2 d\mu \leq CG_n^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla \varphi|^2 d\mu$$

- By taking  $\varphi(x) = |x|^2$ , we see that  $\sigma_n \leq CG_n$ . In particular, the KLS conjecture implies the thin-shell conjecture.
- Thin-shell concentration just means that a euclidean ball of radius  $\approx \sqrt{n}$  has a large surface area with respect to  $\mu$ .

# The thin-shell conjecture

The Thin-Shell conjecture (Anttila-Ball-Perissinaki and Bobkov-Koldobsky)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $\sigma_n < C$ .

- By a theorem of Cheeger, when  $\mu$  is isotropic, for any smooth function  $\varphi$ ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( \varphi - \int \varphi d\mu \right)^2 d\mu \leq CG_n^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla \varphi|^2 d\mu$$

- By taking  $\varphi(x) = |x|^2$ , we see that  $\sigma_n \leq CG_n$ . In particular, the KLS conjecture implies the thin-shell conjecture.
- Thin-shell concentration just means that a euclidean ball of radius  $\approx \sqrt{n}$  has a large surface area with respect to  $\mu$ .



# The thin-shell conjecture

The Thin-Shell conjecture (Anttila-Ball-Perissinaki and Bobkov-Koldobsky)

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that  $\sigma_n < C$ .

- By a theorem of Cheeger, when  $\mu$  is isotropic, for any smooth function  $\varphi$ ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( \varphi - \int \varphi d\mu \right)^2 d\mu \leq CG_n^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla \varphi|^2 d\mu$$

- By taking  $\varphi(x) = |x|^2$ , we see that  $\sigma_n \leq CG_n$ . In particular, the KLS conjecture implies the thin-shell conjecture.
- Thin-shell concentration just means that a euclidean ball of radius  $\approx \sqrt{n}$  has a large surface area with respect to  $\mu$ .

# The connection between the two conjectures

- Right, so KLS implies Thin-Shell. What about the other way around?

## Theorem (Bobkov)

For any log-concave random vector  $X$  and any smooth function  $\varphi$ , one has

$$\frac{\text{Var}[\varphi(X)]}{\mathbb{E}[|\nabla\varphi(X)|^2]} \leq C\mathbb{E}[|X|]\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}.$$

- The theorem implies  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}\sqrt{\sigma_n}$ .
- Under the *thin-shell* hypothesis, we would attain  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}$ .

# The connection between the two conjectures

- Right, so KLS implies Thin-Shell. What about the other way around?

## Theorem (Bobkov)

For any log-concave random vector  $X$  and any smooth function  $\varphi$ , one has

$$\frac{\text{Var}[\varphi(X)]}{\mathbb{E}[|\nabla\varphi(X)|^2]} \leq C\mathbb{E}[|X|]\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}.$$

- The theorem implies  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}\sqrt{\sigma_n}$ .
- Under the *thin-shell* hypothesis, we would attain  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}$ .

# The connection between the two conjectures

- Right, so KLS implies Thin-Shell. What about the other way around?

## Theorem (Bobkov)

For any log-concave random vector  $X$  and any smooth function  $\varphi$ , one has

$$\frac{\text{Var}[\varphi(X)]}{\mathbb{E}[|\nabla\varphi(X)|^2]} \leq C\mathbb{E}[|X|]\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}.$$

- The theorem implies  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}\sqrt{\sigma_n}$ .
- Under the *thin-shell* hypothesis, we would attain  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}$ .

# The connection between the two conjectures

- Right, so KLS implies Thin-Shell. What about the other way around?

## Theorem (Bobkov)

For any log-concave random vector  $X$  and any smooth function  $\varphi$ , one has

$$\frac{\text{Var}[\varphi(X)]}{\mathbb{E}[|\nabla\varphi(X)|^2]} \leq C\mathbb{E}[|X|]\sqrt{\text{Var}[|X|]}.$$

- The theorem implies  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}\sqrt{\sigma_n}$ .
- Under the *thin-shell* hypothesis, we would attain  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/4}$ .

# The main theorem

## Main theorem

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that,

$$G_n \leq C\sigma_n \log n$$

- In fact, we prove something slightly stronger: Up to a factor of  $\sqrt{\log n}$ , the worst isoperimetric sets are ellipsoids.
- Along with the thin-shell bound by Guédon-Milman, we get  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/3} \log n$ .
- Our estimate does not work body-wise, hence, in order to obtain an isoperimetric inequality for a specific convex body, one needs a thin-shell bound for an entire family of convex bodies.
- It can also be shown (E., Klartag) that the thin shell conjecture implies the so-called *hyperplane conjecture*.

# The main theorem

## Main theorem

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that,

$$G_n \leq C\sigma_n \log n$$

- In fact, we prove something slightly stronger: Up to a factor of  $\sqrt{\log n}$ , the worst isoperimetric sets are ellipsoids.
- Along with the thin-shell bound by Guédon-Milman, we get  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/3} \log n$ .
- Our estimate does not work body-wise, hence, in order to obtain an isoperimetric inequality for a specific convex body, one needs a thin-shell bound for an entire family of convex bodies.
- It can also be shown (E., Klartag) that the thin shell conjecture implies the so-called *hyperplane conjecture*.

# The main theorem

## Main theorem

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that,

$$G_n \leq C\sigma_n \log n$$

- In fact, we prove something slightly stronger: Up to a factor of  $\sqrt{\log n}$ , the worst isoperimetric sets are ellipsoids.
- Along with the thin-shell bound by Guédon-Milman, we get  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/3} \log n$ .
- Our estimate does not work body-wise, hence, in order to obtain an isoperimetric inequality for a specific convex body, one needs a thin-shell bound for an entire family of convex bodies.
- It can also be shown (E., Klartag) that the thin shell conjecture implies the so-called *hyperplane conjecture*.



# The main theorem

## Main theorem

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that,

$$G_n \leq C\sigma_n \log n$$

- In fact, we prove something slightly stronger: Up to a factor of  $\sqrt{\log n}$ , the worst isoperimetric sets are ellipsoids.
- Along with the thin-shell bound by Guédon-Milman, we get  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/3} \log n$ .
- Our estimate does not work body-wise, hence, in order to obtain an isoperimetric inequality for a specific convex body, one needs a thin-shell bound for an entire family of convex bodies.
- It can also be shown (E., Klartag) that the thin shell conjecture implies the so-called *hyperplane conjecture*.

# The main theorem

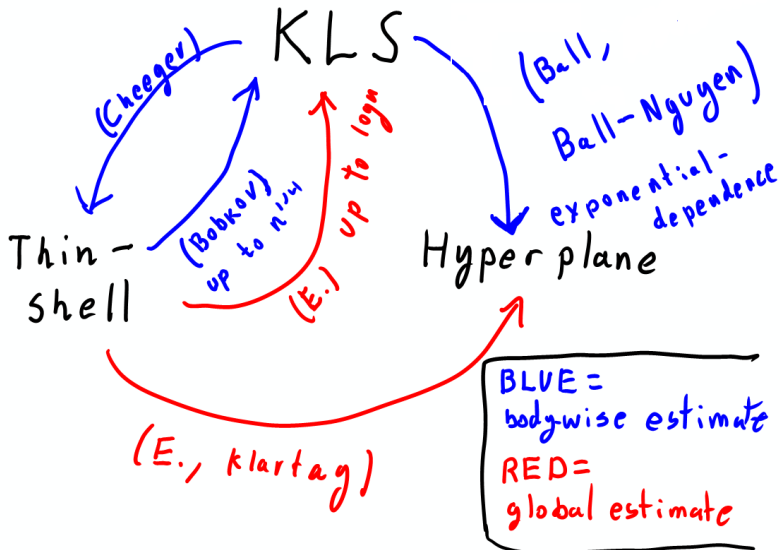
## Main theorem

There exists a universal constant  $C > 0$  such that,

$$G_n \leq C\sigma_n \log n$$

- In fact, we prove something slightly stronger: Up to a factor of  $\sqrt{\log n}$ , the worst isoperimetric sets are ellipsoids.
- Along with the thin-shell bound by Guédon-Milman, we get  $G_n \leq Cn^{1/3} \log n$ .
- Our estimate does not work body-wise, hence, in order to obtain an isoperimetric inequality for a specific convex body, one needs a thin-shell bound for an entire family of convex bodies.
- It can also be shown (E., Klartag) that the thin shell conjecture implies the so-called *hyperplane conjecture*.

# So what implies what, exactly?



# Playing Fruit-Ninja with convex sets

- Let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an isotropic convex body and  $T \subset K$  with  $\frac{\text{Vol}(T)}{\text{Vol}(K)} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Let us consider the following iterative process:

- We take a random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$K_1 = K \cap \{\langle x, \theta \rangle \geq 0\}$$

Denote,  $b_1 = b(K_1)$ ,  $A_1 = \text{Cov}(K_1)$ .

- Generate another random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$K_2 = K \cap \{\langle A_1^{-1/2}(x - b_1), \theta_1 \rangle \geq 0\}$$

And so on.



# Playing Fruit-Ninja with convex sets

- Let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an isotropic convex body and  $T \subset K$  with  $\frac{\text{Vol}(T)}{\text{Vol}(K)} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Let us consider the following iterative process:

- We take a random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$K_1 = K \cap \{\langle x, \theta \rangle \geq 0\}$$

Denote,  $b_1 = b(K_1)$ ,  $A_1 = \text{Cov}(K_1)$ .

- Generate another random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$K_2 = K \cap \{\langle A_1^{-1/2}(x - b_1), \theta_1 \rangle \geq 0\}$$

And so on.



# Playing Fruit-Ninja with convex sets

- Let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an isotropic convex body and  $T \subset K$  with  $\frac{\text{Vol}(T)}{\text{Vol}(K)} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Let us consider the following iterative process:

- We take a random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$K_1 = K \cap \{\langle x, \theta \rangle \geq 0\}$$

Denote,  $b_1 = b(K_1)$ ,  $A_1 = \text{Cov}(K_1)$ .

- Generate another random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$K_2 = K \cap \{\langle A_1^{-1/2}(x - b_1), \theta_1 \rangle \geq 0\}$$

And so on.



# Playing Fruit-Ninja with convex sets - continued

- Define,

$$f(\theta_1) = \frac{\text{Vol}(T \cap K_1)}{\text{Vol}(K_1)}$$

it is easy to check that  $f(\theta_1)$  is  $C$ -Lipschitz for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- By well-known concentration properties of the sphere,  $f(\theta_1)$  is concentrated around the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Its standard deviation is of the order  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ .
- Even if we iterate the process  $n$  times, the relative volume of  $T$  will remain between 0.4 and 0.6 with a non-negligible probability.
- What does  $K_n$  look like?

# Playing Fruit-Ninja with convex sets - continued

- Define,

$$f(\theta_1) = \frac{\text{Vol}(T \cap K_1)}{\text{Vol}(K_1)}$$

it is easy to check that  $f(\theta_1)$  is  $C$ -Lipschitz for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- By well-known concentration properties of the sphere,  $f(\theta_1)$  is concentrated around the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Its standard deviation is of the order  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ .
- Even if we iterate the process  $n$  times, the relative volume of  $T$  will remain between 0.4 and 0.6 with a non-negligible probability.
- What does  $K_n$  look like?



- Define,

$$f(\theta_1) = \frac{\text{Vol}(T \cap K_1)}{\text{Vol}(K_1)}$$

it is easy to check that  $f(\theta_1)$  is  $C$ -Lipschitz for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- By well-known concentration properties of the sphere,  $f(\theta_1)$  is concentrated around the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Its standard deviation is of the order  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ .
- Even if we iterate the process  $n$  times, the relative volume of  $T$  will remain between 0.4 and 0.6 with a non-negligible probability.
- What does  $K_n$  look like?

- Define,

$$f(\theta_1) = \frac{\text{Vol}(T \cap K_1)}{\text{Vol}(K_1)}$$

it is easy to check that  $f(\theta_1)$  is  $C$ -Lipschitz for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

- By well-known concentration properties of the sphere,  $f(\theta_1)$  is concentrated around the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Its standard deviation is of the order  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ .
- Even if we iterate the process  $n$  times, the relative volume of  $T$  will remain between 0.4 and 0.6 with a non-negligible probability.
- What does  $K_n$  look like?

# Localization via multiplying by linear functions

Instead of truncating an entire halfspace in every step, consider the following idea:

- Start with  $f_0$ , defined as the density of the uniform measure on  $K$ . Fix some small  $\epsilon > 0$ .
- Again, we take a random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$f_1(x) = f_0(x)(1 + \epsilon \langle x, \theta \rangle)$$

Denote,  $b_1 = b(f_1)$ ,  $A_1 = \text{Cov}(f_1)$ .

- Generate another random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$f_2(x) = f_1(x)(1 + \epsilon \langle A_1^{-1/2}(x - b_1), \theta \rangle)$$

And so on.

# Localization via multiplying by linear functions

Instead of truncating an entire halfspace in every step, consider the following idea:

- Start with  $f_0$ , defined as the density of the uniform measure on  $K$ . Fix some small  $\epsilon > 0$ .
- Again, we take a random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$f_1(x) = f_0(x)(1 + \epsilon \langle x, \theta \rangle)$$

Denote,  $b_1 = b(f_1)$ ,  $A_1 = \text{Cov}(f_1)$ .

- Generate another random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$f_2(x) = f_1(x)(1 + \epsilon \langle A_1^{-1/2}(x - b_1), \theta \rangle)$$

And so on.

# Localization via multiplying by linear functions

Instead of truncating an entire halfspace in every step, consider the following idea:

- Start with  $f_0$ , defined as the density of the uniform measure on  $K$ . Fix some small  $\epsilon > 0$ .
- Again, we take a random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$f_1(x) = f_0(x)(1 + \epsilon \langle x, \theta \rangle)$$

Denote,  $b_1 = b(f_1)$ ,  $A_1 = \text{Cov}(f_1)$ .

- Generate another random direction  $\theta_1$ , uniformly distributed in  $S^{n-1}$  and define,

$$f_2(x) = f_1(x)(1 + \epsilon \langle A_1^{-1/2}(x - b_1), \theta \rangle)$$

And so on.

# Localization via multiplying by linear functions - continued

## How is this better?

- Suppose, for a minute, that the two first random directions that were generated were  $+x_1, -x_1$ . Then by the second step, we have multiplied the original density by:

$$(1 + \epsilon x_1)(c_0 - \epsilon c_1 x_1) = c_0 + \epsilon(1 - c_1)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_1 x_1^2$$

for some constants  $c_0, c_1$ .

- After roughly  $N = 1/\epsilon^2$  such iterations, the function will have been multiplied by,

$$C \prod_{j=1}^N (1 + \epsilon(1 - c_j)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_j x_1^2) \simeq C e^{d_1 x_1 - d_2 x_1^2}$$

for some constants  $C, c_j, d_1, d_2$ .

- The function approximately takes the form  $f_0 e^{\langle v, x \rangle - \langle Ax, x \rangle^2}$  for some positive definite matrix  $A$ .

# Localization via multiplying by linear functions - continued

How is this better?

- Suppose, for a minute, that the two first random directions that were generated were  $+x_1, -x_1$ . Then by the second step, we have multiplied the original density by:

$$(1 + \epsilon x_1)(c_0 - \epsilon c_1 x_1) = c_0 + \epsilon(1 - c_1)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_1 x_1^2$$

for some constants  $c_0, c_1$ .

- After roughly  $N = 1/\epsilon^2$  such iterations, the function will have been multiplied by,

$$C \prod_{j=1}^N (1 + \epsilon(1 - c_j)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_j x_1^2) \simeq C e^{d_1 x_1 - d_2 x_1^2}$$

for some constants  $C, c_j, d_1, d_2$ .

- The function approximately takes the form  $f_0 e^{\langle v, x \rangle - \langle Ax, x \rangle^2}$  for some positive definite matrix  $A$ .

# Localization via multiplying by linear functions - continued

How is this better?

- Suppose, for a minute, that the two first random directions that were generated were  $+x_1, -x_1$ . Then by the second step, we have multiplied the original density by:

$$(1 + \epsilon x_1)(c_0 - \epsilon c_1 x_1) = c_0 + \epsilon(1 - c_1)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_1 x_1^2$$

for some constants  $c_0, c_1$ .

- After roughly  $N = 1/\epsilon^2$  such iterations, the function will have been multiplied by,

$$C \prod_{j=1}^N (1 + \epsilon(1 - c_j)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_j x_1^2) \simeq C e^{d_1 x_1 - d_2 x_1^2}$$

for some constants  $C, c_j, d_1, d_2$ .

- The function approximately takes the form  $f_0 e^{\langle v, x \rangle - \langle Ax, x \rangle^2}$  for some positive definite matrix  $A$ .



# Localization via multiplying by linear functions - continued

How is this better?

- Suppose, for a minute, that the two first random directions that were generated were  $+x_1, -x_1$ . Then by the second step, we have multiplied the original density by:

$$(1 + \epsilon x_1)(c_0 - \epsilon c_1 x_1) = c_0 + \epsilon(1 - c_1)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_1 x_1^2$$

for some constants  $c_0, c_1$ .

- After roughly  $N = 1/\epsilon^2$  such iterations, the function will have been multiplied by,

$$C \prod_{j=1}^N (1 + \epsilon(1 - c_j)x_1 - \epsilon^2 c_j x_1^2) \simeq C e^{d_1 x_1 - d_2 x_1^2}$$

for some constants  $C, c_j, d_1, d_2$ .

- The function approximately takes the form  $f_0 e^{\langle v, x \rangle - \langle Ax, x \rangle^2}$  for some positive definite matrix  $A$ .

# The continuous version of the localization

- We begin with an isotropic log-concave density  $f(x)$ .
- We construct a 1-parameter family of functions  $f_t$ , in the following way:

Let  $W_t$  be a standard Wiener process in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Define the process  $F_t(x)$  by the equations:

$$F_0(x) = 1, \quad dF_t(x) = \langle dW_t, A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \rangle F_t(x) \quad (1)$$

where,

$$a_t = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} xf(x)F_t(x)dx$$

is the barycenter of  $fF_t$ , and,

$$A_t = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (x - a_t) \otimes (x - a_t) f(x)F_t(x)dx$$

is its covariance matrix.

- Finally, we write  $f_t(x) = f(x)F_t(x)$ .

# Some basic properties of the localization

- The function  $f_t$  is well defined, finite and non-negative for all  $t > 0$ .
- For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f_t(x)$  is a martingale. Consequently, for all  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[f_t^+(E)] = f^+(E)$$

- With probability 1,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_t(x) dx = 1, \quad \forall t > 0$$

- It has a semigroup property: running the process for  $t$  seconds and then another  $s$  seconds is like running it for  $t + s$  seconds.

# Some basic properties of the localization

- The function  $f_t$  is well defined, finite and non-negative for all  $t > 0$ .
- For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f_t(x)$  is a martingale. Consequently, for all  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[f_t^+(E)] = f^+(E)$$

- With probability 1,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_t(x) dx = 1, \quad \forall t > 0$$

- It has a semigroup property: running the process for  $t$  seconds and then another  $s$  seconds is like running it for  $t + s$  seconds.

# Some basic properties of the localization

- The function  $f_t$  is well defined, finite and non-negative for all  $t > 0$ .
- For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f_t(x)$  is a martingale. Consequently, for all  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[f_t^+(E)] = f^+(E)$$

- With probability 1,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_t(x) dx = 1, \quad \forall t > 0$$

- It has a semigroup property: running the process for  $t$  seconds and then another  $s$  seconds is like running it for  $t + s$  seconds.

# Some basic properties of the localization

- The function  $f_t$  is well defined, finite and non-negative for all  $t > 0$ .
- For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f_t(x)$  is a martingale. Consequently, for all  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[f_t^+(E)] = f^+(E)$$

- With probability 1,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f_t(x) dx = 1, \quad \forall t > 0$$

- It has a semigroup property: running the process for  $t$  seconds and then another  $s$  seconds is like running it for  $t + s$  seconds.

# Log-concavity is preserved

- By Itô's formula,

$$\begin{aligned}d \log F_t(x) &= \frac{dF_t(x)}{F_t(x)} - \frac{\left| A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right|^2 F_t(x)^2}{2F_t(x)^2} dt = \quad (2) \\ &= \left\langle dW_t, A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \left| A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right|^2 dt\end{aligned}$$

- This shows that  $F_t$  is actually of the form:

$$F_t(x) = C_t \exp \left( \langle x, c_t \rangle - \frac{1}{2} |B_t x|^2 \right)$$

for some  $C_t > 0$ ,  $c_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $B_t^2 := \int_0^t A_s^{-1} ds$ .

- By results of Buser, Brascamp-Lieb, Gross, Bakry-Emery, Ledoux etc., whenever  $B_t$  is larger than some multiple of the identity, the function  $f_t$  enjoys even nicer concentration properties.

# Log-concavity is preserved

- By Itô's formula,

$$\begin{aligned}d \log F_t(x) &= \frac{dF_t(x)}{F_t(x)} - \frac{\left|A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t)\right|^2 F_t(x)^2}{2F_t(x)^2} dt = \quad (2) \\ &= \left\langle dW_t, A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \left|A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t)\right|^2 dt\end{aligned}$$

- This shows that  $F_t$  is actually of the form:

$$F_t(x) = C_t \exp \left( \langle x, c_t \rangle - \frac{1}{2} |B_t x|^2 \right)$$

for some  $C_t > 0$ ,  $c_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $B_t^2 := \int_0^t A_s^{-1} ds$ .

- By results of Buser, Brascamp-Lieb, Gross, Bakry-Emery, Ledoux etc., whenever  $B_t$  is larger than some multiple of the identity, the function  $f_t$  enjoys even nicer concentration properties.



# Log-concavity is preserved

- By Itô's formula,

$$\begin{aligned}d \log F_t(x) &= \frac{dF_t(x)}{F_t(x)} - \frac{\left| A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right|^2 F_t(x)^2}{2F_t(x)^2} dt = \quad (2) \\ &= \left\langle dW_t, A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \left| A_t^{-1/2}(x - a_t) \right|^2 dt\end{aligned}$$

- This shows that  $F_t$  is actually of the form:

$$F_t(x) = C_t \exp \left( \langle x, c_t \rangle - \frac{1}{2} |B_t x|^2 \right)$$

for some  $C_t > 0$ ,  $c_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $B_t^2 := \int_0^t A_s^{-1} ds$ .

- By results of Buser, Brascamp-Lieb, Gross, Bakry-Emery, Ledoux etc., whenever  $B_t$  is larger than some multiple of the identity, the function  $f_t$  enjoys even nicer concentration properties.

# How does the hypercontractivity help us?

- Let  $\mu_t$  be the measure whose density is  $f_t$ .
- The last equation along with, for instance, the result of Bakry-Emery, shows that if  $\|A_t\|_{OP} \leq \alpha^2$  for  $t \in [0, T]$ , then the function  $f_t$  will satisfy,

$$\mu_t^+(E) \geq \frac{CT}{\alpha}$$

whenever  $0.1 \leq \mu_t(E) \leq 0.9$ .

- Our goal is, therefore, to ensure that  $\|A_t\|_{OP}$  remains small for long enough.

# How does the hypercontractivity help us?

- Let  $\mu_t$  be the measure whose density is  $f_t$ .
- The last equation along with, for instance, the result of Bakry-Emery, shows that if  $\|A_t\|_{OP} \leq \alpha^2$  for  $t \in [0, T]$ , then the function  $f_t$  will satisfy,

$$\mu_t^+(E) \geq \frac{CT}{\alpha}$$

whenever  $0.1 \leq \mu_t(E) \leq 0.9$ .

- Our goal is, therefore, to ensure that  $\|A_t\|_{OP}$  remains small for long enough.

# How does the hypercontractivity help us?

- Let  $\mu_t$  be the measure whose density is  $f_t$ .
- The last equation along with, for instance, the result of Bakry-Emery, shows that if  $\|A_t\|_{OP} \leq \alpha^2$  for  $t \in [0, T]$ , then the function  $f_t$  will satisfy,

$$\mu_t^+(E) \geq \frac{CT}{\alpha}$$

whenever  $0.1 \leq \mu_t(E) \leq 0.9$ .

- Our goal is, therefore, to ensure that  $\|A_t\|_{OP}$  remains small for long enough.

# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- Fix a time  $t > 0$  and choose a basis such that  $A_t$  is diagonal.
- Denote the entries of  $A_t$  by  $\alpha_{i,j}$ .

We have (omitting some not-so-important terms),

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = d \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j f_t(x + a_t) dx \simeq$$
$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j df_t(x + a_t) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, A_t^{-1/2} dW_t \rangle f_t(x + a_t) dx =$$
$$\sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, dW_t \rangle \sqrt{\det A_t} f_t(A_t^{1/2}(x + a_t)) dx$$

# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- Fix a time  $t > 0$  and choose a basis such that  $A_t$  is diagonal.
- Denote the entries of  $A_t$  by  $\alpha_{i,j}$ .

We have (omitting some not-so-important terms),

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = d \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j f_t(x + a_t) dx \simeq$$

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j df_t(x + a_t) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, A_t^{-1/2} dW_t \rangle f_t(x + a_t) dx =$$

$$\sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, dW_t \rangle \sqrt{\det A_t} f_t(A_t^{1/2}(x + a_t)) dx$$

# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- Fix a time  $t > 0$  and choose a basis such that  $A_t$  is diagonal.
- Denote the entries of  $A_t$  by  $\alpha_{i,j}$ .

We have (omitting some not-so-important terms),

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = d \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j f_t(x + a_t) dx \simeq$$

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j df_t(x + a_t) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, A_t^{-1/2} dW_t \rangle f_t(x + a_t) dx =$$

$$\sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, dW_t \rangle \sqrt{\det A_t} f_t(A_t^{1/2}(x + a_t)) dx$$

# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- Fix a time  $t > 0$  and choose a basis such that  $A_t$  is diagonal.
- Denote the entries of  $A_t$  by  $\alpha_{i,j}$ .

We have (omitting some not-so-important terms),

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = d \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j f_t(x + a_t) dx \simeq$$
$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j df_t(x + a_t) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, A_t^{-1/2} dW_t \rangle f_t(x + a_t) dx =$$
$$\sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j \langle x, dW_t \rangle \sqrt{\det A_t} f_t(A_t^{1/2}(x + a_t)) dx$$



# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- We conclude,

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = \sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \langle \xi_{i,j}, dW_t \rangle$$

where,

$$\xi_{i,j} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j x \tilde{f}_t(x) dx$$

with  $\tilde{f}_t$  isotropic.

- By differentiating the eigenvalues with respect to the entries of the matrix, we get,

$$d\lambda_i = \langle \lambda_i \xi_{i,i}, dW_t \rangle + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n \lambda_i \lambda_j \frac{|\xi_{i,j}|^2}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} dt.$$

- The diagonal terms contribute to the quadratic variation of the respective eigenvalues. While the off-diagonal terms contribute to the repulsion between eigenvalues.

# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- We conclude,

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = \sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \langle \xi_{i,j}, dW_t \rangle$$

where,

$$\xi_{i,j} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j x \tilde{f}_t(x) dx$$

with  $\tilde{f}_t$  isotropic.

- By differentiating the eigenvalues with respect to the entries of the matrix, we get,

$$d\lambda_i = \langle \lambda_i \xi_{i,i}, dW_t \rangle + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n \lambda_i \lambda_j \frac{|\xi_{i,j}|^2}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} dt.$$

- The diagonal terms contribute to the quadratic variation of the respective eigenvalues. While the off-diagonal terms contribute to the repulsion between eigenvalues.

# Analyzing the eigenvalues of $A_t$

- We conclude,

$$d\alpha_{i,j} = \sqrt{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \langle \xi_{i,j}, dW_t \rangle$$

where,

$$\xi_{i,j} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x_i x_j x \tilde{f}_t(x) dx$$

with  $\tilde{f}_t$  isotropic.

- By differentiating the eigenvalues with respect to the entries of the matrix, we get,

$$d\lambda_i = \langle \lambda_i \xi_{i,i}, dW_t \rangle + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n \lambda_i \lambda_j \frac{|\xi_{i,j}|^2}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} dt.$$

- The diagonal terms contribute to the quadratic variation of the respective eigenvalues. While the off-diagonal terms contribute to the repulsion between eigenvalues.

# Controlling the norm of the covariance matrix

- The maximal eigenvalue is then controlled by analyzing the Itô process,

$$S_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^{\log n}.$$

- It turns out that the repulsion between eigenvalues is typically more significant than the martingale components.
- It comes down to bounding the expression,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n |\xi_{i,j}|^2 = \left\| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x \otimes x x_i \tilde{f}(x) dx \right\|_{HS}^2$$

- The above expression can be regarded as the Hilbert-Schmidt norm of the difference between the covariance matrices corresponding to the two "halves" of a convex body, separated by the hyperplane  $\{x_i = 0\}$ .

# Controlling the norm of the covariance matrix

- The maximal eigenvalue is then controlled by analyzing the Itô process,

$$S_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^{\log n}.$$

- It turns out that the repulsion between eigenvalues is typically more significant than the martingale components.
- It comes down to bounding the expression,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n |\xi_{i,j}|^2 = \left\| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x \otimes x x_i \tilde{f}(x) dx \right\|_{HS}^2$$

- The above expression can be regarded as the Hilbert-Schmidt norm of the difference between the covariance matrices corresponding to the two "halves" of a convex body, separated by the hyperplane  $\{x_i = 0\}$ .

# Controlling the norm of the covariance matrix

- The maximal eigenvalue is then controlled by analyzing the Itô process,

$$S_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^{\log n}.$$

- It turns out that the repulsion between eigenvalues is typically more significant than the martingale components.
- It comes down to bounding the expression,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n |\xi_{i,j}|^2 = \left\| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x \otimes x \tilde{f}(x) dx \right\|_{HS}^2$$

- The above expression can be regarded as the Hilbert-Schmidt norm of the difference between the covariance matrices corresponding to the two "halves" of a convex body, separated by the hyperplane  $\{x_i = 0\}$ .

# Controlling the norm of the covariance matrix

- The maximal eigenvalue is then controlled by analyzing the Itô process,

$$S_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^{\log n}.$$

- It turns out that the repulsion between eigenvalues is typically more significant than the martingale components.
- It comes down to bounding the expression,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n |\xi_{i,j}|^2 = \left\| \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x \otimes x \tilde{f}(x) dx \right\|_{HS}^2$$

- The above expression can be regarded as the Hilbert-Schmidt norm of the difference between the covariance matrices corresponding to the two "halves" of a convex body, separated by the hyperplane  $\{x_i = 0\}$ .

Merci à tous,  
Félicitations, Alain,  
Bon courage, Espagne,  
Et vive la France.