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## Functional Inequalities: Geometric Calculus meets Stochastic Analysis

Organized by  
Masha Gordina, Storrs  
Jessica Lin, Montreal  
Emanuel Milman, Haifa  
Karl-Theodor Sturm, Bonn

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**ABSTRACT.** Functional inequalities form a unifying theme across a wide spectrum of modern analysis, geometry, and probability. They encode deep geometric and analytic information – for instance through Poincaré, log-Sobolev, transportation, isoperimetric and curvature-dimension inequalities – and serve as crucial tools in the study of Markov semigroups, diffusion processes, metric measure spaces, and geometric flows. The workshop brought together researchers working in geometric analysis, stochastic analysis, and optimal transport in order to promote exchange of ideas and further strengthen the interaction between these rapidly developing fields. Substantial emphasis was placed on non-smooth or singular geometric structures, stochastic dynamics with degeneracies, and new bridges between discrete, fractal, and continuum settings.

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### Introduction by the Organizers

The 2025 workshop *Functional Inequalities: Geometric Calculus meets Stochastic Analysis* presented a broad picture of interconnected topics in analysis, geometry and probability. The uniting subject for many talks was functional inequalities in geometric settings (Riemannian and sub-Riemannian, metric measure spaces etc) and for various applications (Langevin dynamics, Dirichlet spaces and mean-field particle systems). The workshop provides a unique opportunity to encourage and

foster interactions between mathematicians who share common research interests but often use different techniques or settings.

Organized by Masha Gordina (Storrs), Jessica Lin (Montreal), Emanuel Milman (Haifa), and Karl-Theodor Sturm (Bonn), the workshop was attended by 47 in person participants from Canada, China, Denmark, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, and the USA. The scientific program consisted of 27 invited talks and 6 short contributions, leaving time for informal discussions and collaborations. The topics included analysis on metric measure spaces, optimal transport, ergodicity of Langevin dynamics, random geometries etc. While the workshop gave an opportunity to present a number of remarkable recent breakthroughs, it also identified new directions for collaborations, bridging between discrete, fractal, and geodesic spaces, finding novel applications of optimal-transport based techniques and developing new analytic tools that link stochastic dynamics, geometric flows, and the structure of singular spaces.

One of the major themes of the workshop addressed *functional inequalities in high-dimensional convex geometry and related transport problems*. Joseph Lehec presented the recent resolution of the thin-shell concentration conjecture for isotropic log-concave measures. Pierre Bizeul described refined tools from convex geometry and stochastic localization leading to an essentially optimal bound on the diameter of the (non-symmetric) Banach-Mazur compactum. Boaz Klartag presented a breakthrough density estimate on high-dimensional lattice sphere packings using a stochastically evolving ellipsoid.

A complementary theme concerned *probabilistic and analytical perspectives on optimal transport*. Martin Huesmann analyzed random optimal transport cost fluctuations and related quadratic asymptotics, while Giuseppe Savaré presented recent progress on the geometry of spaces of random measures and corresponding optimal transport structures. Nathael Gozlan presented sharp regularity estimates for the optimal transport map between Euclidean densities and their functional-inequality consequences. Finally, Max Fathi spoke on cutoff phenomena for kinetic Langevin dynamics, illustrating how transport inequalities can yield sharp quantitative convergence estimates.

Another focal area involved *interacting particle systems, kinetic equations, and generalized gradient-flow structures*. Benoit Dagallier discussed large-scale convexity properties in mean-field particle systems and their implications for stability and hydrodynamic limits. Jan Maas presented transport metrics adapted to kinetic equations and the resulting hypocoercivity structure. Matthias Erbar described connections between interacting point processes, transport geometry, and variational calculus on spaces of measures. Continuing this theme, Max von Renesse reported on regularization by noise in McKean-Vlasov dynamics, identifying improved analytic behavior due to stochastic perturbations.

A substantial part of the workshop focused on *analysis on non-smooth spaces and Dirichlet forms*. Nageswari Shanmugalingam surveyed recent advances on Newtonian Sobolev spaces and nonlinear potential theory in general metric measure

spaces. Jun Kigami described new classes of compact spaces supporting fractional energy forms and fractal-type differential calculus. Patricia Alonso Ruiz presented isoperimetric inequalities on fractal structures, revealing scale-dependent geometry through functional inequalities. Mathav Murugan's talk was on the resolution of the Bouleau-Hirsch energy image density conjecture for diffusions generated by Dirichlet forms, with applications to Malliavin-type regularity. Several talks addressed more geometric aspects of non-smooth spaces. Shin-ichi Ohta discussed discrete-time gradient flows and curvature bounds in metric spaces of negative curvature, highlighting new nonlinear contraction and comparison principles. Rotem Assouline presented recent work on curvature-dimension conditions for Lagrangian systems, developing generalized synthetic Ricci curvature bounds. In addition, two talks dealt with random geometry. Wei Qian discussed the fractal geometry and scaling structure of Brownian loop-soup clusters. Linan Chen discussed geometric features of high-dimensional Gaussian free fields.

*Stochastic dynamics, ergodicity, and long-time behavior under degeneracy or randomness* formed another important thread. Tai Melcher introduced modified  $\Gamma$ -calculus techniques for degenerate diffusions and their use in establishing ergodicity. Jian Wang presented exponential ergodicity results for stochastic Hamiltonian systems driven by Lévy noise. David Herzog developed quantitative positivity criteria for transition densities of randomly perturbed Hamiltonian flows. Long-range and random-media effects were addressed in talks by Takashi Kumagai and Laurent Saloff-Coste, who presented precise heat-kernel bounds and homogenization results for random walks with non-local or polynomial growth structures.

The geometric and analytic foundations underlying many of these results were further illustrated in talks on *sub-Riemannian and Riemannian analysis, spectral theory, and boundary phenomena*. Fabrice Baudoin presented comparison theorems and curvature–dimension inequalities for sub-Laplacians on Riemannian foliations with minimal leaves. Gilles Carron discussed branching phenomena in strong Kato limits and their spectral implications. Finally, Marie Bormann reported on gradient-flow structures and functional inequalities for heat flow with Wentzell boundary conditions.

The workshop was characterized by lively and productive discussions across traditionally separate fields, including geometric analysis, probability, PDE theory, and metric geometry. Early career researchers contributed actively through short talks and informal exchanges. Overall, the meeting demonstrated the vitality and coherence of the area, and it is expected that the new connections forged during the week at Oberwolfach will stimulate further progress in the coming years.

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### Abstracts

#### Asymptotics for Random Quadratic Transportation Cost

MARTIN HUESMANN

(joint work with Michael Goldman, Dario Trevisan)

Denote by  $W_p$  the  $p$ -th Wasserstein distance on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . For a given probability measure  $\lambda$  let  $(X_i)_{i \geq 1}$  be i.i.d. samples with distribution  $\lambda$  and empirical measure  $\mu_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{X_i}$ . It is well known that  $\mu_n \rightarrow \lambda$  and under mild conditions on  $\lambda$  also the rate of this convergence in  $W_p$  is well known. In fact combining [1],[6], and [5] the following can be shown:

**Theorem 1.** *For any  $d \geq 3$  and  $p \geq 1$ , there exist constants  $0 < \underline{c}(p, d) \leq \overline{c}(p, d) < \infty$  such that the following holds for every probability measure  $\lambda$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Assume that either*

- (i)  $p < d/2$  and  $\lambda$  has finite  $q$ -th moment, for some  $q > dp/(d - p)$ ;
- (ii) or  $\lambda$  is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure on a bounded connected  $C^2$ -smooth or convex domain, with Hölder continuous density uniformly bounded from above and below by a strictly positive constant.

Then denoting by  $\lambda_a$  the absolutely continuous part of  $\lambda$  with respect to the Lebesgue measure,

(1)

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{c}(p, d) \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \lambda_a^{1-p/d} &\leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \left[ W_p^p \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{X_i}, \lambda \right) \right] n^{p/d} \\ &\leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \left[ W_p^p \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{X_i}, \lambda \right) \right] n^{p/d} \leq \overline{c}(p, d) \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \lambda_a^{1-p/d}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $(X_i)_{i=1}^n$  are i.i.d. random variables with common distribution  $\lambda$ . Moreover, the constants  $0 < \underline{c}(p, d) \leq \overline{c}(p, d) < \infty$  are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{c}(p, d) &= \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{L^d} \mathbb{E} \left[ W_{(0,L)^d}^p \left( \mu, \frac{\mu((0, L)^d)}{L^d} \right) \right] \\ \text{and } \underline{c}(p, d) &= \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{L^d} \mathbb{E} \left[ Wb_{(0,L)^d}^p \left( \mu|_{(0,L)^d}, \frac{\mu((0, L)^d)}{L^d} \right) \right], \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mu$  is a Poisson point process with unit intensity on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $W_{(0,L)^d}^p$  denotes the Wasserstein cost of order  $p$  between the measures restricted on the cube  $(0, L)^d$ , while  $Wb_{(0,L)^d}^p$  denotes instead its “boundary” variant defined for two probability

measures  $\alpha, \beta$  on  $\Omega = (0, L)^d$  by

$$\text{Wb}_{(0,L)^d}^p(\alpha, \beta) = \inf_{q \in \text{Cpl}(\alpha, \beta)} \int \mathbf{b}(x, y) q(dx, dy),$$

$$\mathbf{b}(x, y) = \min \left\{ d(x, y), (d(x, \Omega^c)^p + d(y, \Omega^c)^p)^{1/p} \right\}$$

The main result obtained in [2] and presented in this talk is as follows:

**Theorem 2.** *For every  $d \geq 3$  it holds*

$$\underline{c}(2, d) = \overline{c}(2, d).$$

Previously only results in dimension  $d = 1, 2$  were known. In fact, in [3] it was shown that  $\underline{c}(2, 2) = \overline{c}(2, 2) = 1/4\pi$  and in [4] it was shown that for  $0 < p < 1/2$  it holds that  $\underline{c}(p, 1) = \overline{c}(p, 1)$ . We also remark that if one is only interested in the equality of the lim inf and lim sup in (1) one can still conclude when  $\lambda_a$  is a constant, see e.g. [5], [1].

The proof combines functional analytic tools with novel techniques from the stability theory of optimal transportation and ideas from stochastic homogenization. In the following I will sketch the argument of the proof in the simplified linearized PDE setup that inspired much of the recent progress on the classical matching problem.

The starting point is the heuristic approximation of the Wasserstein distance by the Dirichlet energy of solutions to the continuity equation. Put  $\Omega = (0, L)^d$  and for two probability measures  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$  let  $f$  (resp.  $u$ ) be the solutions to the Poisson problem

$$\Delta g = \mu - \lambda$$

with Neumann (resp. Dirichlet) boundary conditions on  $\Omega$ . Then, heuristically (e.g. see [3]) we have  $\text{W}_\Omega^2(\mu, \lambda) \approx \int |\nabla f|^2$  and  $\text{Wb}_\Omega^2(\mu, \lambda) \approx \int |\nabla u|^2$ . We always have

$$\int |\nabla u|^2 \leq \int |\nabla f|^2$$

and modifying  $u$  within a boundary layer of size  $r = \delta L$  to become a competitor for the Neumann problem we can show that for any  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$(2) \quad \int_\Omega |\nabla f|^2 - \int_\Omega |\nabla u|^2 \lesssim \varepsilon \int_\Omega |\nabla u|^2 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[ \|\eta(\mu - \lambda)\|_{H^{-1,2}(\Omega)}^2 + (r^{-2} + \text{diam}(\Omega)^2 r^{-4}) \int_\Omega |u|^2 \right].$$

where  $0 \leq \eta \leq 1$  is a cutoff function equal to 1 on  $\{x : d(x, \Omega^c) \leq r\}$  and equal to 0 on  $\{x : d(x, \Omega^c) \geq 2r\}$ . We expect:

$$\frac{1}{L^d} \mathbb{E} \left[ \int_{(0,L)^d} |\nabla u|^2 \right] \approx \frac{1}{L^d} \text{Wb}_2^2(\mu, \lambda) \approx 1$$

$$\frac{1}{L^d} \|\eta(\mu - \lambda)\|_{H^{-1,2}((0,L)^d)}^2 \approx \frac{1}{L^d} \text{W}_2^2(\eta\mu, \eta\lambda) \approx \delta$$

However, with  $r = \delta L$  we have

$$\frac{1}{L^d}(r^{-2} + L^2r^{-4}) \int |u|^2 \approx (\delta^{-2} + \delta^{-4}) \frac{1}{L^{d+2}} \int |u|^2$$

By the Poincaré inequality we would obtain

$$\frac{1}{L^{d+2}} \int |u|^2 \lesssim \frac{L^2}{L^{d+2}} \int |\nabla u|^2 \approx 1$$

such that the right hand side of (2) would blow up for  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ . Hence, we would need

$$(3) \quad \frac{1}{L^{d+2}} \int |u|^2 \stackrel{!}{\ll} 1$$

to conclude by letting first  $L \rightarrow \infty$  and then  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ . In fact, we are able to show (3) by introducing an intermediate length scale  $L_0 = L^\gamma$ . Subdividing  $\Omega = (0, L)^d$  into  $(L/L_0)^d$  many subcubes of sidelength  $L_0$  we can define another competitor for the Dirichlet energy by solving the Poisson equation with Dirichlet boundary conditions on each subcube and gluing them together. By stationarity properties of the Poisson point process the Dirichlet energy of the competitor coincides in expectation with the Dirichlet energy on a single cube  $(0, L_0)^d$ . This Dirichlet energy can be shown to converge for  $L$  large to the same limit as the original energy with an error that can be made arbitrarily small in  $L$ . Using subadditivity this allows us to show (3).

The main part of our work is to translate this ansatz to the non-linear world of transportation distances. Notably, all terms in (2) have natural correspondences on the transport side. For instance, the control of  $\int |u|^2$  corresponds to the control of the variance of the Kantorovich potential which we obtain by new quantitative stability estimates of optimal transport.

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## Global Regularity Estimates for Optimal Transport via Entropic Regularization

NATHAEL GOZLAN

(joint work with Maxime Sylvestre)

This work develops a general methodology for establishing global regularity estimates for the Brenier optimal transport map between two probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The approach leverages the entropic regularization of the quadratic optimal transport problem and the Prékopa-Leindler inequality, offering a flexible alternative to classical methods based on the Monge-Ampère equation. The main results recover and extend several key theorems in the field, including Caffarelli's celebrated contraction theorem and Hölder regularity estimates by Kolesnikov, while also enabling the treatment of anisotropic settings and measures with singular supports.

According to Brenier's Theorem [2], if  $\mu, \nu$  are two probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with finite second moments, and if  $\mu$  is absolutely continuous, then there exists a convex function  $\varphi$  such that the map  $T = \nabla\varphi$  transports  $\mu$  onto  $\nu$ , in the sense that the image of  $\mu$  under the map  $T$  is equal to  $\nu$ . Moreover this map  $T$  achieves the minimal value in the quadratic transport problem. More precisely, if

$$W_2^2(\mu, \nu) = \inf_{X \sim \mu, Y \sim \nu} \mathbb{E}[|Y - X|^2]$$

denotes the classical squared Wasserstein distance between  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  on the Euclidean space  $(\mathbb{R}^n, |\cdot|)$ , then it holds

$$W_2^2(\mu, \nu) = \mathbb{E}[|T(X) - X|^2].$$

The regularity of the optimal transport map  $T = \nabla\varphi$  is a fundamental question with deep implications in analysis, geometry, and functional inequalities. A landmark result is Caffarelli's contraction theorem :

**Theorem 1** (Caffarelli [4]). *Let  $\mu(dx) = e^{-V(x)}dx$ ,  $\nu(dy) = e^{-W(y)}dy$  be two probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\text{dom}V = \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\text{dom}W$  is convex with nonempty interior. Further assume that  $V, W$  are twice continuously differentiable on the interior of their domains and satisfy  $\nabla^2V \leq \alpha_V I_n$  and  $\nabla^2W \geq \beta_W I_n$  with  $\alpha_V, \beta_W > 0$ . Then the optimal transport map  $T$  for the quadratic transport problem from  $\mu$  to  $\nu$  is  $\sqrt{\alpha_V/\beta_W}$ -Lipschitz.*

This theorem provides a simple, dimension-free condition ensuring Lipschitz regularity and has been instrumental in transferring functional inequalities (e.g., Poincaré, log-Sobolev) from Gaussian to log-concave measures.

The original proof of this result relies on the sophisticated regularity theory for the Monge-Ampère equation [3]. More recently, works by Fathi, Gozlan and Prod'homme [7] and Chewi and Pooladian [5], introduced new proofs using entropic regularization, circumventing the Monge-Ampère equation and instead employing functional inequalities related to the Brunn-Minkowski theory.

Using this entropic regularization approach, the following generalization of Theorem 1 is obtained in [8]:

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $\mu = e^{-V(x)} dx$  and  $\nu(dy) = e^{-W(y)} dy$  be two probability measures such that  $V$  is  $S_V$ -smooth and  $W$  is  $R_W$ -convex. Then the Brenier potential  $\varphi$  for the transport of  $\mu$  onto  $\nu$  is  $\bar{S}$ -smooth, with  $\bar{S}$  given by*

$$\bar{S}(d) = \int_0^1 \sup_{R_W^{**}(p) \leq S_V(td)} \langle p, d \rangle dt, \quad \forall d \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

*In particular,*

$$\bar{S}^*(\nabla\varphi(y) - \nabla\varphi(x)) \leq \bar{S}(y - x), \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

The notions of  $S$ -smoothness and  $R$ -convexity have been introduced by Vladimirov, Nesterov and Chekanov [14] and Zalinescu [15] and further studied by Azé and Penot [1]. A function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $S$ -smooth if for any  $x_0, x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\varphi((1 - t)x_0 + tx_1) + t(1 - t)S(x_1 - x_0) \geq (1 - t)\varphi(x_0) + t\varphi(x_1).$$

A function  $\psi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  is  $R$ -convex if for any  $x_0, x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\psi((1 - t)x_0 + tx_1) + t(1 - t)R(x_1 - x_0) \leq (1 - t)\psi(x_0) + t\psi(x_1).$$

When  $S = \alpha | \cdot |^2/2$  and  $\varphi$  is twice continuously differentiable, then  $\varphi$  is  $S$ -smooth if and only if  $\nabla^2\varphi \leq \alpha$ . Similarly, a twice continuously differentiable function  $\psi$  is  $R$ -convex with  $R = \beta | \cdot |^2/2$  if and only if  $\nabla^2\psi \geq \beta$ . Thus, Theorem 2 implies back Theorem 1. It also recovers Kolesnikov’s Hölder estimate [9] when  $S_V \leq \alpha | \cdot |^p$  and  $R_W \geq \beta | \cdot |^q$  with  $p \leq 2 \leq q$ , giving  $|T(x) - T(y)| \leq C|x - y|^{p/q}$ ,  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , for some  $C$  depending on  $\alpha, \beta, p$  and  $q$ .

A classical duality property states that the Fenchel-Legendre transform interchanges  $S$ -smooth and  $R$ -convex functions: if  $f$  is  $S$ -smooth, then  $f^*$  is  $S^*$ -convex; if  $g$  is  $R$ -convex, then  $g^*$  is  $R^*$ -smooth. The main tool used in the proof of Theorem 2 is a similar duality result for the so-called *entropic Legendre transform*:

$$\mathcal{L}_\varepsilon(\psi)(x) = \varepsilon \log \left( \int \exp \left( \frac{\langle x, y \rangle - \psi(y)}{\varepsilon} \right) dy \right).$$

This functional interpolates between the log-Laplace transform ( $\varepsilon = 1$ ) and the Fenchel-Legendre transform ( $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ ). As shown in [8], this transform puts in duality the classes of  $S$ -smooth and  $R$ -convex functions in the following sense:

- If  $\psi$  is  $R$ -convex, then  $\mathcal{L}_\varepsilon(\psi)$  is  $R^*$ -smooth.
- If  $\varphi$  is  $S$ -smooth, then  $\mathcal{L}_\varepsilon(\varphi)$  is  $S^*$ -convex.

The proof of the first implication relies crucially on the Prékopa-Leindler inequality [11, 12, 10]. This duality result is crucially used in the proof of Theorem 2 to control, independently of  $\varepsilon$ , the smoothness and convexity moduli of the so-called entropic potentials  $(\varphi_\varepsilon, \psi_\varepsilon)$  arising in the resolution of the entropy regularized transport problem between  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ .

The framework described above is very flexible and allows several variants and various applications. For instance, the following anisotropic version of Theorem 1

is obtained in [8] via the entropic method: If  $\nabla^2 V \leq A^{-1}$  and  $\nabla^2 W \geq B^{-1}$  for symmetric positive definite matrices  $A, B$ , then

$$\nabla^2 \varphi \leq B^{1/2}(B^{-1/2}A^{-1}B^{-1/2})^{1/2}B^{1/2}.$$

This generalizes results by Valdimarsson [13] and Chewi and Pooladian [5], removing the assumption that  $A$  and  $B$  commute.

Several other regularity results are obtained in [8] :

- Theorem 2 can be generalized to measures supported on affine subspaces. This provides anisotropic Lipschitz estimates depending on the alignment of the subspaces.
- A version of Caffarelli's theorem is obtained for perturbations of product measures with densities proportional to  $e^{-\|\cdot\|_p^p}$  and  $e^{-\|\cdot\|_{p^*}^{p^*}}$ , yielding regularity estimates in  $p$ -norms.
- For two log-Lipschitz perturbations of the Gaussian measure, the Brenier map is shown to be an approximate isometry. This leads to sharp concentration inequalities for such measures.
- Using a modified Prékopa-Leindler inequality, a recent result of De Philippis and Shenfeld [6] on the Laplacian of the Kantorovich potential is recovered and improved.

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**Large scale convexity in mean field particle models**

BENOIT DAGALLIER

(joint work with Roland Bauerschmidt and Thierry Bodineau)

We consider  $N$  particles in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with mean field interaction as described by the following probability measure:

$$m_T^N(dx) = \frac{1}{Z_T^N} e^{-H_T^N(x)} dx,$$

where for  $x \in (\mathbb{R}^d)^N$  the energy  $H_T^N(x)$  is given by:

$$H_T^N(x) = \frac{1}{2NT} \sum_{i,j=1}^N W(x_i, x_j) + \sum_{i=1}^N V(x_i).$$

Above,  $V : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a confinement potential,  $W : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is an interaction term, with strength parametrised by the temperature  $T > 0$ . The constant  $Z_T^N$  is a normalisation making  $m_T^N$  a probability measure. The typical example we have in mind is the so-called Curie-Weiss model where  $W(x_1, x_2) = -(x_1, x_2)$  ( $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ), and  $V(x_1) = \lambda|x_1|^4/4 - |x_1|^2/2$  ( $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^d, \lambda > 0$ ).

The aim of the talk is to bound the speed of convergence of the following Langevin dynamics, known to converge to  $m_T^N$  in long time:

$$dX_t^N = -\nabla H_T^N(X_t^N) dt + \sqrt{2} dB_t^N,$$

with  $B_t^N$  a standard Brownian motion in  $(\mathbb{R}^d)^N$ . This is done by bounding the log-Sobolev constant of the dynamics, that is the best constant  $\gamma > 0$  such that, for all smooth compactly supported test functions  $F : (\mathbb{R}^d)^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\text{Ent}_{m_T^N}(F^2) \leq \frac{2}{\gamma} \mathbb{E}_{m_T^N} [|\nabla F|^2],$$

where  $\text{Ent}_{m_T^N}(F^2) = \mathbb{E}_{m_T^N}[F^2 \log(F^2)] - \mathbb{E}_{m_T^N}[F^2] \log \mathbb{E}_{m_T^N}[F^2]$ .

If  $H_T^N$  is uniformly convex with constant  $c > 0$ , the celebrated Bakry-Émery argument says that the log-Sobolev constant is at least  $c > 0$  (in particular independent of the number  $N$  of particles if  $c$  is). Without uniform convexity a log-Sobolev inequality may not hold, or at least not with a uniform in  $N$  constant. Mean-field models provide a nice class of examples which are typically not convex, yet when the parameter  $T$  is sufficiently large the log-Sobolev constant can often be shown to be independent of  $N$  [2]. On the contrary, for  $T$  small it vanishes with  $N$ .

In this presentation I explained how to find, in the case of the Curie-Weiss model, an appropriate functional and an appropriate notion of convexity, different

from  $H_T^N$  and the Bakry-Émery one respectively, such that uniform convexity implies uniform in  $N$  bound on the log-Sobolev constant. The appropriate functional is obtained in terms of the so-called free energy  $\mathcal{F}_T$ , the real-valued functional acting on probability measures  $\rho = \rho(x) dx$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  according to:

$$\mathcal{F}_T(\rho) = \int \rho(x) \log \rho(x) dx + \int V(x) \rho(dx) - \frac{1}{2T} \left( \int x \rho(dx) \right)^2,$$

and  $\mathcal{F}_T(\rho) = \infty$  if  $\rho$  is not absolutely continuous.

Specifically, we prove in [1] that the log-Sobolev constant  $\gamma$  of  $m_T^N$  in the Curie-Weiss case is indeed bounded below uniformly in  $N$  for any  $T > 0$  such that the free energy has the following convexity property:

$$\exists \lambda_T > 0, \forall m \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad \nabla^2 \hat{\mathcal{F}}_T(m) \geq \lambda_T \text{id},$$

where  $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the following projection of the free energy on the mean:

$$\hat{\mathcal{F}}_T(m) = \inf \left\{ \mathcal{F}_T(\rho) : \int x \rho(dx) = m \right\}, \quad m \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

The proof relies on a one-step renormalisation argument, which concretely corresponds to using the following Gaussian identity:

$$\exp \left[ \frac{1}{2NT} \left| \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \right|^2 \right] \propto \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \exp \left[ -\frac{N|\varphi|^2}{2T} + \frac{1}{T} \left( \varphi, \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \right) \right] d\varphi.$$

This splits the measure  $m_T^N$  in two probability measures: an infinite-temperature part (i.e. a product measure) driven by an external field  $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , and a low-dimensional part  $\nu_r(d\varphi) \propto e^{-NV_T(\varphi)} d\varphi$ , where the so-called renormalised potential  $V_T$  reads:

$$\begin{aligned} V_T(\varphi) &= \frac{|\varphi|^2}{2T} - \log \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-V(x_1) + (\varphi, x_1)/T} dx_1 \\ &= \frac{|\varphi|^2}{2T} + \inf_{\rho} \left\{ \int \rho(x) \log \rho(x) dx + \int V(x) \rho(dx) - \frac{1}{T} \left( \varphi, \int x \rho(dx) \right) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

All information on temperature-dependence of  $m_T^N$  is encoded in  $V_T$ , in particular in its convexity. This convexity is equivalent to convexity of  $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_T$  as the two can be shown to more or less be Legendre transforms of one another.

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### Resolution of the thin-shell conjecture

JOSEPH LEHEC

(joint work with Boaz Klartag)

A probability measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called log-concave if it is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure on the affine subspace spanned by its support, and if its log-density is a concave function. For instance uniform measures on compact convex sets are log-concave, as well as Gaussian measures. The class of log-concave probability measures is closed under convolutions, weak limits and push-forwards under linear maps, as follows from the Prékopa-Leindler inequality. A log-concave probability measure have moments of all orders, by Borell’s lemma, and we can consider its barycenter and covariance matrix. The measure is then called isotropic if the former is zero, and the latter is the identity. This condition is merely a matter of normalization, any probability measure having second moments and not supported on a hyperplane admits an affine image that is isotropic. If  $X$  is a random vector with values in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we say that it is log-concave if its law is log-concave, and similarly for the isotropy condition. The main result discussed in this talk is the following.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $X$  be an isotropic, log-concave random vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then,*

$$(1) \qquad \text{Var } |X|^2 \leq Cn,$$

where  $C > 0$  is a universal constant.

Theorem 1 is tight, up to the value of the universal constant. Indeed, if  $X$  is a standard Gaussian random vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  then  $\text{Var } |X|^2 = 2n$ , whereas if  $X$  is distributed uniformly in the cube  $[-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3}]^n$  then  $X$  is isotropic and log-concave, and  $\text{Var } |X|^2 = 4n/5$ . For any isotropic random vector  $X$  we have the inequality

$$\mathbb{E} (|X| - \sqrt{n})^2 \leq \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} (|X|^2 - n)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \text{Var } |X|^2.$$

Therefore Theorem 1 implies the bound

$$(2) \qquad \mathbb{E} (|X| - \sqrt{n})^2 \leq C$$

for any log-concave and isotropic  $X$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and where  $C$  is a universal constant. Inequality (2) is a *thin-shell bound*, it implies that with high probability, the random vector  $X$  belongs to a thin spherical shell  $\{\sqrt{n} - O(1) \leq |x| \leq \sqrt{n} + O(1)\}$  whose width is much smaller than its radius  $\sqrt{n}$ .

Thin-shell bounds in the spirit of (2) were conjectured by Anttila, Ball and Perissinaki [1] in the context of the central limit problem for convex bodies. Very roughly speaking, the latter asks whether this is the case that most marginals of high dimensional convex sets are approximately Gaussian. In the case where  $X$  is distributed uniformly in a convex body, the precise form of Theorem 1 was posed as an open problem by Bobkov and Koldobsky [2], who also observed that an affirmative answer would follow from the Kannan-Lovász-Simonovits (KLS) conjecture (which is not discussed in this talk).

The thin-shell conjecture (i.e., the statement of Theorem 1) is also related to Bourgain's slicing problem. In fact, Eldan and Klartag [5] proved that the thin-shell conjecture implies an affirmative answer to Bourgain's slicing problem. The latter was resolved in the affirmative in [13] by using a recent bound by Guan [7]. Guan's technique is also a crucial ingredient in our proof of Theorem 1.

The first non-trivial upper bound for the left-hand side of (2) was given in the proof of the central limit theorem for convex sets in [9]. The bound obtained was that for an isotropic, log-concave random vector  $X$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\mathbb{E} (|X| - \sqrt{n})^2 \leq \sigma_n^2$$

with  $\sigma_n = O(\sqrt{n}/\log n)$ . This bound was improved to  $\sigma_n = O(n^{3/8})$  in Fleury [6] and to  $\sigma_n = O(n^{1/3})$  in Guédon and Milman [8]. Roughly speaking, the proofs of these bounds relied on concentration of measure on the high-dimensional sphere. Eldan's stochastic localization was then used by Lee and Vempala [14] in order to show that in fact  $\sigma_n = O(n^{1/4})$ . Thanks to Eldan and Klartag [5], this yielded another proof of the  $n^{1/4}$ -bound for Bourgain's slicing problem, which was the state of the art at the time. The methods of Lee and Vempala were extended in a breakthrough work by Chen [3] who came up with a clever growth regularity estimate and proved the bound  $\sigma_n = n^{o(1)}$ . This was improved to  $\sigma_n = O(\log^4 n)$  in [12] by combining Chen's work with spectral analysis. The bound  $\sigma_n = O(\sqrt{\log n})$  was then obtained in [11] by replacing the use of growth regularity estimates with an improved Lichnerowicz inequality. This inequality was then used in an extremely intricate bootstrap analysis in Guan [7], for proving  $\sigma_n = O(\log \log n)$ . Our main theorem provides the definitive answer  $\sigma_n = O(1)$ .

Our proof of Theorem 1 employs an idea from the proof of the thin-shell conjecture in the special case where the vector  $X$  is uniformly distributed on a convex set having coordinate symmetries, from [10]. If  $\mu$  is a log-concave probability measure in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we define the associated  $H^{-1}$  norm as follows:

$$\|f\|_{H^{-1}(\mu)} = \sup \left\{ \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} fg \, d\mu : \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla g|^2 \, d\mu \leq 1 \right\}.$$

It was shown in [10] by using the *Bochner formula* that in the log-concave case, for any smooth function  $f$  such that  $\int \nabla f \, d\mu = 0$ ,

$$\text{Var}_\mu(f) \leq \|\nabla f\|_{H^{-1}(\mu)}^2 := \sum_{i=1}^n \|\partial_i f\|_{H^{-1}(\mu)}^2.$$

Specifying to the case where  $\mu$  is isotropic (in addition to being log-concave) and  $f(x) = |x|^2$  we get

$$(3) \quad \text{Var}_\mu(|x|^2) \leq 4 \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i\|_{H^{-1}(\mu)}^2.$$

Consequently, Theorem 1 would follow from (3) once we prove the following:

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $\mu$  be an isotropic, log-concave probability measure in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then,*

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i\|_{H^{-1}(\mu)}^2 \leq Cn,$$

where  $C > 0$  is a universal constant.

The proof of Theorem 2 relies on the well-known fact that the  $H^{-1}(\mu)$ -norm is related to an infinitesimal optimal transport distance. More specifically, we reduce the problem to estimating the transport distance between  $\mu$  and log-affine perturbations of  $\mu$ , which we also call exponential tilts. We then construct a certain coupling between those exponential tilts related to Eldan’s stochastic localization and to the theory of non-linear filtering. Theorem 2 then boils down to some growth estimate for the covariance process of the stochastic localization, which we prove using a variant of Guan’s technique.

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## An isoperimetric inequality for (fractal) spaces with different micro- and macrostructure

PATRICIA ALONSO RUIZ

(joint work with Fabrice Baudoin)

Imagine a material whose structure significantly differs depending on whether you work with it at a small scale or at a large scale, and that shows fractal-like features at least on one scale. A company would like to test this material and has a fixed amount of “perimeter points” they can use. To estimate the cost of the amount (volume/area) of material these points would cover, they would like to know how large that size may be. How to “detect” the correct scale when performing measurements?

The present talk addresses this question by presenting an *isoperimetric inequality* in spaces that feature such different scales. To mathematically describe the different scales, we will make use of the function

$$\sigma_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(r) := r^{\nu_1} 1_{[0,1]}(r) + r^{\nu_2} 1_{(1,+\infty)}(r), \quad r > 0,$$

for given  $\nu_1, \nu_2 > 0$ . The guiding example during the talk is the Sierpinski carpet cable system, see an approximation in Figure 1.

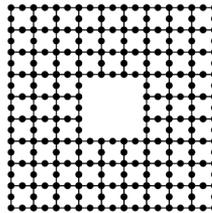


FIGURE 1. Approximation of a Sierpinski gasket cable system

As a metric measure space  $(X, d, \mu)$ , it satisfies the following key properties: For fixed parameters  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2 > 0$  with  $\alpha_i < \beta_i$  and  $2 \leq 1 + \alpha_i$ ,

**A1.** for any ball  $B(x, r)$  with  $x \in X$  and  $r > 0$ ,

$$\mu(B(x, r)) \asymp \sigma_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2}(r);$$

**A2.** there is an intrinsic Brownian motion  $\{W_i\}_{t \geq 0}$  in  $X$  that admits a heat kernel  $p_t(x, y)$  with estimates

$$p_t(x, y) \asymp \frac{1}{\sigma_{\alpha_1/\beta_1, \alpha_2/\beta_2}(t)} \exp\left(-ct\sigma_{\beta_2/(\beta_2-1), \beta_1/(\beta_1-1)}\left(\frac{d(x, y)}{t}\right)\right)$$

for  $\mu$ -a.e.  $x, y \in X$  and all  $t > 0$ ;

**A3.** the associated heat semigroup  $\{P_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  fulfills the so-called *weak Bakry-Émery* condition

$$|P_t u(x) - P_t u(y)| \leq C_{\text{wBE}} \frac{\sigma_{\kappa_1, \kappa_2}(d(x, y))}{\sigma_{\frac{\kappa_1}{\beta_1}, \frac{\kappa_2}{\beta_2}}(t)} \|u\|_{L^\infty(X, \mu)}$$

for some  $\kappa_1, \kappa_2 > 0$  and any  $u \in L^\infty(X, \mu)$ .

The main result discussed in this talk is an analogue to the classical isoperimetric inequality in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , which for sets  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  with smooth boundary  $\partial E$  reads

$$(1) \quad (\mathcal{H}^n(E))^{\frac{n-1}{n}} \leq c_n \text{Per}(E),$$

where  $\mathcal{H}^n(\cdot)$  denotes the  $n$ -dimensional Hausdorff measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\text{Per}(E) := \mathcal{H}^{n-1}(\partial E)$  is the perimeter of  $E$ . In the metric measure space setting, the measure  $\mu$  is the natural replacement for  $\mathcal{H}^n$ . Less clear at first sight is a suitable analogue/substitute for the perimeter measure.

In that regard, a first important observation towards stating an analogue of (1) is the connection between the isoperimetric inequality, the Sobolev embedding and functions of bounded variation (BV). That connection allowed de Giorgi to restate (1) as

$$(2) \quad (\mathcal{H}^n(E))^{\frac{n-1}{n}} = \|\mathbf{1}_E\|_{L^{\frac{n}{n-1}}(\mathbb{R}^n)} \leq c_n \text{Var}(\mathbf{1}_E),$$

where  $\text{Var}(\cdot)$  denotes the total variation measure given in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by

$$\text{Var}(u) := \sup \left\{ \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} u \operatorname{div} \varphi \, dx : \varphi \in C_c^1(\mathbb{R}^n), \|\varphi\|_{L^\infty} \leq 1 \right\}$$

for any BV function  $u$ , see e.g. [3]. The second key observation is a characterization of  $\text{Var}(u)$  in terms of the heat semigroup  $\{P_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  proved in [4] in the Euclidean setting and reads

$$\text{Var}(u) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi t}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} P_t(|u - u(x)|)(x) \, dx.$$

With these two observations in mind, our original question translates into proving a suitable Sobolev embedding in the metric measure space setting under the conditions **A1-A3** listed above. As a replacement for the  $L^{\frac{n}{n-1}}$ -norm in (2), a suitable Orlicz norm  $\|\cdot\|_{\varphi_1}$  enters into play, and the corresponding variance becomes

$$\text{Var}_{\Psi_1}(u) := \liminf_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\Psi_1(t)} \int_X P_t(|u - u(x)|)(x) \, d\mu(x),$$

which is a generalization of the variance studied in [1] in the context of fractals with homogeneous scaling. The associated space of bounded variation functions is thus defined as

$$\mathbf{B}^{1, \Psi_1}(X) := \left\{ u \in L^1(X, \mu) : \limsup_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\Psi_1(t)} \int_X P_t(|u - u(x)|)(x) \, d\mu(x) \right\}.$$

**Theorem 1.** *Under the Assumptions A1-A3, let*

$$\Psi_1(s) := \sigma_{1-\frac{\kappa_1}{\beta_1}, 1-\frac{\kappa_2}{\beta_2}}(s).$$

*There exists  $C > 0$  such that*

$$\|u\|_{\varphi_1} \leq C \text{Var}_{\Psi_1}(u)$$

*for any  $u \in \mathbf{B}^{1, \Psi_1}(X)$ . In particular, for any set  $E \subset X$  of finite  $\Psi_1$  perimeter,*

$$\Phi_1(\mu(E)) \leq C \text{Per}_{\Psi_1}(E),$$

*where*

$$\varphi_1(s) := \sigma_{\frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_1-\beta_1+\kappa_1}, \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_2-\beta_2+\kappa_2}}(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi_1(s) := \sigma_{1+\frac{\kappa_1-\beta_1}{\alpha_1}, 1+\frac{\kappa_2-\beta_2}{\alpha_2}}(s).$$

The proof is based on an application of several results concerning pseudo-Poincaré inequalities that were obtained in [2].

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### Sub-Laplacian comparison theorems on Riemannian foliations with minimal leaves and applications

FABRICE BAUDOIN

Let  $(M, g)$  be a complete  $(n+m)$ -dimensional Riemannian manifold endowed with a Riemannian foliation  $\mathcal{F}$  with  $m$ -dimensional *minimal* leaves. The tangent bundle splits orthogonally as

$$TM = \mathcal{H} \oplus \mathcal{V},$$

where  $\mathcal{H}$  is bracket-generating. The horizontal Laplacian acting on smooth functions is

$$\Delta_{\mathcal{H}} f = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}}(\text{Hess}_D f),$$

which coincides with the generator of horizontal Brownian motion thanks to the minimality assumption.

The Levi-Civita connection does not preserve the horizontal distribution. Instead, the analysis relies on the *fundamental connection*  $\nabla$ , a metric connection preserving  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{V}$  whose torsion measures the non-integrability of  $\mathcal{H}$  and encodes the second fundamental form of the leaves. From  $\nabla$  and its torsion, we define a natural symmetric tensor  $\mathbf{R}$  playing the role of a Ricci curvature; it combines: (i) curvature of  $\nabla$ , (ii) torsion divergence, (iii) quadratic torsion terms, and (iv) a  $J$ -term induced by torsion.

Let  $r_p(x) = d(p, x)$  denote the *Riemannian* distance from  $p$ . Assume the curvature lower bound

$$\mathbf{R}(U, U) \geq K|U|^2 \quad \text{for all } U \in TM.$$

Then, outside the cut locus of  $p$ , the horizontal Laplacian of  $r_p$  satisfies the comparison estimate

$$\Delta_{\mathcal{H}} r_p(x) \leq \begin{cases} \sqrt{nK} \cot(\sqrt{K/n} r_p(x)), & K > 0, \\ \frac{n}{r_p(x)}, & K = 0, \\ \sqrt{n|K|} \coth(\sqrt{|K|/n} r_p(x)), & K < 0. \end{cases}$$

A related two-point inequality is obtained for a coupled horizontal Laplacian on  $M \times M$ , using a skewed parallel transport along minimizing geodesics.

The comparison results yield several global consequences:

- **Bonnet–Myers type theorem:** if  $K > 0$ , then  $M$  is compact and

$$\text{diam}(M) \leq \pi \sqrt{\frac{n}{K}}.$$

- **Stochastic completeness:** the semigroup generated by  $\Delta_{\mathcal{H}}$  is conservative.
- **Gradient and Lipschitz bounds:** for bounded Lipschitz functions,

$$\text{Lip}(P_t f) \leq e^{-Kt} \text{Lip}(f),$$

proved via coupling by (skewed) parallel transport.

Carnot groups of arbitrary step fit naturally into this framework, providing sub-Laplacian comparison theorems for the Riemannian distance and heat semigroup regularization results in a broad sub-Riemannian setting.

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### Lattice packing of spheres in high dimensions using a stochastically evolving ellipsoid

BOAZ KLARTAG

A lattice  $L$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the image of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  under an invertible linear map, and the absolute value of the determinant of this linear map is the covolume of the lattice, denoted by  $\text{Vol}_n(\mathbb{R}^n/L)$ . A *lattice sphere packing* is a family of disjoint Euclidean balls of equal radius whose centers form a lattice. The density of such a packing with radius  $r$  and lattice  $L$  is

$$\frac{\text{Vol}_n(rB^n)}{\text{Vol}_n(\mathbb{R}^n/L)}.$$

We denote by  $\delta_n$  the supremum of all densities of lattice sphere packings in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The classical Minkowski-Hlawka theorem (see, e.g., [8]) implies

$$\delta_n \geq 2\zeta(n) 2^{-n},$$

and Rogers showed in [14] that

$$(1) \quad \delta_n \geq c n 2^{-n}$$

for some universal constant  $c > 0$ . This bound (1) was sharpened in various ways: Davenport and Rogers improved the constant in [7], Ball used Bang's solution of Tarski's plank problem to obtain  $c = 2 - o(1)$  in [2], and Vance exploited quaternionic symmetries to improve  $c$  in certain dimensions [20]. Venkatesh developed a powerful random-lattice method with additional algebraic symmetries, proving that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\delta_n}{n \log \log n 2^{-n}} \geq \frac{1}{2},$$

see [21].

Non-lattice constructions have also been very successful: Krivelevich, Litsyn and Vardy used graph-theoretic ideas to obtain a non-lattice packing of density  $cn2^{-n}$  [10], and very recently Campos, Jenssen, Michelen and Sahasrabudhe improved this to density

$$\left(\frac{1}{2} - o(1)\right) n \log n 2^{-n}$$

using random graphs and the hard-core model [4]. Up to logarithmic factors, these works all lead to bounds of order  $n2^{-n}$ .

The main result of my talk is a polynomial improvement of the best known lower bound for *lattice* packings in high dimension.

**Theorem.** *There exists a universal constant  $c > 0$  such that, for all  $n \geq 2$ ,*

$$\delta_n \geq c n^2 2^{-n}.$$

By applying a linear map, this is equivalent to the following geometric statement: let  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a Euclidean ball centered at the origin with

$$(2) \quad \text{Vol}_n(K) = c n^2.$$

Then there exists a lattice  $L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of covolume one such that

$$L \cap K = \{0\}.$$

Equivalently, there is an origin-symmetric ellipsoid  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of volume  $cn^2$  with  $\mathcal{E} \cap \mathbb{Z}^n = \{0\}$ . We conjecture that the conclusion remains true for any origin-symmetric convex body  $K$  satisfying (2), and not only for Euclidean balls or ellipsoids; compare with earlier work of Schmidt under the weaker assumption  $\text{Vol}_n(K) \leq cn$  [18, 19].

There is a geometric heuristic behind the exponent 2. An origin-symmetric ellipsoid in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is specified by a positive-definite symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix, i.e. by about  $n(n+1)/2$  real parameters. One may therefore expect a "generic" ellipsoid to

interact with on the order of  $n^2$  lattice points. Indeed, it is not hard to construct an ellipsoid  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\mathcal{E} \cap \mathbb{Z}^n = \{0\}$  such that

$$\#(\partial\mathcal{E} \cap \mathbb{Z}^n) \geq n(n + 1),$$

where  $\partial\mathcal{E}$  is the boundary of  $\mathcal{E}$ . This is in sharp contrast with the proof of Rogers' bound (1), which relies on successive minima and an ellipsoid that essentially interacts with only  $n$  carefully chosen lattice vectors; see [8, 14, 17].

The proof combines random lattices and a Brownian-type stochastic evolution on the space of ellipsoids. We start from a random lattice  $L$  of covolume  $\text{Vol}_n(B^n)$ , distributed according to the natural  $SL_n(\mathbb{R})$ -invariant probability measure on unimodular lattices. This point of view goes back to Siegel's mean value theorem [12] and underlies much work on the probabilistic geometry of numbers; see also Schmidt's early probabilistic methods [17] and the recent perspectives in [11].

For a fixed lattice  $L$ , we construct a stochastic process of positive-definite symmetric matrices  $(A_t)_{t \geq 0}$  and consider the associated evolving ellipsoids

$$\mathcal{E}_t = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n; A_t x \cdot x < 1\}.$$

The key feature of our process is a *sticky boundary* rule: whenever  $\mathcal{E}_t$  first hits a new non-zero lattice point  $x_0 \in L$ , we impose the constraint

$$A_t x_0 \cdot x_0 = 1 \quad \text{for all later times } t \geq t_0,$$

where  $t_0$  is the hitting time of  $x_0$ . Each such event freezes one linear degree of freedom of  $A_t$ , and the process is then continued inside the corresponding affine subspace of the space of symmetric matrices. Since this space has dimension  $n(n + 1)/2$ , the evolution can absorb on the order of  $n^2$  lattice points (counted with symmetry) before it becomes rigid.

Heuristically, a typical random lattice of covolume  $\text{Vol}_n(B^n)$  behaves like a Poisson point process of intensity  $1/\text{Vol}_n(B^n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (the "Poisson heuristic"); see, for instance, [15, 11]. If the evolving ellipsoid must collect roughly  $n^2$  lattice points on its boundary before freezing, then one expects that it must sweep a region of total volume of order  $cn^2 \text{Vol}_n(B^n)$ . Perhaps, at some time, its volume is at least of this order while still remaining free of non-zero lattice points in its interior.

The main technical work consists in turning this heuristic into a rigorous argument. We construct the stochastic process  $(A_t)$  and obtain uniform control on quantities such as  $\log \det(A_t)$ , which governs the volume of  $\mathcal{E}_t$ . We analyze the rate at which new lattice points are absorbed, using quantitative incarnations of the Poisson heuristic and large-deviation estimates to rule out pathological scenarios. We integrate these estimates over the space of lattices using Siegel's mean value formula and related tools, in the spirit of [1, 14, 17]. This yields a positive probability that a random lattice admits an ellipsoid of volume at least  $cn^2 \text{Vol}_n(B^n)$  with no non-zero lattice points inside, which is equivalent to the desired lower bound  $\delta_n \geq cn^2 2^{-n}$ .

From a broader perspective, our result fits with the conjectural picture, suggested for instance by Venkatesh [21], that  $2^n \delta_n$  should grow at most polynomially in  $n$ . It suggests that  $n^2 2^{-n}$  might be the correct order of magnitude (up to constants or logarithmic factors) for the optimal density of high-dimensional lattice packings. On the other hand, the best known upper bounds, due to Kabatjanskiĭ and Levenšteĭn [9] and their refinements by Cohn–Zhao and Sardari–Zargar [6, 16], show that  $\delta_n \lesssim (0.66)^n$ , and the precise asymptotic behavior of  $\delta_n$  remains wide open; see also the survey [5] for the special low-dimensional cases where the optimal density is known.

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**Distance between non-symmetric bodies: optimal bounds  
up to polylog**

PIERRE BIZEUL

(joint work with Boaz Klartag)

The Banach–Mazur distance provides a quantitative way to compare convex bodies in high dimension up to affine transformations. Given two convex bodies  $K, L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  with non-empty interior, their Banach–Mazur distance is defined as

$$d_{BM}(K, L) = \inf \left\{ \lambda > 0 : T_1 K \subset T_2 L \subset \lambda T_1 K \right\},$$

where  $T_1, T_2$  range over invertible affine maps of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Equivalently, after suitable affine changes of coordinates, the norms induced by the two bodies are comparable up to a multiplicative factor  $\lambda$ . The logarithm of  $d_{BM}$  defines a genuine metric, and understanding its extremal behavior is a central problem in asymptotic convex geometry.

A fundamental question is to determine the *diameter of the Banach–Mazur compactum*, that is, the maximal possible distance between two convex bodies in dimension  $n$ .

**The symmetric case.** When  $K$  and  $L$  are centrally symmetric, the picture is well understood. John’s theorem [3] asserts that any symmetric convex body  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  admits an ellipsoid  $\mathcal{E}$  such that

$$\mathcal{E} \subset K \subset \sqrt{n} \mathcal{E}.$$

This immediately implies

$$d_{BM}(K, B_2) \leq \sqrt{n} \quad \text{and hence} \quad d_{BM}(K, L) \leq n$$

for any symmetric convex bodies  $K, L$ .

This upper bound is essentially optimal. A probabilistic construction due to Gluskin [1] shows that for suitable random symmetric polytopes  $P_N$ , with  $N = 6n$  vertices,

$$d_{BM}(P_N, P'_N) \geq cn$$

with high probability. As a consequence, the diameter of the symmetric Banach–Mazur compactum is of order  $n$ .

**The non-symmetric case.** Without symmetry, the situation is more delicate. John's theorem yields a much weaker inclusion

$$\mathcal{E} \subset K \subset n\mathcal{E},$$

which leads to the crude bound

$$d_{BM}(K, L) \leq n^2$$

for arbitrary convex bodies  $K, L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . The example of the simplex shows that John's estimate is tight. In fact, for any symmetric convex body  $K$  and any non-degenerate simplex  $\Delta$ ,

$$d_{BM}(K, \Delta) = n.$$

Despite many contributions, the gap between the lower and upper bounds persisted until a substantial improvement by Rudelson [5], who proved an upper bound of order  $n^{4/3}$  up to logarithmic factors.

**Main result.** In joint work with Boaz Klartag, we prove the following result.

**Theorem 1.** *For any convex bodies  $K, L \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,*

$$d_{BM}(K, L) \leq C n \log^4 n,$$

where  $C > 0$  is a universal constant.

Up to the logarithmic factor this estimate is optimal and matches the diameter of the symmetric Banach–Mazur compactum.

The proof uses the probabilistic method : the bound is attained when both bodies are placed in a randomly rotated isotropic position. Recall that a convex body  $K$  is said to be isotropic if a random vector uniformly distributed on  $K$  has zero mean and identity covariance matrix. Isotropy is preserved under orthogonal transformations, making it natural to introduce randomness via rotations.

**Mean norm bounds and the probabilistic method.** The main ingredient needed in the proof is a quantitative control on certain classical geometric parameters of convex bodies. In particular, the argument reduces to bounding two fundamental quantities: the *mean norm* and the *mean width*.

For a convex body  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , these are defined by

$$M(K) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} \|x\|_K d\sigma(x), \quad M^*(K) = M(K^\circ) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} h_K(x) d\sigma(x),$$

where  $K^\circ$  denotes the polar body and  $h_K$  its support function. Both quantities are ubiquitous in convex geometry, especially in the study of sections and projections of convex bodies. Furthermore they are dual to one another : when the body is a euclidean ball, its mean width is its radius while its mean norm is the inverse of its radius. More generally, the product  $MM^*(K)$  is always greater than 1 and is scaling invariant. It may be thought of as a measure of how round is  $K$  in some average sense.

A fundamental result of Pisier [7] asserts that if  $K$  is symmetric, there exists a linear transformation  $T$  such that  $MM^*(TK)$  is at most logarithmic in the

dimension. It was a long standing open problem to provide a similar result in the nonsymmetric case, where Pisier’s argument is known to fail.

A result of E. Milman [4] asserts that if  $K$  is in isotropic position, then

$$M^*(K) \leq C\sqrt{n} \log^2 n,$$

which is optimal up to the power of the log. In our work, we complement this estimate with a new, almost optimal bound for the mean norm, improving on previous works [2, 8].

**Theorem 2.** *If  $K$  is a convex body in isotropic position, then*

$$M(K) \leq \frac{C \log n}{\sqrt{n}},$$

for some universal constant  $C > 0$ .

Furthermore, assuming the KLS conjecture, our estimate improves to

$$M(K) \leq \frac{C\sqrt{\log n}}{\sqrt{n}},$$

which is optimal up to the universal constant  $C$ , as witnessed by the cube.

Together, the bounds on  $M(K)$  and  $M^*(K)$  allow one to control the effect of random rotations on isotropic convex bodies and lead to the stated upper bound on the Banach–Mazur distance.

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## Heat flow with Wentzell boundary condition: Functional inequalities and gradient flow structure

MARIE BORMANN

(joint work with Léonard Monsaingeon, Michiel Renger, Max von Renesse, Feng-Yu Wang)

Let  $\Omega$  be a smooth compact connected Riemannian manifold of dimension  $d \geq 2$  with smooth connected boundary  $\partial\Omega$ . We consider the semigroup on  $C(\Omega)$  induced from the Feller generator  $(\mathcal{D}(L), L)$  given by

$$\mathcal{D}(L) = \{f \in C(\Omega) \mid Lf \in C(\Omega)\},$$

$$Lf = (\Delta f) \mathbf{1}_{\Omega^\circ} + \left( -\beta \frac{\partial f}{\partial N} + \delta \Delta^\tau f \right) \mathbf{1}_{\partial\Omega},$$

where  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial N}$  is the outer normal derivative,  $\Delta^\tau$  is the Laplace-Beltrami operator on  $\partial\Omega$ ,  $\delta \geq 0$  and  $\beta > 0$ . The induced Markov process is a diffusion on  $\Omega$  which performs Brownian motion in the interior while its boundary behaviour consists of Brownian motion with speed according to  $\delta$  along the boundary as well as sticky reflection back into the interior with intensity  $\beta$ . Stickiness refers to the fact that the process sojourns at the boundary. The case  $\delta = 0$  corresponds to pure sticky reflection without diffusion along the boundary. This boundary behaviour is a special case of the setting in [8] and fundamentally differs from simple reflection or killing at the boundary. The unique symmetric and invariant measure  $\mu$  is a convex combination of the normalised volume measure on  $\Omega$  and the normalised Hausdorff measure on  $\partial\Omega$  depending on the value of the parameter  $\beta$ .

In the first part of the talk we discuss upper bounds for the Poincaré and logarithmic Sobolev constants  $(C, D)$  for Brownian motion with sticky-reflecting boundary diffusion in terms of the geometry of the manifold and its boundary and the Neumann Poincaré and logarithmic Sobolev constants  $(C_\Omega, D_\Omega)$ , the Sobolev-Poincaré constants on  $\Omega$   $(C_{p,q})$  as well as the Poincaré and logarithmic Sobolev constants on  $\partial\Omega$   $(C_{\partial\Omega}, D_{\partial\Omega})$  as shown in [1]:

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $k_1, k_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that*

$$\text{Ric} \geq (d-1)k_1, \text{ sect} \leq k_2 \text{ and } \gamma_1 \text{id} \leq \mathbb{I} \leq \gamma_2 \text{id}.$$

*Then for any  $\beta > 0$  and  $\delta \geq 0$*

$$C \leq C(\beta, \delta, k_1, k_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, d, C_\Omega, C_{\partial\Omega}, |\Omega|, |\partial\Omega|),$$

$$D \leq D(\beta, \delta, k_1, k_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, d, C_\Omega, C_{\partial\Omega}, L_\Omega, L_{\partial\Omega}, C_{p,2}, |\Omega|, |\partial\Omega|).$$

*where the expressions on the right-hand side can be written out explicitly.*

To illustrate the results we consider unit balls in the Euclidean and hyperbolic plane. The proofs are based on an interpolation approach that has first been used in [7] for the Poincaré inequality and which we have additionally extended for the logarithmic Sobolev inequality here. In both cases the interpolation approach combines classical functional inequalities for the (Neumann) Laplacian on  $\Omega$  or  $\partial\Omega$  with energy interactions between the boundary and the interior of the manifold.

The geometry of the manifold enters quantitatively via the use of the Laplacian comparison theorem for the distance to the boundary function. The problem of bounding  $C$  and  $D$  is connected to finding a lower bound on the first non-trivial Steklov eigenvalue and an upper bound on the norm of the Sobolev trace operator.

The Poincaré inequality in this setting was previously studied in [7] for the special case of positive Ricci curvature and convex boundary. Extensions to the doubly weighted case and to super and weak Poincaré inequalities using similar techniques as mentioned above as well as Cheeger-type inequalities can be found in [3, 9] and [4].

In the second part of the talk we consider the Fokker-Planck equation associated with Brownian motion with sticky-reflecting boundary diffusion where for simplicity we set  $\beta = 1$  and consider a subset  $\Omega$  of Euclidean space with properties as before:

$$(1) \quad \begin{cases} \dot{\omega}_t = \Delta\omega & \text{in } \Omega^\circ, \\ \omega = \gamma & \text{on } \partial\Omega, \\ \dot{\gamma}_t = \delta\Delta^\tau\gamma - \partial_N\omega & \text{on } \partial\Omega. \end{cases}$$

Here we have decomposed measures on  $\Omega$  in interior/boundary part

$$\rho = \omega + \gamma \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega) \text{ with } \begin{cases} \omega = \rho|_{\Omega^\circ}, \\ \gamma = \rho|_{\partial\Omega}. \end{cases}$$

We discuss here whether equation (1) may be interpreted as a gradient flow equation, where notions of gradient flow may include Otto’s calculus, generalised minimising movement schemes/JKO gradient flows or curves of maximal slope.

In [5] equation (1) has been identified as a gradient flow wrt. the  $\mu$ -relative entropy  $Ent_\mu$  and the quadratic Wasserstein distance  $\mathcal{W}$  for  $\delta = 1$ . Furthermore, it has been conjectured that an analogous result holds when the boundary diffusion is sped up ( $\delta > 1$ ) with the same driving functional but using a Wasserstein metric wrt. a different cost function  $\mathcal{W}_{c_\delta}$ . In this talk we consider the case of slow boundary diffusion  $\delta \in (0, 1)$ . We introduce the notion of Cheeger regular space as metric measure spaces  $(\Omega, d, \mu)$  for which the Cheeger energy is a ‘nice’ Dirichlet form which fulfills an integrated Varadhan formula (see [6]) based on the metric  $d$ . Using this notion one may show [2]:

**Theorem 2.** *For any  $\delta > 0$  (1) can be identified as a Wasserstein gradient flow via Otto’s calculus. But for  $\delta \in (0, 1)$  there is no metric  $d$  on  $\Omega$  inducing the Euclidean topology such that*

- $(\Omega, d, \mu)$  is a Cheeger-regular space and
- equation (1) can be interpreted as the JKO gradient flow of  $Ent_\mu$  wrt.  $\mathcal{W}_d$ .

This result can be of interest as it indicates that the different notions of gradient flow might not be equivalent.

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## Examples of Kato's limits

GILLES CARRON

(joint work with Ilaria Mondello and David Tewodrose)

## 1. KATO'S CONDITION FOR THE RICCI CURVATURE

When  $(M^n, g)$  is a complete Riemannian manifold, we introduce the function

$$\text{Ric}_- : M \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

so that

$$\forall x \in M : \text{Ricci}_x \geq -\text{Ric}_-(x)g_x \text{ in the sense of quadratic form,}$$

and the **Kato constant** of  $(M^n, g)$  at times  $T$  defined as follow

$$K_T(M, g) = \sup_{x \in M} \int_0^T (e^{-t\Delta_g} \text{Ric}_-)(x) ds.$$

Where  $\{e^{-t\Delta_g}\}_{t \geq 0}$  is the heat flow of  $(M^n, g)$ , that is to say for every  $u \in L^2(M, dv_g)$  the curve of function  $t \mapsto u_t = e^{-t\Delta_g}(u)$  solves the evolution equation:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} u_t + \Delta_g u_t = 0 & \text{on } ]0, +\infty[ \times M, \\ u_{t=0} = u & \text{on } M. \end{cases}$$

Noticed our convention for the Laplace operator is that in local coordinates  $g = \sum_{i,j} g_{i,j} dx_i dx_j$ ,

$$\Delta_g = - \sum_{i,j} g^{i,j} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \sum_i (\Delta_g x_i) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}.$$

The Kato constant enables to control solution or sub-solution of the Schrödinger equation

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + \Delta_g v - \text{Ric}_- v = 0$$

and using the Bochner formula, we have the following result:

Assume that for some  $T > 0 : K_T(M, g) < 1$  and define  $\lambda > 0$  by  $K_T(M, g) = 1 - e^{-\lambda T}$ , then

$$\forall f \in Lip(M) : \|de^{-t\Delta_g}(f)\|_\infty \leq e^{\lambda T + \lambda t} \|df\|_\infty .$$

**Comments:**

- As far as I know, the Kato condition for the Ricci curvature appears for the first times in a paper of B. Güneysu and D. Pallara [7].
- In the Euclidean setting, Kato potentials are non negative  $V \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  such that

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \int_0^T (e^{-t\Delta} V)(x) ds = 0$$

and this condition yields Hölder regularity for solution of the equation

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + \Delta v - Vv = 0$$

and also Harnack inequality for positive solution of this Schrödinger equation [1].

**Some estimates of the Kato constant:**

- If the Ricci curvature is uniformly bounded from below :  $\text{Ricci} \geq -\kappa^2 g$  then for any  $T > 0 : K_T(M, g) \leq \kappa^2 T$ .
- [11] If  $\text{Ric}_- \in L^p, p > n/2$  and if  $(M, g)$  satisfies the Sobolev inequality:

$$\forall u \in C^1_c(M) : \|u\|_{\frac{2n}{n-2}} \leq A (\|du\|_2 + \|u\|_2)$$

then for any  $T \in (0, 1) : K_T(M, g) \leq C(p, n, A) T^{1 - \frac{n}{2p}}$ .

- [2] If the  $\mathbf{Q}_g$ -curvature<sup>1</sup> of  $(M, g)$  is uniformly bounded from below :  $\mathbf{Q}_g \geq -\kappa^4$  and the scalar curvature is uniformly bounded  $|\text{Scal}_g| \leq \kappa^2$ , then for any  $T \in (0, \kappa^{-2}) : K_T(M, g) \leq C(n, \kappa) \sqrt{T}$ .

2. LINKS WITH THE BAKRY-EMERY CONDITION AND RCD SPACES

A general intuition is that when some  $T > 0$  the Kato constant at times  $T$  is small then the geometry looks like a one with Ricci curvature uniformly bounded from below  $\sim -1/T$ . The following result makes this intuition precise:

**Theorem:** [4] Assume that

$$K_T(M, g) \leq \frac{1}{3(n-2)}$$

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<sup>1</sup>it is a fourth order expression on the metric  $g$ :

$$\mathbf{Q}_g = a_n \Delta_g \text{Scal}_g - b_n |\text{Ricci}|^2 + c_n |\text{Scal}_g|^2$$

where  $a_n, b_n, c_n$  are positive explicit constants depending only on the dimension.

then there is a bounded  $\mathcal{C}^2$ -function  $f$  such that  $\|f\|_\infty \leq 4K_T(M, g)$  and such that the weighted Riemannian manifold  $(M, e^{2f}g, e^{2f}dv_g)$  satisfies the Bakry-Emery curvature condition  $BE(-4K_T(M, g)/T, N)$  where  $N = n + 4(n - 2)^2K_T(M, g)$ . In particular  $(M, e^{2f}g, e^{2f}dv_g)$  is a  $RCD(-4K_T(M, g)/T, N)$  space.

**Remarks:**

- The result holds in dimension 2 provided that the Kato constant at times  $T$  is finite.
- The transformation  $(M, g, dv_g) \rightarrow (M, e^{2f}g, e^{2f}dv_g)$  is called time changed, in dimension 2 it is a conformal deformation of the metric. The Laplacian of the weighted Riemannian manifold  $(M, e^{2f}g, e^{2f}dv_g)$  is  $e^{-2f}\Delta_g$  in particular this transformation preserves harmonic function. The name time changed comes from the fact that the Brownian motion associated to both spaces follows the same trajectories (hence are the same up to reparametrization). It turns out that under time changed the Bakry-Emery curvature behave nicely : it does not depend on the Hessian of  $f$  but only to the gradient and the Laplacian of  $f$  [12, 8].
- This result together with  $RCD$  theory implies a precompactness result in the pointed Gromov-Hausdorff topology and also provides some structure of limits of sequence of manifold with a uniform bound on the Kato constant.

3. NON COLLAPSED STRONG KATO LIMITS

Recall that a sequence of pointed metric spaces  $(X_\ell, d_\ell, o_\ell)$  is said to converge to a pointed metric space  $(X_\infty, d_\infty, o_\infty)$  in the pointed Gromov-Hausdorff topology, if for any  $R > 0$  there are maps  $\Phi_\ell: B(o_\ell, R) \rightarrow B(o_\infty, R)$  and  $\varepsilon_\ell(R) > 0$  with

$$\lim_{\ell \rightarrow \infty} \varepsilon_\ell(R) = 0$$

(but not necessary uniformly with  $R$ ) such that

- $\forall x \in B(o_\infty, R), \exists x_\ell \in B(o_\ell, R) : d_\infty(x, x_\ell) \leq \varepsilon_\ell(R),$
- $\forall x, y \in B(o_\ell, R) : |d_\ell(x, y) - d_\infty(\Phi_\ell(x), \Phi_\ell(y))| \leq \varepsilon_\ell(R).$

**Theorem:** [3] Let  $v > 0$  and  $T > 0$  and let  $f: (0, T] \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  non decreasing such that  $\int_0^T f(t) \frac{dt}{t} < \infty$ . Assume that  $\{(M_\ell, g_\ell, o_\ell)\}_\ell$  is a sequence of complete Riemannian manifold such that

- $\forall \ell, \forall t \in (0, T]: K_t(M_\ell, g_\ell) \leq f(t),$
- $\forall \ell: vol_{g_\ell} B(o_\ell, \sqrt{T}) \geq vT^{\frac{n}{2}}.$

Then up to extraction of subsequences, the sequence  $\{(M_\ell, d_{g_\ell}, o_\ell)\}_\ell$  converges to a pointed metric space  $(X_\infty, d_\infty, o_\infty)$  the pointed Gromov-Hausdorff topology and moreover

- the Riemannian measure  $dv_{g_\ell}$  converges to the  $n$ -dimensional Hausdorff measure of  $(X_\infty, d_\infty)$ .
- the Laplacian  $\Delta_{g_\ell}$  converges in the Mosco sense to the Laplacian associated to the Cheeger energy of  $(X_\infty, d_\infty, d\mathcal{H}^n)$ .

Our results extends the one Cheeger and Colding [6] in the case where there is a uniform lower bound on the Ricci curvature or of Petersen and Wei [9, 10] when we have a suitable  $L^p, p > n/2$  bound on  $\text{Ric}_-$ .

#### 4. CONSTRUCTION OF EXAMPLES IN 2D

The following result produce many examples of such Gromov-Hausdorff limits of smooth surface with uniform Kato bounds.

**Theorem:** [5] *Let  $(M^2, g_0)$  be a complete Riemannian surface with bounded curvature:*

$$|K_{g_0}| \leq \kappa^2.$$

And let  $f \in \text{Lip}(M)$  such that

$$\|f\|_\infty \leq L \text{ and } \text{Lip} f \leq \Lambda \text{ and } \Delta_{g_0} f \leq M \text{ weakly.}$$

Then we can find  $f_\ell \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$  such that fixing  $o \in M$  we have that the sequence  $(M^2, g_\ell = e^{2f_\ell} g_0, o)$  converges to  $(M^2, e^{2f} g_0, o)$  in the pointed Gromov-Hausdorff topology and such that for some positive  $a > 0$

- $\forall \ell, \forall t \in (0, 1]: K_t(M_\ell, g_\ell) \leq C(\kappa, L, \lambda, M)\sqrt{t}.$
- $\forall \ell: \text{Aera}_{g_\ell}(B_{g_\ell}(o, 1)) \geq a.$

The following two examples are produced by this theorem:

- Consider two Euclidean copies of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathbb{D}^2$  glued along their boundaries, where  $\mathbb{D}^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ , we obtain the cylinder  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{S}^1$  endowed with the metric  $dr^2 + (1 + |r|)^2 d\theta^2.$
- Let two copies of  $\mathbb{S}^2 \setminus \mathbb{D}_\alpha^2$  be glued together along their boundaries, where  $\mathbb{D}_\alpha^2$  is a geodesic ball of radius  $\alpha \in (0, \pi/2)$  for the rounded metric.

**Remarks:**

- (1) It should be noticed that in the above theorem, at any point  $p \in M^2$  the tangent cone at  $p$  of  $(M^2, e^{2f} g_0)$  is the Euclidean plane, hence from the geometric measure point of view every point in  $(M^2, e^{2f} g_0)$  is regular.
- (2) We have shown that the above example are not Gromov-Hausdorff limits of smooth surface with uniform lower bound on the Gaussian curvature and that the second example is not a Gromov-Hausdorff limits of smooth surface with uniform  $L^{p>1}$  bound on the negative part of the Gaussian curvature.
- (3) From the PDE regularity theory point of view, our examples can be understood as follow : intuitively asking for the Ricci curvature to be uniformly bounded implies that the Laplacian of the metric is bounded, hence this yields  $W^{2,p}$  estimate on the metric. But asking for the Ricci curvature to be uniformly bounded in some Kato class, implies that the Ricci curvature is the Laplacian of a continuous functions, hence that the Laplacian of the metric is the Laplacian of a continuous functions hence we could not hope to get better that  $\mathcal{C}^0$  estimate on the metric for Kato limits.

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## Periodic and Stochastic Quantitative Homogenization for Non-Local Operators

TAKASHI KUMAGAI

(joint work with Xin Chen, Zhen-Qing Chen and Jian Wang)

We summarize our recent results on periodic and stochastic quantitative homogenization for non-local operators.

**Periodic case.** Let us first discuss the periodic case. In this case, qualitative homogenization for rather general non-symmetric Lévy-type processes has been obtained in [2] (see the references in the paper for related works). In the following, we discuss quantitative homogenization based on [6]. Consider

$$\mathcal{L}f(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(y) - f(x)) \frac{K(x, y)}{|x - y|^{d+\alpha}} dy, \quad f \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R}^d),$$

where  $\alpha \in (0, 2)$ , and  $K \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d)$  is a multivariate 1-periodic function such that

$$K(x, y) = K(y, x) \quad \text{and} \quad c_1 \leq K(x, y) \leq c_2 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Then, there exists unique strong Feller process  $X := \{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  (in fact on  $\mathbb{T}^d$ ) associated with  $\mathcal{L}$ . Next, for each  $\varepsilon > 0$ , define a scaled process by  $X_t^\varepsilon = \varepsilon X_{\varepsilon^{-\alpha}t}$ .

The associated generator can be written as

$$\mathcal{L}_\varepsilon f(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(y) - f(x)) \frac{K(x/\varepsilon, y/\varepsilon)}{|x - y|^{d+\alpha}} dy.$$

In this case, one can prove (which is also a very special case of the results in [2]) that  $\{X^\varepsilon\}$  converges weakly to  $\bar{X} := (\bar{X}_t)_{t \geq 0}$  that has the generator as follows,

$$\bar{\mathcal{L}}f(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(y) - f(x)) \frac{\bar{K}}{|y - x|^{d+\alpha}} dy, \quad \bar{K} := \int_{\mathbb{T}^d} \int_{\mathbb{T}^d} K(x, y) dx dy.$$

We consider quantitative homogenization for this model where the process is on a bounded domain  $D$  with a  $C^{1,1}$  boundary. Let  $h \in C(\bar{D})$  be in some function space whose elements are suitably smooth inside  $D$  (see [6] for precise definition of the function space), and let  $u_\varepsilon$  and  $\bar{u}$  be solutions of

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{L}_\varepsilon u_\varepsilon(x) = h(x), & x \in D, \\ u_\varepsilon(x) = 0, & x \in D^c, \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} \bar{\mathcal{L}}\bar{u}(x) = h(x), & x \in D, \\ \bar{u}(x) = 0, & x \in D^c. \end{cases}$$

Namely,

$$u_\varepsilon(x) = \mathbb{E}_x \int_0^{\tau_D} h(X_s^\varepsilon) ds, \quad u(x) = \mathbb{E}_x \int_0^{\tau_D} h(\bar{X}_s) ds.$$

The following are our results on the quantitative homogenization.

**Theorem 1.** ([6]) (i) *There exists  $C_0 > 0$  such that the following holds for all  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ ;*

$$\|u_\varepsilon - \bar{u}\|_{L^1(D; dx)} \leq C_0 \begin{cases} \varepsilon^{\alpha/2}, & \alpha \in (0, 1), \\ \varepsilon^{1/2}(1 + |\log \varepsilon|^2), & \alpha = 1, \\ \varepsilon^{(2-\alpha)/2}, & \alpha \in (1, 2). \end{cases}$$

(ii) *If  $\bar{u} \in C_c^2(D)$ , then there exists  $C_0 > 0$  such that the following holds for all  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ ;*

$$\|u_\varepsilon - \bar{u}\|_{L^2(D; dx)} \leq C_0 \begin{cases} \varepsilon^\alpha, & \alpha \in (0, 1), \\ \varepsilon(1 + |\log \varepsilon|^2), & \alpha = 1, \\ \varepsilon^{2-\alpha}, & \alpha \in (1, 2). \end{cases}$$

We note that for the case of *i.i.d.* random variables in the domain of attraction for stable distributions, Banis [1] obtained the convergence rate of the generalized CLT with the rate  $n^{-1/\alpha}$  when  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$  and  $n^{1-2/\alpha}$  when  $\alpha \in (1, 2)$ . Since  $\varepsilon = n^{-1/\alpha}$ , our homogenization rate in (ii) for  $\alpha \in (1, 2)$  is optimal. While we do not know the optimality of the case (i), our result indicates that the boundary decay behaviors of the solution to the equation in the limit affects the convergence rate in the homogenization.

**Stochastic case.** We next discuss stochastic homogenization. In this case, qualitative homogenization has been obtained in [9, 3] (also in [4] for a class of balanced

random environments). In the following, we discuss quantitative homogenization based on [5].

**Assumption (H)** Let  $\{w_{x,y} : (x,y) \in E\}$  be *i.i.d.* with  $\mathbb{E}[w_{x,y}] = 1$ , and there exists a non-random constant  $C_1 > 0$  such that  $w_{x,y} \leq C_1$ ,  $\mathbb{P}$ -a.s.

We note that under the above assumption,  $w_{x,y}$  may be degenerate. Also, note that we can relax the upper bound of (H) to a moment condition, although this may result in a slower rate of convergence.

Now, for fixed  $f \in C_b(\mathbb{R}^d) \cap L^2(\mathbb{R}^d; dx)$ , let  $\bar{u} \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$  be the solution of  $\lambda \bar{u}(x) + (-\Delta)^{\alpha/2} \bar{u}(x) = f(x)$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , and  $u_k : k^{-1}\mathbb{Z}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the solution of

$$\lambda u_k^\omega(x) - \mathcal{L}^{(k),\omega} u_k^\omega(x) = f(x), x \in k^{-1}\mathbb{Z}^d,$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}^{(k),\omega} u_k^\omega(x) := \sum_{z \in k^{-1}\mathbb{Z}^d} (u_k(x+z) - u_k(x)) \frac{w_{kx,k(x+z)}}{|z|^{d+\alpha}} k^{-d}.$$

Note that we can extend  $u_k$  to  $u_k : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  naturally. Our results for quantitative stochastic homogenization are as follows.

**Theorem 2.** ([5]) *Suppose  $d > \alpha$ . Under Assumption (H), let  $u_k, \bar{u}$  be the solutions above. Then, there exists  $C_0 > 0$  (depends on  $f$  and  $\lambda$ ) and  $k_0(\omega) \geq 1$  (which only depends on  $\lambda$ ) such that the following holds for all  $k > k_0(\omega)$ ;*

$$\|u_k^\omega - \bar{u}\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^d, dx)} \leq C_0 \begin{cases} \min \left\{ k^{-\alpha/2} \log^\delta k, k^{-((1-\alpha) \wedge (d/2))} \log^{1/2} k \right\}, & \alpha \in (0, 1), \\ k^{-1/2} \log k \log^\delta k, & \alpha = 1, \\ k^{-(2-\alpha)/2} \log^\delta k, & \alpha \in (1, 2), \end{cases}$$

where  $\delta$  depends on  $d$  and  $\alpha$ .

We note that unlike the periodic case, in this case there is no global corrector, due to the lack of  $L^2$ -integrability. While we do not know the optimality of the estimates, one reason that the convergence rate  $k^{-(2-\alpha)/2}$  for  $\alpha \in (1, 2)$  might be reasonable is the following. Consider the  $H^{-\alpha/2}$  norm of the truncated potential  $V_k^\omega(x) := \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^d: |z| \leq k} w_{x,x+z}(\omega) |z|^{-d-\alpha}$ ; then it satisfies

$$\|V_k^\omega\|_{H^{-\alpha/2}}^2 \simeq \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^d: |z| \leq k} |z|^2 |z|^{-d-\alpha} \simeq k^{2-\alpha}.$$

This blow up rate of  $\|V_k^\omega\|_{H^{-\alpha/2}}$  would slow down the convergence rate from  $k^{-(2-\alpha)}$  into  $k^{-(2-\alpha)/2}$ . (Note that for the nearest neighbour case, the limit of  $\|V_k^\omega\|_{H^{-\alpha/2}}$  exists and is finite.)

Finally, we announce that quite recently quantitative homogenization on time-dependent long-range random conductance models has been established ([7]).

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## Long range random walks on groups with polynomial volume growth

LAURENT SALOFF-COSTE

(joint work with Z.-Q. Chen, T. Kumagai, J. Wang, R. Zhang, T. Zheng)

### 1. STABILITY

**1.1. Stability in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .** In  $\mathbb{R}$ , a stable process is a Lévy process (independent, stationary increments) that is also self-similar (has a time-space scaling invariance property). These processes are attractors (potential limits) for proper rescaling schemes. In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the same concepts involve operator rescaling and operator stability: Instead of dilations families of the basic type  $\delta_t : x \mapsto t^{1/\alpha}x$ , operator stability involves groups of linear diffeomorphisms of the form  $\delta_t = t^B = e^{\log(t)B}$  where the exponent  $B$  is a linear invertible map with some additional properties. We refer the reader to [5] which contains a vector space case overview and extensions to the case of non-commutative groups together with a thorough bibliography.

**1.2. Stability on groups.** G. Hunt and others established the theory of Lévy processes on Lie groups around 1960. The extension of operator stability for Lévy processes on groups is much more recent. see the references in [5]. The existence of contractive (or expanding) group isomorphisms is a very restrictive condition. Among all simply connected real Lie groups only certain nilpotent groups admit such group isomorphisms and the nature of such contractive isomorphisms, when they exist, is restricted by the bracket structure of the Lie algebra. On the group

of matrices  $g = (x, y, z) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & z \\ 0 & 1 & y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\delta_t(g) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t^{1/\alpha_1}x & t^{1/\alpha_3}z \\ 0 & 1 & t^{1/\alpha_2}y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is a group of group isomorphism if and only if  $1/\alpha_1 + 1/\alpha_2 = 1/\alpha_3$ .

**1.3. Group dilations and approximate group dilations.** On a simply connected nilpotent Lie group  $G$ , call group dilations any family of group isomorphisms  $\{\delta_t, t > 0\}$  such that  $\delta_t\delta_s = \delta_{ts}$  and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \delta_t(g) = e$  uniformly over any compact set. Call *approximate group dilations* on  $G$  any family of diffeomorphisms  $\{\delta_t, t > 0\}$  such that  $\delta_t\delta_s = \delta_{ts}$  and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \delta_t(g) = e$  uniformly over any compact set with the property that for any  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ ,  $\delta_t^{-1}(\delta_t(g_1)\delta_t(g_2))$  and  $\delta_t^{-1}[(\delta_t(g_1))^{-1}]$  have uniform limits on compact sets when  $t$  tends to infinity. When this is the case, these limits define a **new** Lie group structure  $G_\infty$  on the set  $G$ .

2. EXAMPLES OF STABLE LIKE RANDOM WALKS

In this section, we simply describe different ways to define random walks on finitely generated nilpotent groups that one would expect to have a stable-like behaviors. For details see [3, 4, 6, 7].

**2.1. Word-length stable like measures.** Given a symmetric set of generators of a group  $H$ , consider the associated word length  $|\cdot|$  and growth function  $V(r) = \#\{g \in H : |g| \leq r\}$ . If  $V(r) \asymp r^d$ ,  $r \geq 1$ , then any symmetric probability measure  $\nu$  such that  $\nu(g) \asymp (1 + |g|)^{-\alpha-d}$ ,  $\alpha \in (0, 2)$ , is a stable stable-like candidate.

**2.2. 1d-singular measures.** On the same group  $H$  as in the previous example, given a tuple of generators  $S = (s_1, \dots, s_k)$  and a tuple of exponents  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$  consider the symmetric probability measure supported on the union of the one-parameter groups  $\langle s_i \rangle$  given by

$$\nu_{S,\alpha}(g) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{c_\alpha}{(1 + |m|)^{1+\alpha_i}} \mathbf{1}_{s_i^m}(g).$$

**2.3. Multidimensional coordinate-wise stable-like measures.** On the nilpotent group  $H$ , fix a generating tuple  $S = (s_1, \dots, s_k)$  and the associated map  $\pi_S : \mathbb{Z}^k \rightarrow H$ ,  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \mapsto s_1^{x_1} \dots s_k^{x_k} \in H$ . This map need not be injective or surjective (despite the moniker ‘‘coordinate-wise’’ we use). Now, given any probability measure  $\psi$  on  $\mathbb{Z}^k$ , we consider its symmetric push-forward

$$\nu_{\pi_S, \psi}(g) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x: \pi_S(x) \in \{g, g^{-1}\}} \psi(x).$$

More specifically, we are interested in the case when

$$\psi_\alpha(x) = \frac{c}{(1 + \sum_{i=1}^k |x_i|^{\alpha_i})^{1 + \sum_1^k 1/\alpha_i}}, \alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k) \in (0, 2)^k.$$

In this case there exists  $\gamma \geq 0$  such that  $\nu_{\pi_S, \psi_\alpha}^{(n)}(e) \asymp n^{-\gamma}$ . See [6].

Finally, on a nilpotent group  $H$ , consider subgroups  $H_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq \ell$  with  $H = \langle H_1, \dots, H_\ell \rangle$ . On each  $H_i$ , pick a measure  $\mu_i$  of one of the type described above. Consider the set of all measures of the type  $\mu = \sum_i^\ell c_i \mu_i$ ,  $c_i > 0$ ,  $\sum_1^\ell c_i = 1$ .

**2.4. Associated geometries.** On the nilpotent group  $H$  equipped with a generating tuple  $S = (s_1, \dots, s_k)$  and a weight tuple  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, \dots, w_k)$ , set

$$\|g\|_{S, \mathbf{w}} = \min \left\{ \max_{1 \leq i \leq k} \{ [\text{deg}_i(\omega)]^{1/w_i} \} : \omega = g \right\}$$

where  $\omega = \omega_1 \dots \omega_m$  is a word over the formal alphabet  $\Sigma = \{s_1^{\pm 1}, \dots, s_k^{\pm 1}\}$  and  $\text{deg}_i(\omega) = \#\{j \in \{1, \dots, m\} : \omega_j \in \{s_i, s_i^{-1}\}\}$ . It is proved in [7] that, given any choice of  $S, \mathbf{w}$  on  $H$ , there exists a  $\gamma \geq 0$  such that  $\#\{g : \|g\|_{S, \mathbf{w}} \leq r\} \asymp r^\gamma$ , where  $\gamma$  is a function of the data  $S, \mathbf{w}$  and the algebraic structure of  $H$ .

In each of the examples of classes of measures discussed above, there is some rather natural way to associate a pair  $(S, \mathbf{w})$  to the given measure. For example, for measures of type 3.2 (1d-singular),  $S = (s_1, \dots, s_k)$  is given to us and the weight given to  $s_i$  is  $w_i = 1/\alpha_i$ . The same applies to measures of type 3.3 (coordinate-wise). In each case, we get a quasi-norm  $\|\cdot\|_\mu$  associated with the given symmetric probability measure  $\mu$ .

**2.5. Near diagonal estimates.** Referring to the classes of measures discussed above, let  $\mu$  and its associate quasi norm  $\|\cdot\|_\mu$  be given. Then for any fixed  $A > 0$  and all  $g$  such that  $\|g\|_\mu \leq An$ ,

$$(1) \quad \mu^{(n)}(g) \asymp n^{-\gamma}$$

where  $\#\{g : \|g\|_\mu \leq r\} \asymp r^\gamma$ . For details see [3, 4, 6, 7].

In work in progress with Ruoqi Zhang, it is proved that two measures  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  of our collection have equivalent Dirichlet forms if and only if their associated quasi-norms satisfy  $\|\cdot\|_{\mu_1} \asymp \|\cdot\|_{\mu_2}$ .

Extensions of these results to finitely generated groups of polynomial volume growth exists but require quite a bit of extra work and use in crucial ways the fact that any such group contains a nilpotent subgroup of finite index. See [3].

**2.6. Limit theorems.** Assume the finitely generated group  $H$  is torsion free and a co-compact lattice in the simply connected Lie group  $G$ . Under mild additional assumptions on the measure  $\mu$  in any of the family described above, there exists a approximate group dilation family  $\{\delta_t, t > 0\}$  defined on  $G$  such that, after rescaling using the family  $\delta_t$ , the random walk associated to  $\mu$  converges in the sense of functional limit theorems and local limit theorems to a  $\delta_t$ -stable Lévy process on the limit group  $G_\infty$ . See [4] for the treatment of some of our examples. Other examples are treated by the same method. In other words, any of the examples described above belong to the domain of attraction of a true stable Lévy process, but one must allow the group structure to change along the rescaling process. Extensions of such limit theorems to group of polynomial growths should be possible but require non-trivial additional ideas.

Limit theorems of this sort have been obtained earlier for diffusions in the work of Crépel and Raugi, Alexoploulos, Hough and Bénard and Breuillard. See [1, 2] for complete lists of references. In that case, the choice of approximate group dilations and the limit group  $G_\infty$  are somewhat canonical whereas in the stable like case the approximate group dilations and the limit group  $G_\infty$  have to be discovered based on the properties of the random walk measure  $\mu$ , see [4].

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## Strong Feller Regularisation of One-Dimensional Nonlinear Transport by Reflected Ornstein–Uhlenbeck Noise

MAX V. RENESSE

(joint work with Feng-Yu Wang, Alexander Weiss)

### 1. DETERMINISTIC NONLINEAR TRANSPORT

Let  $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R})$  denote the space of Borel probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}$  with finite second moment. We consider the nonlinear transport equation

$$(1) \quad \partial_t \mu_t = -\operatorname{div}(\mu_t b(\cdot, \mu_t)), \quad \mu_{t=0} = \mu,$$

where the drift  $b: \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  describes a smooth self-interaction. Typical examples are given by McKean–Vlasov-type interactions

$$b(u, \mu) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(u - v) \mu(dv), \quad h \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}).$$

In one spatial dimension, the equation admits a natural Lagrangian formulation in terms of inverse cumulative distribution functions. Writing  $F^\mu$  for the inverse

cdf of  $\mu$ , the measure-valued flow  $(\mu_t)_{t \geq 0}$  can be equivalently described by the  $L^2([0, 1])$ -valued evolution

$$(2) \quad \partial_t F_t = b(F_t, \mu_t), \quad \mu_t = \lambda \circ F_t^{-1}.$$

The monotonicity of  $F_t$  encodes positivity of the density of  $\mu_t$  and must be preserved under any admissible perturbation.

### 2. REGULAR MEASURES AND DERIVATIVE FORMULATION

Assuming sufficient regularity, we represent  $\mu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R})$  by the pair

$$g^\mu = (F^\mu)', \quad M^\mu = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x \mu(dx),$$

and introduce the space of regular measures

$$\mathcal{P}_2^1(\mathbb{R}) := \{ \mu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}) : F^\mu \in H^1((0, 1)) \}.$$

On  $\mathcal{P}_2^1(\mathbb{R})$  we use the metric

$$\rho^2(\mu, \nu) = |M^\mu - M^\nu|^2 + \|g^\mu - g^\nu\|_{L^2([0,1])}^2,$$

which dominates the quadratic Wasserstein distance locally and yields a convenient linear structure.

Differentiating (2) formally leads to a closed system for  $(g_t, M_t)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t g_t &= b'(A[g_t, M_t], \mu_t) g_t, \\ \partial_t M_t &= \int_0^1 b(A[g_t, M_t](x), \mu_t) g_t(x) dx, \end{aligned}$$

where  $A[g, M]$  reconstructs the quantile function from  $(g, M)$  via

$$A[(g, M)](u) := \int_0^1 \int_v^u g(r) dr dv + M, \quad u \in [0, 1].$$

Correspondingly, the measure associated to  $(g, M)$  is

$$\mu_t := \lambda \circ A[(g_t, M_t)]^{-1},$$

where  $\lambda$  denote the Lebesgue measure on  $[0, 1]$ .

### 3. STOCHASTIC PERTURBATION BY REFLECTED SPDES

To regularise the dynamics while preserving monotonicity, we perturb the system at the level of  $g_t$  by an infinite-dimensional Ornstein–Uhlenbeck noise with reflection at the boundary  $\{g = 0\}$ . This yields the reflected SPDE–SDE system

$$(3) \quad \begin{cases} dg_t = \Delta g_t dt + b'(A[g_t, M_t], \mu_t) g_t dt + dW_t + \eta_t, \\ dM_t = \int_0^1 b(A[g_t, M_t](x), \mu_t) g_t(x) dx dt + dB_t, \\ g_t \geq 0, \quad \langle \eta, g \rangle = 0, \end{cases}$$

where  $\Delta$  is the Dirichlet-Laplacian on  $(0, 1)$ ,  $W$  is a cylindrical Wiener process on  $L^2([0, 1])$ ,  $B$  an independent real Brownian motion, and  $\eta$  is the reflection measure enforcing positivity.

Under global Lipschitz and boundedness assumptions on  $b$  and  $b'$ , we prove well-posedness of (3) and obtain a Markov diffusion  $(\mu_t^\mu)_{t \geq 0}$  on  $\mathcal{P}_2^1(\mathbb{R})$ .

#### 4. QUANTITATIVE STRONG FELLER ESTIMATE

Our main result establishes a quantitative regularisation effect.

**Main result.** *For every  $T > 0$  and  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ , the Markov semigroup  $(P_T)_{T > 0}$  associated with (3) satisfies the entropy*

$$\text{Ent}(P_T(\cdot, \nu) | P_T(\cdot, \mu)) \leq H_{T, \theta}(\rho_{\mu, \nu}, \rho_\mu)$$

where  $\rho_{\mu, \nu} = \rho(\mu, \nu)$ ,  $\rho_\mu = \rho(\delta_{M^\mu}, \mu)$ , and for some constant  $C > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} & H_{T, \theta}(\rho_{\mu, \nu}, \rho_\mu) \\ &= C \left( \frac{1}{T \wedge 1} (\rho_{\mu, \nu}^2 + \rho_{\mu, \nu}^\theta + \rho_{\mu, \nu}) + (\rho_{\mu, \nu}^{1+\theta} + \rho_{\mu, \nu}^2) \right. \\ & \quad \left. + (1 + \rho_\mu^2)^{1+\theta} \left( \frac{T \wedge 1}{1 - \theta} \right)^\theta (\log(1 + \rho_{\mu, \nu}^{-1}))^{-\theta} \right). \end{aligned}$$

By Pinsker's inequality this implies the strong Feller property in quantitative form, i.e. continuity of  $\mu \mapsto P_T F(\mu)$  for bounded measurable  $F$ . The estimate highlights a Gaussian-type short-time behaviour together with logarithmic corrections inherent to the infinite-dimensional reflected setting.

#### 5. RELATION TO PREVIOUS WORK

The construction is inspired by recent breakthroughs on regularisation by noise for conservative measure-valued dynamics, notably the rearrangement-based approach of Delarue and Hammersley and its applications to mean-field games. Compared to these works, the explicit reflected SPDE formulation allows for a direct coupling argument and a transparent entropy estimate. Our results contribute to the emerging theory of stochastic regularisation on nonlinear state spaces of probability measures.

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**Quantitative positivity of transition densities for random perturbations of Hamiltonian systems**

DAVID P. HERZOG

(joint work with Shima Elesealy, Kyle Liss)

We present results from [2] concerning a class of diffusion processes arising from random perturbations of conservative Hamiltonian systems. Under a set of abstract hypotheses—including basic structural assumptions on the Hamiltonian, a weak Lyapunov structure, and a quantitative notion of hypoellipticity—we prove that transition densities satisfy a sharp, uniform pointwise lower bound over Hamiltonian sublevel sets in the small noise limit  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ . By applying our general theorem, we obtain quantitative minorization estimates for a variety of models including Langevin dynamics, chains of oscillators coupled to heat baths at different temperatures, and finite-dimensional fluid models such as stochastically forced Galerkin truncations of the Navier-Stokes equations and the Lorenz '96 system. As a corollary, assuming a stronger Lyapunov structure, our main result yields a sharp exponential rate of convergence to equilibrium for  $0 < \varepsilon \ll 1$  in a weighted total variation norm. A central feature of our approach is that it does not require knowledge of the explicit form of the invariant measure, nor even its existence, and hence is broadly applicable to deduce minorization for physically relevant systems where invariant measures are inaccessible. The work combines the analytical ideas of Bedrossian and Liss [1] with the probabilistic ideas of Meyn and Tweedie [3].

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**Modified gamma calculus for degenerate diffusions**

TAI MELCHER

(joint work with Fabrice Baudoin, Maria Gordina, David Herzog, Jina Kim, Donnelly Phillips)

The gamma calculus is a powerful tool for the analysis of semigroups and their associated diffusions. In particular, the celebrated Bakry-Émery inequality is known to imply a host of functional inequalities, including log Sobolev, Poincaré, and their “reverse” inequalities, whose optimal coefficients give geometric data about the space in which the diffusion lives. (Non-elliptic) Diffusions generated by collections of Hörmander vector fields are degenerate, in the sense that they can’t satisfy the classical Bakry-Émery inequality, but they are still expected to have nice properties as they have a strictly positive smooth density with respect to a

given reference measure. In this talk we discuss some recent results for modified gamma operators and inequalities for two classes of degenerate diffusions which represent model cases under strong and weak Hörmander conditions.

For the strong Hörmander condition, modified Bakry-Émery inequalities were first proposed by Baudoin, Bonnefont, and Garofalo in a series of work including [1]. These were applied in [3] to produce reverse log-Sobolev inequalities with dimension independent coefficients on infinite-dimensional Heisenberg groups with finite-dimensional centers, and we proved a Cameron-Martin-type quasi-invariance result for heat kernel measures on these spaces. More recently in [4] and forthcoming preprints, we give geometric interpretations of the coefficients appearing in these inequalities, one of which is an analytic quantification of the strong Hörmander condition. The strong Hörmander condition induces a natural geometry via the horizontal distance which is tied to the analysis of the diffusion. For these Heisenberg groups with infinite-dimensional centers, we prove quasi-invariance for the heat kernel measure under translation by elements which are finite horizontal distance from the identity. We show that these elements form a topological group, but in contrast to the finite-dimensional setting may no longer include the whole space.

The weak Hörmander setting has previously lacked a natural notion of distance, and the missing intrinsic geometry has been a complicating factor in its general analysis. In [2] we consider gamma operators modified by natural time-dependent weights for a class of degenerate diffusions with linear drift. Using these operators, we prove reverse Poincaré and log Sobolev inequalities. In particular, the choice of gamma operator appears to be canonical, as these estimates resemble the classical ones for the zero curvature case, although now the time dependency of the coefficients is incorporated into the time-dependent gradient. These modified gamma operators also induce a control distance that preserves scaling properties when the diffusion satisfies one and that can be used to prove Wang-type Harnack inequalities and other transportation cost type inequalities. We again discuss applications to infinite-dimensional diffusions, including quasi-invariance and also uniqueness of stationary distributions.

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**$L^2$ -exponential ergodicity of stochastic Hamiltonian systems with  $\alpha$ -stable Lévy noises**

JIAN WANG

(joint work with Jianhai Bao)

In physics, the Hamiltonian system, as a mathematical formalism due to W.R. Hamilton, describes the evolution of particles in physical systems. From the perspective of practical applications, the deterministic Hamiltonian systems are often subject to environmental noises. Then, the environmentally perturbed system, named as the stochastic Hamiltonian system in literature, is brought into being. So far, stochastic Hamiltonian systems have been applied ubiquitously (see e.g. [2]) in finance describing some risky assets, in physics portraying the synchrotron oscillations of particles in storage rings due to the impact of external fluctuating electromagnetic fields, and in stochastic optimal control serving as a stochastic version of the maximum principle of Pontryagin’s type, to name just a few.

With regard to the mathematical formulation, the stochastic Hamiltonian system is described by the following degenerate stochastic differential equation (SDE for short) on  $\mathbb{R}^{2d} := \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$  :

$$(1) \quad \begin{cases} dX_t = \nabla_v H(X_t, V_t) dt, \\ dV_t = -(\nabla_x H(X_t, V_t) + F(X_t, V_t)\nabla_v H(X_t, V_t)) dt + dZ_t, \end{cases}$$

where  $H$  is the Hamiltonian function,  $\nabla_x H$  and  $\nabla_v H$  stand for the gradient operators with respect to the position variable  $x$  and the velocity variable  $v$ , respectively,  $F$  means the damping coefficient, and  $(Z_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is a  $d$ -dimensional stochastic noise.

In this talk, the  $d$ -dimensional noise process  $(Z_t)_{t \geq 0}$  can be modelled naturally by a pure jump Lévy process. For simplicity, we consider

$$(2) \quad \begin{cases} dX_t = \nabla \Phi(V_t) dt, \\ dV_t = -\nabla U(X_t) dt - \nabla \Phi(V_t) dt + dL_t, \end{cases}$$

where  $(L_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is a symmetric  $\alpha$ -stable process with  $\alpha \in (1, 2)$ . Concerning the SDEs (2), the problem on addressing explicit expressions of invariant probability measures is a tough task and is impossible for almost all of scenarios. This is the prime issue we must be confronted with when we explore the  $L^2$ -exponential ergodicity for stochastic Hamiltonian systems with Lévy noises. To make sure that the probability measure

$$\mu(dx, dv) := C_{U, \Phi}^{-1} e^{-(U(x) + \Phi(v))} dx dv,$$

with  $C_{U, \Phi} := \iint_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} e^{-(U(x) + \Phi(v))} dx dv < \infty$ , is an invariant probability measure, we need to alter the drift term of (2) in a suitable manner. One of the potential ways is that the drift term  $\nabla \Phi$  in the position component is untouched while the drift part  $-\nabla \Phi$  in the velocity component is substituted by the following one:

$$(3) \quad b_\Phi(v) := e^{\Phi(v)} \nabla ((-\Delta)^{\alpha/2-1} e^{-\Phi(v)}), \quad v \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

when  $d > 2 - \alpha$ . Herein,  $(-\Delta)^{\alpha/2-1}$  is the fractional Laplacian operator defined via the inverse of the Riesz potential. Subsequently, (2) can be rewritten as

$$(4) \quad \begin{cases} dX_t = \nabla\Phi(V_t)dt, \\ dV_t = (-\nabla U(X_t) + b_\Phi(V_t))dt + dL_t. \end{cases}$$

To proceed, we interpret more backgrounds on stochastic Hamiltonian systems driven by symmetric  $\alpha$ -stable noise. The SDE (4), with the driven noise  $(L_t)_{t \geq 0}$  being a symmetric  $\alpha$ -stable process, is named as a fractional underdamped (or kinetic) Langevin dynamic in [3] and a fractional stochastic Hamiltonian Monte Carlo in [4].

Before proceeding to state our main result, we present assumptions on the coefficients  $U$  and  $\Phi$  in (4). Firstly, concerning the potential  $U$ , we assume that

- ( $\mathbf{A}_U$ ) The term  $U : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ := [0, \infty)$  satisfies the following two assumptions:
  - ( $\mathbf{A}_{U,1}$ )  $U \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}_+)$  is a compact function (i.e., for any  $r > 0$ ,  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : U(x) \leq r\}$  has a compact closure) such that  $\mathbb{R}^d \ni x \mapsto e^{-U(x)}$  is integrable and  $\mathbb{R}^d \ni x \mapsto |\nabla U(x)|$  is a compact function (i.e., for any  $r > 0$ ,  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : |\nabla U(x)| \leq r\}$  has a compact closure); moreover, there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  such that for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,

$$(5) \quad \|\nabla^2 U(x)\| \leq c_1 |\nabla U(x)| + c_2,$$

where  $\nabla^2$  stands for the second-order gradient operator (i.e., the Hessian operator) and  $\|\cdot\|$  denotes the operator norm.

- ( $\mathbf{A}_{U,2}$ )  $\liminf_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\langle \nabla U(x), x \rangle}{|x|} > 0$ .

With regarding to  $\Phi$ , we suppose that

- ( $\mathbf{A}_\Phi$ ) The function  $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  fulfills the following assumptions:
  - ( $\mathbf{A}_{\Phi,1}$ )  $\Phi \in C^3(\mathbb{R}^d; \mathbb{R}_+)$  is radial such that  $\Phi(v) = \psi(|v|^2)$  for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and some  $\psi \in C^3(\mathbb{R}_+; \mathbb{R}_+)$ ; moreover,  $|v| \mapsto \Phi(|v|)$  is non-decreasing, and  $\mathbb{R}^d \ni v \mapsto e^{-\Phi(v)}$  is integrable.
  - ( $\mathbf{A}_{\Phi,2}$ )  $\|\nabla\Phi\|_\infty + \|\nabla^3\Phi\|_\infty < \infty$  and

$$\sup_{v \in \mathbb{R}^d} (\|\nabla^2\Phi(v)\| \cdot |v|) < \infty, \quad \sup_{v \in \mathbb{R}^d} |\Phi(v) - \Phi(v/2)| < \infty,$$

where  $\nabla^3$  indicates the third-order gradient operator; moreover, there exist constants  $c^*, v^* > 0$  such that for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$  with  $|v| \geq v^*$ ,

$$\sup_{u \in B_1(v)} \|\nabla^i \Psi(u)\| \leq c^* \|\nabla^i \Psi(v)\|, \quad i = 1, 2, 3,$$

where  $B_1(v)$  denotes the unite ball with center  $v$  and radius 1.

- ( $\mathbf{A}_{\Phi,3}$ )  $\mathbb{R}^d \ni v \mapsto \frac{e^{\Phi(v)}}{(1+|v|)^{2(d+\alpha)}}$  is integrable.

- ( $\mathbf{A}_{\Phi,4}$ )  $\liminf_{|v| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{\Phi(v)}}{|v|^{d+\alpha}} > 0$ .

The main result of this talk is presented as below.

**Theorem 3.** *Assume  $d > 2 - \alpha$ , and suppose further that both  $(\mathbf{A}_U)$  and  $(\mathbf{A}_\Phi)$  are satisfied. Then, the process  $(X_t, V_t)_{t \geq 0}$  solving (4) is  $L^2$ -exponentially ergodic, i.e., there exist constants  $c, \lambda > 0$  such that for all  $f \in L^2(\mu)$  and  $t > 0$ ,*

$$(6) \quad \text{Var}_\mu(P_t f) \leq c e^{-\lambda t} \text{Var}_\mu(f),$$

where  $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is the Markov semigroup generated by  $(X_t, V_t)_{t \geq 0}$  and  $\mu$  is an invariant probability measure of  $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$ .

As a direct consequence of Theorem 3, we can obtain the following statement. Assume  $d > 2 - \alpha$  and  $(\mathbf{A}_U)$ , and suppose for some  $\beta \in [\alpha, 2\alpha)$ ,

$$\Phi(v) = \frac{1}{2}(d + \beta) \log(1 + |v|^2), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

Then, the assertion (6) holds true, i.e., the process  $(X_t, V_t)_{t \geq 0}$  solving (4) is  $L^2$ -exponentially ergodic.

For the details of results above, the readers can be referred to [1].

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**$L^2$ -optimal transport for laws of random measures in Euclidean spaces**

GIUSEPPE SAVARÉ

(joint work with Alessandro Pinzi)

A classical and deep feature of quadratic optimal transport in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  [3, 7] is its tight link with convex analysis. For  $\mu, \nu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , the quadratic Wasserstein cost

$$w_2^2(\mu, \nu) := \min_{\gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d} |x - y|^2 d\gamma$$

admits an equivalent maximization formulation

$$w_2^2(\mu, \nu) = m_2^2(\mu) + m_2^2(\nu) - 2[\mu, \nu], \quad [\mu, \nu] := \max_{\gamma \in \Gamma(\mu, \nu)} \int x \cdot y d\gamma,$$

so that minimizers of  $w_2^2$  coincide with maximizers of  $[\mu, \nu]$ . Combined with Kantorovich duality and cyclical monotonicity, this yields the classical characterization of optimal plans by convex subdifferentials and, under mild regularity on  $\mu$ , existence and uniqueness of optimal transport maps solving the Monge problem.

**Random measures and the lifted quadratic transport problem.** Since  $(\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d), w_2)$  is itself a Polish metric space, one can study optimal transport between *laws of random measures*, namely elements of

$$\mathfrak{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d) := \mathcal{P}_2(\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)),$$

endowed with the quadratic cost induced by  $w_2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} W_2^2(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N}) &:= \min_{\Pi \in \Gamma(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N})} \int_{\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \times \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)} w_2^2(\mu, \nu) \, d\Pi(\mu, \nu) \\ &= \min \mathbb{E} [w_2^2(M, N)], \quad M \sim \mathbf{M}, N \sim \mathbf{N}. \end{aligned}$$

A priori, the classical convex-analytic landscape is expected to fail on general metric spaces and, in particular, on  $(\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d), w_2)$ , which is positively curved in the Alexandrov sense. However, in the lifted Euclidean setting, a substantial part of that landscape can be recovered by replacing linear convexity with an appropriate notion of convexity along *arbitrary* couplings (not only Wasserstein geodesics).

**Total displacement convexity and a Kantorovich–Legendre transform.** Given  $\mu_0, \mu_1 \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and any coupling  $\mu \in \Gamma(\mu_0, \mu_1)$ , define the associated displacement interpolation

$$\mu_t := (\pi_t)_\# \mu, \quad \pi_t(x_0, x_1) := (1-t)x_0 + tx_1, \quad t \in [0, 1].$$

A functional  $\varphi : \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  is *totally displacement convex* if

$$\varphi(\mu_t) \leq (1-t)\varphi(\mu_0) + t\varphi(\mu_1) \quad \text{for every } \mu_0, \mu_1 \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \text{ and every } \mu \in \Gamma(\mu_0, \mu_1).$$

This notion (systematically developed in [4]) is stronger than McCann displacement convexity [7] and enjoys significantly better stability and duality properties. A key input is that, for fixed  $\nu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , the map  $\mu \mapsto [\mu, \nu]$  is totally displacement convex. This enables the definition of a Kantorovich–Legendre–Fenchel transform

$$\varphi^*(\nu) := \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)} \left\{ [\nu, \mu] - \varphi(\mu) \right\},$$

and a biconjugation principle  $\varphi = \varphi^{**}$  for proper, lower semicontinuous, totally displacement convex functionals.

**Duality and optimality conditions for  $W_2$ .** The previous structure yields an intrinsic characterization of optimal Kantorovich potentials for  $W_2$ : they coincide with totally displacement convex functionals. More precisely, for every  $\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N} \in \mathfrak{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  there exist conjugate totally convex potentials  $\varphi, \varphi^*$  such that

$$\int \varphi(\mu) \, d\mathbf{M}(\mu) + \int \varphi^*(\nu) \, d\mathbf{N}(\nu) = \llbracket \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N} \rrbracket,$$

where  $\llbracket \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N} \rrbracket$  is the maximization functional associated with the identity

$$\llbracket \mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2 \rrbracket = W_2^2(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N}) = M_2^2(\mathbf{M}) + M_2^2(\mathbf{N}) - 2 \llbracket \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N} \rrbracket, \quad M_2^2(\mathbf{M}) := \int m_2^2(\mu) \, d\mathbf{M}(\mu)$$

$$\llbracket \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N} \rrbracket := \max_{\Pi \in \Gamma(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N})} \int [\mu, \nu] \, d\Pi(\mu, \nu).$$

Optimal couplings can be equivalently described via *random coupling laws* on  $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ ; their support is characterized by a *total subdifferential*, a closed subset of  $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d)$  playing the role of a multivalued “probability vector field”. Optimality admits a formulation in terms of total cyclical monotonicity.

**Monge and strict Monge formulations.** A central application concerns the Monge problem for  $W_2$ . If the total subdifferential of an optimal potential is single-valued for M-a.e.  $\mu$ , then the transport problem between  $M$  and  $N$  admits a *unique* optimal coupling, concentrated on a Monge map  $\mathbf{F} : \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , i.e.  $\Pi = (\text{id} \times \mathbf{F})_{\#}M$ , and

$$W_2^2(M, N) = \int w_2^2(\mu, \mathbf{F}(\mu)) \, dM(\mu).$$

Moreover, the map  $\mathbf{F}$  is induced by the distinguished minimal selection of the total subdifferential of an optimal Kantorovich potential  $\varphi$ , represented by a deterministic, nonlocal field  $f^\circ : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  through  $\mathbf{F}(\mu) = f^\circ(\cdot, \mu)_{\#}\mu$ ; in particular  $f^\circ$  solves a strict Monge formulation where one optimizes directly over such fields.

**Lagrangian (Hilbertian) lifting and super-regularity.** The crucial issue is to provide conditions on  $M$  ensuring M-a.e. single-valuedness (see [5] for a different type of conditions). Total displacement convexity is precisely the condition allowing a Lions-type Lagrangian lifting to a Hilbert space. Fix a nonatomic standard Borel probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  and set  $\mathcal{H} := L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}; \mathbb{R}^d)$ . Every  $\mu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  can be represented as  $\mu = X_{\#}\mathbb{P}$  for some  $X \in \mathcal{H}$ . The law map  $\iota : X \mapsto X_{\#}\mathbb{P}$  is 1-Lipschitz and surjective, and total displacement convexity of  $\varphi$  is equivalent to linear convexity of  $\widehat{\varphi} := \varphi \circ \iota$  on  $\mathcal{H}$ . This correspondence extends to subdifferentials, so that points where the total subdifferential is single-valued correspond to points of Gâteaux differentiability of  $\widehat{\varphi}$ .

We introduce a natural class of *super-regular* measures  $M$  on  $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  obtained by combining: (R1) concentration on the usual class of regular measures (giving null mass to d.c. hypersurfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ), and (R2) a lifted negligibility condition excluding sets whose preimage under  $\iota$  lies in a d.c. hypersurface of  $\mathcal{H}$ . These conditions are stable under absolute continuity. Since d.c. hypersurfaces in Hilbert spaces are Gaussian-null, a canonical source of examples is provided by *laws of Gaussian-generated random measures* (LGGRM), obtained as  $G = \iota_{\#}\gamma$  where  $\gamma$  is a nondegenerate Gaussian measure on  $\mathcal{H}$ . Such measures have full support in  $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and satisfy (R2); in particular, in dimension  $d = 1$  every LGGRM is super-regular, and broad super-regular families can be constructed in all dimensions. As a byproduct, super-regular measures are dense in  $\mathfrak{P}_2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .

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## Optimal transport and gradient flows for point processes

MATTHIAS ERBAR

(joint work with Martin Huesmann, Jonas Jalowy, Bastian Müller,  
Hanna Stange)

We develop a theory of optimal transport for stationary random measures with a focus on stationary point processes. We construct two types of distances on stationary probability measures on the configuration space geared towards different dynamics of point configurations. The first one is based on continuous displacement of points and leads to a two layer optimal transport problem with a probabilistic constraint. It gives rise to a natural notion of displacement interpolation between point processes and provides e.g. a characterisation of the evolution of infinitely many Brownian motions as the gradient flow of the specific relative entropy w.r.t. the Poisson point process. The second notion is based on a birth-death dynamic of points and modelled on the Benamou-Brenier formula. In a perturbative regime around the Poisson process we obtain an EVI gradient flow characterisation of the associated Glauber dynamics.

We consider random measures  $\xi^\bullet$ , i.e. random variables with values in the space  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  of locally finite measures on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .  $\xi^\bullet$  is a point process if it almost surely takes values in the  $\mathbb{N}$ . The distribution of a random measure is an element of  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d))$  the set of probability measures over  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ .  $\mathbb{R}^d$  naturally acts on  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  by shift of the support and we say that  $\mathbb{P} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d))$  is *stationary* if it coincides with its image measure under the shift operation by any vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Stationarity of the distribution of a random measure is implied by the following stronger property. A random measure  $\xi^\bullet : (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is called *invariant* if the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  admits a measurable flow, i.e. a family of measurable mappings  $\mathbb{R}^d \times \Omega \ni (x, \omega) \mapsto \theta_x \omega \in \Omega$  with  $\theta_0 = \text{id}$  and  $\theta_x \circ \theta_y = \theta_{x+y}$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , such that  $\mathbb{P}$  is invariant under  $\theta$  and for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\omega \in \Omega$ , we have  $\xi^\omega(\cdot) = \xi^{\theta_x \omega}(\cdot - x)$ .

On the space  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  we introduce a cost function that measures the asymptotic transport cost per volume:

$$(1) \quad c(\xi, \eta) = \inf_{\mathbf{q} \in \text{cpl}(\xi, \eta)} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^d} \int_{\Lambda_n \times \mathbb{R}^d} |x - y|^p \mathbf{q}(dx, dy) ,$$

where  $\text{cpl}(\xi, \eta)$  denotes the set of all couplings  $\mathbf{q} \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d)$  of  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  and  $\Lambda_n = [-n/2, n/2]^d$  denotes the box of side length  $n$  centered at the origin. Given  $P_0, P_1 \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d))$  two distributions of stationary random measures with unit intensity we consider the transport problem

$$(2) \quad C(P_0, P_1) = \inf_{\mathbf{Q} \in \text{Cpl}_s(P_0, P_1)} \int c(\xi, \eta) \mathbf{Q}(d\xi, d\eta) = \inf_{(\xi^\bullet, \eta^\bullet)} \mathbb{E}[c(\xi^\bullet, \eta^\bullet)] ,$$

where the first infimum is taken over the set of stationary couplings of  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  and the second infimum is taken over all pairs of jointly invariant random measures  $(\xi^\bullet, \eta^\bullet)$  with distributions  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  respectively.

Note that (2) is a two layer optimisation problem. The first layer of optimisation is on the level of the coupling of the distributions, the second layer is on the level of the spatial coupling of the realisations of the random measures in the transport problem defining  $c$ . Moreover, it is an optimal transport problem with an additional probabilistic constraint, namely stationarity. Alternatively, the value of the transport problem can be represented as

$$(3) \quad C(P_0, P_1) = \inf_{(\xi^\bullet, \eta^\bullet)} \text{cost}(\xi^\bullet, \eta^\bullet).$$

where the infimum runs over all jointly invariant random measures  $(\xi^\bullet, \eta^\bullet)$  such that  $\xi^\bullet \sim P_0, \eta^\bullet \sim P_1$ . Moreover, if  $C(P_0, P_1) < \infty$ , there exists an optimal pair  $(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{q}^\bullet)$  of a coupling  $\mathbf{Q}$  of  $P_0, P_1$  and  $\mathbf{q}^\bullet$  achieving the infimum. We fix  $p \geq 1$  in (1) and put  $W_p := C^{\frac{1}{p}}$ .

**Theorem 1.**  $W_p$  defines a geodesic extended distance on the space of stationary distributions  $\mathcal{P}_s(\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d))$  with unit intensity.

For  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  with  $W_p(P_0, P_1) < \infty$  and an optimal pair  $(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{q}^\bullet)$  the geodesic  $(P_a)_{a \in [0,1]}$  is given as follows. Let  $\xi_a^\bullet := (\text{geo}_a)_{\#} \mathbf{q}^\bullet$  be the random measure interpolating the points of  $\xi_0^\bullet \sim P_0$  and  $\xi_1^\bullet \sim P_1$  along straight lines, i.e.  $\text{geo}_a(x, y) = x + a(y - x)$ , and put  $P_a = \text{law}(\xi_a^\bullet)$ .

The novel geometry induced by the transport distance  $W_2$  can be used to study functionals on stationary point processes and infinite particle dynamics. We consider the *specific relative entropy* of a stationary point process  $P$  with respect to the Poisson point process  $\text{Poi}$  given by

$$\mathcal{E}(P) := \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^d} \text{Ent}(P_{\Lambda_n} | \text{Poi}_{\Lambda_n}) ,$$

where  $P_{\Lambda_n}$  denotes the restriction of  $P$  to  $\Lambda_n$ . For a stationary point process  $P$ , let  $P_t$  be the point process obtained by evolving each point of  $P$  by an independent Brownian motion for time  $t$ . Our second main result is the following

**Theorem 2.**  $(P_t)_t$  is the gradient flow of  $\mathcal{E}$  wr.t.  $W_2$  in the sense of the following Evolution Variational Inequality: For any stationary point processes  $R$  with  $W_2(P, R) < \infty$  we have

$$W_2^2(P_t, R) - W_2^2(P, R) \leq 2t[\mathcal{E}(R) - \mathcal{E}(P_t)] .$$

In particular,  $\mathcal{E}$  is convex along  $W_2$ -geodesics.

This result can be seen as the analogue for stationary point processes of the celebrated results by Jordan, Kinderlehrer and Otto that the heat flow is the Wasserstein gradient flow of the Boltzmann entropy as well as McCann that the Boltzmann entropy is displacement convex. —n dimension  $d = 1$ , similar characterisations of dynamics with interaction have been obtained by Huesmann and Müller in [2] using a variant of the transport problem.

In [3] we consider birth-death dynamics on the configuration space described by the semigroup  $(S_t)$  with generator

$$L_\kappa F(\xi) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \kappa(\xi, x)[F(\xi + \delta_x) - F(\xi)] dx + \sum_{x \in \xi} [F(\xi - \delta_x) - F(\xi)] ,$$

where  $\kappa : \Gamma(\mathbb{R}^d) \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is a Papangelou intensity. A particular case are Gibbs measures with Hamiltonian  $H$ , activity  $z$  and inverse temperature  $\beta$  where, with  $D_x^+ F(\xi) := F(\xi + \delta_x) - F(\xi)$ , we have  $\kappa(\xi, x) = z \exp(-\beta D_x^+ H(\xi))$ . We assume that  $\kappa$  satisfies monotonicity  $\kappa(\xi + \delta_x, y) \leq \kappa(\xi, y)$  and the cocycle condition  $\kappa(\xi, x)\kappa(\xi + \delta_x, y) = \kappa(\xi, y)\kappa(\xi, \delta_y, x)$  for all  $\xi \in \Gamma, x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , and admits a invariant Papangelou measure  $R \in \mathcal{P}(\Gamma(\mathbb{R}^d))$ , i.e.  $\iint F(\xi - \delta_x)\xi(dx)R(d\xi) = \iint F(\xi, x)\kappa(\xi, x)dxR(d\xi)$  for all  $F \geq 0$ . We further assume that  $\kappa$  is  $R \otimes \mathcal{L}$ -a.e. continuous.

For point processes  $P_0, P_1$  We construct the non-local transport distance

$$W_\kappa^2(P_0, P_1) = \inf \left\{ \int_0^1 \int_{\Gamma \times \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{|V_t|^2}{\theta(\kappa(P_t \otimes \mathcal{L}, C_{P_t}))} dt : (P, V) \in CE(P_0, P_1) \right\} ,$$

where  $\theta(a, b) = (a - b)/(\log a - \log b)$  is the logarithmic mean,  $C_t$  is the reduced Campbell measure of  $P_t$  and the infimum is taken over all solutions  $(P_t, V_t)_{t \in [0,1]}$  to the continuity equation

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int F dP_t + \int D_x^+ F(\xi, x) dV_t(\xi, x) = 0 \quad \forall F ,$$

with curves  $(P_t)$  interpolating  $P_0, P_1$  and families of measure  $V_t$  on  $\Gamma \times \mathbb{R}^d$ .

We then have the following result.

**Theorem 3.** Assume that

$$\varepsilon := \sup_{\xi, x} \int_{\mathbb{E}=\mathbb{R}^d} \kappa(\xi, y) - \kappa(\xi + \delta_x, y) dy < 1 .$$

Then the Glauber dynamis  $P_t = S_t P_0$  is the gradient flow of the relative entropy  $Ent(\cdot|R)$  wr.t. the Papangelou measure wr.t.  $W_\kappa$  in the sense of the following EVI:

For any  $\mathbb{Q}$  with  $\mathcal{W}_2(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}) < \infty$  we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{W}_\kappa^2(P_t, \mathbb{R}) + (1 - \varepsilon) \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{W}_\kappa^2(P_t, \mathbb{Q}) \leq \text{Ent}(\mathbb{Q}|\mathbb{R}) - \text{Ent}(P_t|\mathbb{R}).$$

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**Discrete-time gradient flows in Gromov hyperbolic spaces**

SHIN-ICHI OHTA

The theory of gradient flows for convex functions on metric spaces has made impressive progress since 1990s, including those on CAT(0)-spaces [7], CAT(1)-spaces [13], Alexandrov spaces and the Wasserstein spaces over them [6, 8, 15, 16], and RCD( $K, \infty$ )-spaces [17]. These spaces are, however, all “Riemannian” in the sense that they exclude non-Riemannian Finsler manifolds (in particular, non-inner product normed spaces). In fact, despite great success for Riemannian spaces, much less is known for non-Riemannian spaces (even for normed spaces); we refer to [11, 14] for the failure of the contraction property. Motivated by this large gap and a fact that some non-Riemannian Finsler manifolds can be Gromov hyperbolic, we shall consider convex optimization on Gromov hyperbolic spaces (see also [9] for a related study on barycenters in Gromov hyperbolic spaces).

The *Gromov hyperbolicity*, introduced in a seminal work [2] of Gromov, is a notion of negative curvature of large scale. A metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be *Gromov hyperbolic* if it is  $\delta$ -hyperbolic for some  $\delta \geq 0$  in the sense that

$$(1) \quad (x|z)_p \geq \min\{(x|y)_p, (y|z)_p\} - \delta$$

holds for all  $p, x, y, z \in X$ , where

$$(x|y)_p := \frac{1}{2} \{d(p, x) + d(p, y) - d(x, y)\}$$

is the *Gromov product*. If (1) holds with  $\delta = 0$ , then the quadruple  $p, x, y, z$  is isometrically embedded into a tree.

In the investigation of gradient flows in Gromov hyperbolic spaces, we employ discrete-time gradient flows of large time step  $\tau$  (“giant steps”), because of the inevitable local perturbations. Precisely, for a convex function  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and an arbitrary initial point  $x_0 \in X$ , we study the behavior of recursive applications of the *proximal* (or *resolvent*) operator:

$$(2) \quad x_k \in J_\tau^f(x_{k-1}) := \arg \min_{y \in X} \left\{ f(y) + \frac{d^2(x_{k-1}, y)}{2\tau} \right\}, \quad k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

The resulting sequence  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$  can be regarded as a discrete approximation of a (continuous-time) gradient curve for  $f$  starting from  $x_0$ . In [10], we established the following.

**Theorem 1** (Theorem 1.1 in [10] with  $K = 0$ ). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a proper, geodesic  $\delta$ -hyperbolic space and  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an  $L$ -Lipschitz convex function such that  $f(p) = \inf_X f$  for some  $p \in X$ . Then, for any  $x \in X$  and  $y \in J_\tau^f(x)$  with  $\tau > 0$ , we have*

$$d(p, y) \leq d(p, x) - d(x, y) + 4\sqrt{2\tau L\delta}.$$

**Theorem 2** (Theorem 1.3 in [10] with  $K = 0$ ). *Let  $(X, d)$  and  $f$  be as in Theorem 1. Take any  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ ,  $\tau > 0$ , and  $y_i \in J_\tau^f(x_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , and assume  $d(p, y_1) \leq d(p, y_2)$ .*

(i) *If  $d(p, y_1) \geq (x_1|x_2)_p$ , then we have*

$$d(y_1, y_2) \leq d(x_1, x_2) - d(x_1, y_1) - d(x_2, y_2) + 20\sqrt{2\tau L\delta} + 24\delta.$$

(ii) *If  $d(p, y_1) < (x_1|x_2)_p$ , then we have*

$$d(y_1, y_2) \leq d(x_1, x_2) - (p|x_2)_{x_1} + C(L, D, \tau, \delta),$$

where  $D := \max\{d(p, x_1), d(p, x_2)\}$ ,  $C(L, D, \tau, \delta) = O_{L, D, \tau}(\delta^{1/4})$  as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ .

In Theorem 1, it is in fact sufficient to assume  $f(p) \leq f(y)$ . The estimates in Theorem 2 can be thought of as contraction properties akin to tress.

Next, inspired by Hirai–Sakabe’s recent work [3], we consider the case where the target convex function is unbounded below, and study divergence to the steepest direction in the boundary at infinity  $\partial X$ . This kind of phenomenon was established by Karlsson–Margulis [5] for *semi-contractions*  $\varphi: Y \rightarrow Y$  (i.e.,  $d_Y(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) \leq d_Y(x, y)$ ) on nonpositively curved metric spaces  $(Y, d_Y)$ . Their *multiplicative ergodic theorem* [5, Theorem 2.1] asserts that, for a complete, uniformly convex metric space  $(Y, d_Y)$  of nonpositive curvature in the sense of Busemann and almost every  $y_0 \in Y$ , there exists a ray  $\xi: [0, \infty) \rightarrow Y$  satisfying

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{d(\xi(\alpha k), y_k)}{k} = 0, \quad \text{where } y_k := \varphi(y_{k-1}),$$

provided that  $\alpha := \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} d(y_0, y_k)/k > 0$ . We refer to [4, Proposition 5.1] for a generalization to semi-contractions on Gromov hyperbolic spaces.

The results in [3] extract and discretize convex optimization ingredients of the *moment-weight inequality* for reductive group actions by Georgoulas–Robbin–Salamon [1] in geometric invariant theory, and have applications to operator scaling problems. In Gromov hyperbolic spaces, although the proximal operator is not a semi-contraction, we obtain the following by using Theorem 1.

**Theorem 3** (Theorem 1.1 in [12]). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a proper, geodesic  $\delta$ -hyperbolic space with  $\partial X \neq \emptyset$ , and  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an  $L$ -Lipschitz convex function. Assume  $\alpha := -\inf_{v \in \partial X} \partial_\infty f(v) > 0$ . Then,*

(i) *there exists a unique element  $v_* \in \partial X$  satisfying  $\partial_\infty f(v_*) < 0$ ;*

- (ii) for any  $x_0 \in X$ , the discrete-time gradient curve  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  as in (2) tends to  $v_* \in \partial X$ ;
- (iii) letting  $\xi: [0, \infty) \rightarrow X$  be a ray representing  $v_*$  with  $\xi(0) = x_0$ , we have

$$(3) \quad (\xi(t)|x_k)_{x_0} \geq k\sqrt{\tau} \left\{ \left( \frac{\alpha^2}{4L} + \frac{\alpha^4}{16L^3} \right) \sqrt{\tau} - 2\sqrt{2L\delta} \right\}$$

for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $t > 0$  satisfying  $f(\xi(t)) \leq f(x_k)$ .

Here,  $\partial_\infty f(v)$  is the asymptotic slope defined by

$$\partial_\infty f(v) := \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(\xi(t))}{t}$$

for a ray  $\xi: [0, \infty) \rightarrow X$  representing  $v \in \partial X$ . We remark that the uniqueness in (i) is a specific feature of the negative curvature; it is not the case for CAT(0)-spaces. The last assertion (3) can be regarded as an estimate of the rate of convergence of  $x_k$  to  $v_*$ .

Let us close with two further problems.

- (A) Gromov hyperbolicity makes sense for discrete spaces as well. Therefore, it is interesting to explore some generalizations of the results in [10, 12] to discrete (non-geodesic) Gromov hyperbolic spaces. Then, it is a challenging problem to formulate and analyze convex functions on discrete Gromov hyperbolic spaces (possibly for some special classes such as hyperbolic groups).
- (B) Even in geodesic Gromov hyperbolic spaces, it is worth considering a certain “large-scale convexity” of functions, preserved by *quasi-isometries*, since Gromov hyperbolicity is preserved by quasi-isometries between geodesic spaces.

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## Curvature-Dimension for Autonomous Lagrangians

ROTEM ASSOULINE

The characterization of lower Ricci curvature and upper dimension bounds using optimal transport, which finds its roots in the works of Cordero-Erausquin, McCann and Schmuckenschläger [11], Sturm [24] and Lott-Villani [16], served as a point of departure for a rich theory of synthetic curvature-dimension bounds on metric measure spaces. A prototypical instance of this equivalence is the following: a complete  $n$ -dimensional Riemannian manifold  $(M, g)$  has nonnegative Ricci curvature if and only if for all  $N \in [n, \infty]$ , the function  $t \mapsto S_N[\mu_t | \text{Vol}_g]$  is convex for every 2-Wasserstein geodesic  $\mu_t$ , where  $S_N[\nu | \mu]$  is the  $N$ -entropy

$$S_N[\nu | \mu] := \begin{cases} \int_M (d\nu/d\mu)^{-1/N} d\nu & N < \infty, \\ \int_M \log(d\nu/d\mu) d\nu, & N = \infty. \end{cases}$$

More generally, if  $\mu$  is a measure on  $M$  with a smooth density, then  $S_N[\mu_t | \mu]$  is convex for every 2-Wasserstein geodesic  $\mu_t$  if and only if  $\text{Ric}_{g, \mu, N} \geq 0$ , where  $\text{Ric}_{g, \mu, N} = \text{Ric}_g + \text{Hess}\psi - (N - n)^{-1}(d\psi)^2$  is the weighted (Bakry–Émery) Ricci tensor. The connection between curvature-dimension bounds and the aforementioned *displacement convexity of entropy* has since been established in other settings, including sub-Riemannian [3, 4], Finslerian [19] and Lorentzian [18, 9] manifolds. We present here a new extension, to weighted manifolds endowed with a Lagrangian. Displacement convexity in this setting was studied in Lee [15] Ohta [20], Schachter [23] and Yang [25]. However, a complete characterization such as the one stated below did not exist previously.

Let  $M$  be a smooth manifold, and let  $L : TM \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function which is smooth away from the zero section  $\mathbf{0} \subseteq TM$  and strictly convex and superlinear on each fiber (a *Tonelli Lagrangian*). Thus we consider Lagrangians that are time-independent, i.e. *autonomous*. The cost associated with the Lagrangian  $L$  is

$$c : M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad c(x, x') := \inf_{\gamma} \int L(\dot{\gamma}(t)) dt,$$

where the infimum is over all piecewise- $C^1$  curves  $\gamma$  joining  $x$  to  $x'$ . A curve achieving the above infimum is called a *minimizing extremal*.

For a pair of Borel probability measures  $\mu_0, \mu_1$  on  $M$ , we say that a measure  $\kappa$  on  $M \times M$  is an *optimal coupling* between  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$  if it minimizes the expected cost  $\int c \, d\kappa$  among all measures on  $M \times M$  whose first and second marginals are  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$ , respectively. The existence and fundamental properties of optimal couplings for costs arising from Tonelli Lagrangians were established by Bernard-Buffoni [5] and Fathi-Figalli [12].

We impose the following rather natural global assumptions on  $L$ : (i) every pair of points is joined by at least one minimizing extremal, (ii) for every compact set  $A$  there exists a compact set  $\tilde{A} \supseteq A$  containing all minimizing extremals with endpoints in  $A$ , and (iii) for every closed curve  $\gamma$  we have  $\int L(\dot{\gamma}) > 0$ .

Write  $\mathcal{P}_1(L)$  for the collection of absolutely continuous probability measures  $\mu$  on  $M$  for which the function  $|c(x_0, \cdot)| + |c(\cdot, x_0)|$  lies in  $L^1(\mu)$  for some  $x_0 \in M$ .

**Theorem** ([5, 12, 1]). *Under the above assumptions, for every pair  $\mu_0, \mu_1 \in \mathcal{P}_1(L)$  there exists a family  $\{\mu_\lambda\}_{0 < \lambda < 1}$  of absolutely continuous probability measures with the following property: there exists a random minimizing extremal  $\gamma : [0, T] \rightarrow M$  such that for every  $0 \leq \lambda \leq \lambda' \leq 1$ , the joint law of  $\gamma(\lambda T)$  and  $\gamma(\lambda' T)$  is an optimal coupling between  $\mu_\lambda$  and  $\mu_{\lambda'}$ .*

The family  $\{\mu_\lambda\}$  in the above theorem is called a *displacement interpolation* between  $\mu_0$  and  $\mu_1$ .

In [1], given a Lagrangian  $L$  as above, a measure  $\mu$  on  $M$  with a smooth density, and  $N \in [n, \infty]$ , we construct a function  $\text{Ric}_{L, \mu, N} : TM \setminus \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , generalizing the Riemannian and Finslerian weighted Ricci curvature, such that the following holds.

**Theorem** (A. '25 [1]). *Let  $M$  be a smooth manifold, let  $\mu$  be a measure on  $M$  with a smooth density, let  $L : TM \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a Lagrangian satisfying the above assumptions, and let  $N \in [n, \infty]$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (1)  $\text{Ric}_{\mu, L, N} \geq 0$  on the energy level  $E^{-1}(0)$ .
- (2) For every pair  $\mu_0, \mu_1 \in \mathcal{P}_1(L)$  there exists a displacement interpolation  $\{\mu_\lambda\}_{0 < \lambda < 1}$  such that the function  $\lambda \mapsto S_N[\mu_\lambda | \mu]$  is convex.

Here the *energy*  $E : TM \setminus \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by  $E = H \circ \mathcal{L}^{-1}$ , where  $H$  is the Hamiltonian associated to the Lagrangian  $L$  and  $\mathcal{L} : T^*M \rightarrow TM$  is the Legendre transform. For instance, for a Riemannian metric  $g$  we take  $L = (g + 1)/2$ , and then  $E^{-1}(0)$  is the unit tangent bundle. Any bound  $\text{Ric}_{\mu, L, N} \geq K \in \mathbb{R}$  can be similarly characterized by displacement convexity, with a slightly more complicated statement than the one above.

It is important to remark that the optimal transport problem we consider is analogous to  $L^1$ , rather than  $L^2$ , optimal transport in the metric setting. For this reason, the theorem asserts the *existence* of a displacement interpolation along

which entropy is convex. Indeed, the  $L^1$  displacement interpolation may not be unique.  $L^1$ -Displacement convexity in the metric case was established in [7, 10].

Our main technical tool is the *needle decomposition technique*. This technique was introduced by Klartag [14], who employed  $L^1$  mass transport to construct a Riemannian counterpart to a powerful localization method originating in the works of Payne-Weinberger [22], Gromov-Milman [13] and Lovasz-Simonovitz [17]. The needle decomposition technique has since been extended to various other settings [21, 8, 6].

The quantity  $\text{Ric}_{L,\mu,N}$  can be computed explicitly in several cases, notably that of *magnetic* Lagrangians, in which the Lagrangian is the sum of a Riemannian metric and a 1-form. By analyzing the weighted Ricci curvature of a particular magnetic Lagrangian on the *complex hyperbolic space*  $\mathbb{C}\mathbf{H}^d$ , and using our adaptation of the needle decomposition technique to the Lagrangian setting, we were able to prove the following higher-dimensional generalization of the horocyclic Brunn-Minkowski inequality on the hyperbolic plane [2]:

**Theorem** (Horocyclic Brunn-Minkowski inequality in complex hyperbolic space). *Let  $A_0, A_1 \subseteq \mathbb{C}\mathbf{H}^d$  be Borel sets of positive measure and let  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ . Denote by  $A_\lambda$  the set of points of the form  $\gamma(\lambda)$ , where  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\mathbf{H}^d$  is a constant-speed horocycle contained in a single complex geodesic and satisfying  $\gamma(0) \in A_0$  and  $\gamma(1) \in A_1$ . Then*

$$\text{Vol}(A_\lambda)^{1/n} \geq (1 - \lambda) \cdot \text{Vol}(A_0)^{1/n} + \lambda \cdot \text{Vol}(A_1)^{1/n},$$

where  $\text{Vol}$  denotes the hyperbolic volume measure and  $n = 2d$ .

The interest in the above theorem lies in the fact that the Brunn-Minkowski inequality has the same form as the classical one in Euclidean space, even though complex hyperbolic space has negative Ricci curvature. Thus, loosely speaking, interpolation with horocycles rather than geodesics compensates for the negative Ricci curvature of complex hyperbolic space. In [1] we also obtain a Brunn-Minkowski inequality for contact magnetic geodesics on odd-dimensional spheres.

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**On the geometry of Gaussian free fields in dimension  $d > 2$**

LINAN CHEN

(joint work with Louis Meunier)

Gaussian free fields (GFFs), as natural analogs of Brownian motion with multi-dimensional time parameters, are sample points under a centered Gaussian measure on a space of functions (or generalized functions). In the 2D case, due to its origin in quantum mechanics and statistical physics, the *log-correlated* GFF (GFF) in 2D has been extensively studied in recent years. In particular, as a promising model of random surface, the study of GFF has lead to rich developments in the realm of 2D random geometry. However, much less is known in higher dimensions. As an attempt to explore random geometry in  $\dim d > 2$ , we consider a class of GFFs and discuss some problems arising from the study of geometric characteristics of these models.

Formally speaking, an *instance* of the  $d$ -dimensional GFF, denoted by  $\theta$ , is a random “function” on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $\{\theta(x) : x \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$  forms a centered Gaussian family with the following covariance:

$$\mathbb{E}[\theta(x)\theta(y)] = K_{I-\Delta}(x, y) \quad \text{for } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

where  $K_{I-\Delta}(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the kernel of  $(I - \Delta)^{-1}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Due to the singularity of  $K_{I-\Delta}(\cdot, \cdot)$  along the diagonal, the instance  $\theta$  is a.s. **not** a point-wisely defined function, but a generalized function instead. When  $d \geq 3$ , since the kernel has polynomial singularity ( $K_{I-\Delta}(x, y) \sim |x - y|^{2-d}$  near the diagonal), the GFF is said to be *polynomial-correlated*; moreover, the higher  $d$  is, the more singular  $\theta$  becomes. Therefore, in order to treat such singular GFFs analytically, it is necessary to apply a regularization procedure. The specific regularizations we adopt are all based on the “averages” of  $\theta$ : for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $t > 0$ ,

- (1) spherical average:  $\theta_t^\circ(x) := \text{average of } \theta \text{ over } \partial B(x, t),$
- (2) ball average:  $\theta_t^\bullet(x) := \text{average of } \theta \text{ over } B(x, t),$
- (3) bump-function average:  $\theta_t^f(x) := \theta * f_t(x)$  with  $f_t := \frac{1}{t^d} f(\frac{\cdot}{t})$ , where  $f \in C_c^\infty(B(0, 1))$  is a radially symm. mollifier.

Aiming at studying the behavior of  $\theta$  “at”  $x$ , we need to carefully examine the asymptotics of these *regularized* GFFs as  $t \searrow 0$ . In particular, the family of

spherical averages  $\{\theta_t^\circ(x) : x \in \mathbb{R}^d, t > 0\}$  satisfies technically favorable properties called the *harmonic conditions* [1], but the same cannot be said about the families of  $\theta_t^\bullet(x)$  or  $\theta_t^f(x)$ .

Our work is most inspired by [3], in which the authors developed a **multifractality** result for the 2D log-correlated GFF<sup>1</sup> via studying the fractal dimensions of the *thick point* sets defined by  $\theta_t^\circ$ , and further proved the **conform invariance** for the thick point sets corresponding to  $\theta_t^\bullet$ .

Our work on the geometry of polynomial-correlated GFFs has two components: first, we extend the notion of “thick point” to the higher-dimensional models, for which we establish analogous results of multifractality and conformal invariance; second, we investigate the dependence of these results on the choice of regularization, which, in particular, leads to an analysis of the difference between  $\theta_t^\circ$  and  $\theta_t^\bullet$ . In both fronts, we observe both similarities and distinctions between the polynomial-correlated GFFs and the log-correlated counterparts. Heuristically speaking, due to higher level of singularity compared with the 2D case, the geometry of polynomial-correlated GFFs is more complex and untractable, with features that are not fully captured by fractal dimensions. Below we give a brief overview of the results we have obtained, with part of the work still ongoing.

For  $\theta$  being an instance of the polynomial-correlated GFF on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  for  $d \geq 3$ , given  $\gamma \geq 0$ , we define the  $\gamma$ -*thick point* set of  $\theta$  to be the following subset of the unit cube  $\overline{S(O, 1)}$ :

$$(1) \quad T_\gamma^\circ(\theta) := \left\{ x \in \overline{S(O, 1)} : \limsup_{t \searrow 0} \frac{\theta_t^\circ(x)}{\sqrt{-\text{Var}(\theta_t^\circ(x)) \ln t}} \geq \sqrt{2d\gamma} \right\}.$$

The harmonic conditions of  $\theta_t^\circ$  implies that, for every  $\gamma > 0$ ,  $T_\gamma^\circ$  is an exceptional set (i.e.,  $T_\gamma^\circ$  is a Lebesgue null set a.s.) and, as an analog of “extrema” for the generalized function  $\theta$ ,  $T_\gamma^\circ(\theta)$  consists of locations where  $\theta$  achieves “unusually” large values. We derive in [1] the explicit Hausdorff dimension of these thick point sets as: for  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\dim_{\mathcal{H}}(T_\gamma^\circ) = d(1 - \gamma) \text{ a.s.,}$$

which confirms that the geometry of polynomial-correlated GFF is *multifractal*, i.e., possessing a continuous spectrum of fractal dimensions (instead of a single dimension). In an ongoing work [4], switching to the regularization based on the bump-function average  $\theta_t^f$  and defining the thick point set  $T_\gamma^f(t)$  as in (1) with “ $\theta_t^\circ$ ” replaced by “ $\theta_t^f$ ”, we have also obtained the *conformal invariance* of  $T_\gamma^f$  in the sense that, if  $\Psi : U \rightarrow V$  is a conformal diffeomorphism between the two bounded domains  $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  (assuming  $U, V \supseteq \overline{S(O, 1)}$ ), then a.s.,

$$x \in T_\gamma^f(\theta) \Leftrightarrow \Psi(x) \in T_\gamma^f(\theta \circ \Psi^{-1}) \text{ for all } \gamma \in [0, 1].$$

These results extend the literature on thick point sets (and exceptional sets in general) from the 2D GFF case to higher dimensional settings.

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<sup>1</sup>In [3], the 2D GFF is constructed using the Dirichlet Laplacian  $\Delta$  on the unit disk  $\mathbb{D}$ , but this model of GFF has the same local behaviors as our model.

We have also obtained comparison results on the thick point sets defined via different regularizations, which shed light on a novel aspect in the study of random geometry associated with GFFs. We discover in [4] that, to the contrary of the 2D log-correlated case, the thick point sets of polynomial-correlated GFF vary “drastically” with the change of regularizations: since a.s.  $(\theta_t^\circ(x) - \theta_t^\bullet(x))/\sqrt{-t^{2-d} \ln t}$  is non-trivial asymptotically as  $t \searrow 0$ , even the difference between  $T_\gamma^\circ$  and  $T_\gamma^\bullet$ , where the latter is defined by (1) with “ $\theta_t^\circ$ ” replaced by “ $\theta_t^\bullet$ ”, possesses non-trivial multifractal structures. This result is proven with the framework and the techniques we developed for another type of exceptional sets known as *steep point set* [2]. Similar phenomenon occurs to thick point sets under “spatial” transformation. Namely, in the aforementioned setup of  $T_\gamma^f$  under a diffeomorphism  $\Psi$ , if  $\Psi$  is not conformal, then a.s.,  $T_\gamma^f$  and  $\Psi(T_\gamma^f(\theta \circ \Psi^{-1}))$  contain vastly different elements.

These discoveries highlight the sensitivity (and hence the importance) of the choice of regularization in the study of singular GFFs, especially in the polynomial-correlated setting. Ultimately, we hope to develop understanding on the “intrinsic” properties of the geometry of GFFs, and one would expect that such properties can be formulated or described in a way that is universal for all choices of regularizations. However, the current finding suggests that, to identify these properties, we may need to develop novel tools that can capture geometric structures of GFFs at a more refined level.

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### Multiple points on the boundaries of Brownian loop-soup clusters

WEI QIAN

(joint work with Yifan Gao, Xinyi Li, Runsheng Liu)

#### 1. BACKGROUND: MULTIPLE POINTS IN THE PLANAR BROWNIAN MOTION

Lévy [16] pointed out, already in 1948, that the double points on the frontier of a planar Brownian motion are dense. Later, we got to know that the planar Brownian motion contains points of infinite multiplicity on its trace (Dvoretzky, Erdős and Kakutani [5] and Le Gall [15]). It was proved in 1996 by Burdzy and Werner [2] that there do not exist triple points on the frontier of a planar Brownian motion. In 2001, Lawler, Schramm and Werner [9] further computed the Hausdorff dimension of the Brownian frontier, which is  $4/3$ , confirming the

famous Mandelbrot's conjecture. Finally, it was proved by Kiefer and Mörters [8] that the dimension of double points on the Brownian frontier is  $(\sqrt{97} + 1)/24$ .

The computation of the exact Hausdorff dimensions of the Brownian frontier and double points on the Brownian frontier relied on a so-called *Brownian disconnection exponent*  $\eta(n)$ . The value of  $\eta(n)$  was first conjectured by Duplantier and Kwon [4] to be

$$(1) \quad \eta(n) = \frac{1}{48} \left( (\sqrt{24n+1} - 1)^2 - 4 \right).$$

The rigorous proof of (1) was achieved by Lawler, Schramm and Werner [10, 11, 13, 12] using the Schramm-Loewner evolutions (SLE).

## 2. BROWNIAN LOOP SOUP AND GENERALIZED DISCONNECTION EXPONENT

The Brownian loop soup, introduced by Lawler and Werner [14], plays an important role in random conformal geometry, due to its close connection to the conformal loop ensembles (CLE), the Gaussian free fields (GFF), etc. The Brownian loop soup is a Poisson point process which depends on an intensity parameter  $c > 0$ . It was proved in [20] that for  $c \in (0, 1]$ , the Brownian loop soup in the unit disk a.s. exhibits infinitely many clusters, while for  $c > 1$  it contains a single cluster. Moreover, for  $c \in (0, 1]$ , the outer boundaries of the outermost clusters are distributed as a  $\text{CLE}_\kappa$ , where

$$(2) \quad c(\kappa) = (6 - \kappa)(3\kappa - 8)/(2\kappa).$$

For  $c \in (0, 1]$ , since the outer boundary of a Brownian loop has dimension  $4/3$  and the  $\text{CLE}_\kappa$  loop has dimension  $1 + \kappa/8 > 4/3$  [1], we can deduce that most points on the outer boundary of a cluster are not visited by any Brownian loop in the loop soup. On the other hand, [19, Lemma 4] implies that there do exist some Brownian loops that touch the outer boundary of a cluster.

Whether there exist double points on the outer boundary of a cluster for  $c \in (0, 1]$  is far from obvious. We are particularly interested to answer this question for the critical intensity  $c = 1$ , due to the following question raised in a joint work with Werner [19]. There, we prove that at  $c = 1$ , the set of Brownian loops that touch the outer boundary of a cluster can be decomposed into a Poisson point process of Brownian excursions away from this boundary. It naturally leads to the question of how to reconnect the excursions back into loops. In particular, we would like to know if there is any additional randomness in the reconnection procedure. It was indicated in [21] that loops in the critical loop soup may exchange their trajectories at double points, without changing the global distribution of the loop soup. The double points on the boundary of a cluster in a critical loop soup would therefore be a potential source of randomness in this reconnection procedure.

Motivated by the aforementioned questions, we have defined in [18] the *generalized disconnection exponents* inside a loop soup with intensity  $c \in (0, 1]$ , and computed their values

$$(3) \quad \eta_c(\beta) = \frac{1}{48} \left( \left( \sqrt{24\beta + 1 - c} - \sqrt{1 - c} \right)^2 - 4(1 - c) \right).$$

The computation of  $\eta_c$  relies on a family of radial hypergeometric SLE (hSLE) introduced in the same paper, which are the natural counterpart of the chordal hSLE's introduced in [17].

### 3. MULTIPLE POINTS ON THE BOUNDARY OF THE BROWNIAN LOOP-SOUP CLUSTERS

In a joint work with Gao and Li [7], we prove that the dimensions of simple and double points on the boundary of a cluster in a loop soup with intensity  $c \in (0, 1]$  are respectively equal to  $2 - \eta_c(2)$  and  $2 - \eta_c(4)$ , also relying on [3] as an input. Note that  $\eta_1(4) = 2$  by (3), so the dimension of double points on the boundary of a cluster in the critical loop soup is exactly zero. The computation of this dimension is therefore not sufficient to answer whether there exist double points on the boundary of a critical loop-soup cluster.

In a joint work with Gao, Li and Liu [6], we develop a unified approach to prove the non-existence of several random fractals related to the Brownian motion which have dimension exactly zero. In particular, we prove the non-existence of the pioneer triple points of the planar Brownian motion, the pioneer double cut points of the planar and three-dimensional Brownian motions, and the double points on the boundaries of the clusters of the planar Brownian loop soup at the critical intensity.

To illustrate our proof in the pioneer triple points (PTP) case, we consider the set  $\mathfrak{S}_n$  of good boxes with side-length  $2^{-n}$  in the unit disk which contain a  $\delta$ -approximate PTP. It suffices to prove that for some  $c > 0$ ,

$$(4) \quad \mathbb{P}(\#\mathfrak{S}_n \geq 1) = O(n^{-c}).$$

Our proof of (4) is based on the intuition that it is very likely to find many good boxes near a typical good box. More concretely, we will prove the following conditional negative first moment estimate for any given box  $S$

$$\mathbb{E} [(\#\mathfrak{S}_n)^{-1} \mid S \in \mathfrak{S}_n] = O(n^{-c}),$$

which implies (4) through

$$\mathbb{P}(\#\mathfrak{S}_n \geq 1) = \sum_S \mathbb{E} [(\#\mathfrak{S}_n)^{-1} \mid S \in \mathfrak{S}_n] \mathbb{P}(S \in \mathfrak{S}_n).$$

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## “Sobolev spaces” on compact metric spaces and a new class of self-similar sets as examples

JUN KIGAMI

(joint work with Yuka Ota)

A wide variety of “Analysis” has been developed and applied to every area of science since the introduction of differentiation by Newton and Leibniz. However, the emergence of “fractals” as models of natural objects and phenomena has raised the question of how we can tackle analysis on spaces that are nowhere smooth. For example, typical self-similar sets, such as the Sierpinski gasket and carpet, do not possess a differential structure; hence, it is difficult to apply analyses based on differentiation.

To be more exact, let us recall the definition of  $W^{1,p}$ -Sobolev spaces on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Define

$$\mathcal{E}_p(u, v) = \int (\nabla u, \nabla v) |\nabla u|^{p-2} dx = - \int \Delta_p u \cdot v dx,$$

for  $u, v \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , where  $\nabla u$  and  $\nabla v$  are the gradient in the sense of distribution and  $\Delta_p u = \operatorname{div}(|\nabla u|^{p-2}u)$ , where  $\Delta_p$  is called the  $p$ -Laplacian.

Note that

$$\mathcal{E}_p(u, u) = \int |\nabla u|^p dx.$$

Then  $(1, p)$ -Sobolev space  $W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is defined as

$$W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{f | f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^n), \int |\nabla f|^p dx < \infty\}.$$

In this definition, the gradient  $\nabla u$  is indispensable. So how can we extend this in the case of “non-smooth metric spaces”.

One of the answers is to use the local Lipschitz constant of Lipschitz functions as a substitute for derivative. Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. Then the collection of Lipschitz continuous functions are given by

$$LIP(X, d) = \{u | u : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \sup_{x,y \in X, x \neq y} \frac{|f(x) - f(y)|}{d(x, y)} < \infty\}$$

For  $u \in LIP(X, d)$ , define the local Lipschitz constant  $\overline{\nabla}u(x)$  at  $x \in X$  by

$$\overline{\nabla}u(x) = \limsup_{r \downarrow 0} \sup_{y \in B_d(x, r)} \frac{|u(x) - u(y)|}{r}.$$

The rough idea is to use  $\overline{\nabla}u(x)$  as a substitute of  $|\nabla u|$ . Since the middle 1990’s, several authors have pursued this idea and constructed counterparts of  $(1, p)$ -Sobolev spaces on metric spaces. The pioneering works in this direction are Hajlasz[3], Cheeger[2] and Shanmugalingam [10]. In fact, they use a more sophisticated notion called “upper gradient”, which is a generalization of  $\overline{\nabla}u$ , in their work. This direction has been explored intensively over the years, and one can see the landscape of this theory in the book [4].

However, recently, in [6, 5], Kajino and Murugan have shown that this theory does not work for some of the well-known self-similar sets like the Sierpinski carpet and the Vicsek set. More precisely, Barlow and Bass constructed the Brownian motion on the Sierpinski gasket in [1]. They have shown that the domain of the Dirichlet form associated with the Brownian motion can not be any of  $(1, 2)$ -Sobolev spaces constructed by the upper gradient theory. Recall that in the case of the Brownian motion on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the domain of the associated Dirichlet form is  $W^{1,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ .

So what is the proper definition of “Sobolev” spaces on such spaces as the Sierpinski carpet and the Vicsek set? Our naive idea comes from the following observation. For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , define

$$\mathcal{E}_p^n(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{2^n} \left| f\left(\frac{i-1}{2^n}\right) - f\left(\frac{i}{2^n}\right) \right|^p.$$

Then we have the following elementary fact: iff  $f \in C^1([0, 1])$  for  $p \geq 1$ , then

$$(2^{p-1})^n \mathcal{E}_p^n(f) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 |\nabla f|^p dx.$$

In fact, we can show the above fact even if  $p > 1$  and  $f \in W^{1,p}([0, 1])$ . In light of the above equation, we have an alternative definition of  $W^{1,p}([0, 1])$  for  $p > 1$  as follows;

$$W^{1,p}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{f | f \in C([0, 1]), (2^{p-1})^n \mathcal{E}_p^n(f) \text{ is convergent as } n \rightarrow \infty\}.$$

This gives a definition of the Sobolev space without using the derivation  $\nabla f$ .

From the above observation, our idea to define ‘‘Sobolev spaces’’ on a general compact metric space  $(X, d)$  is as follows:

Approximate the compact metric space  $(X, d)$  by a sequence of discrete graphs  $\{(T_m, E_m)\}_{m \geq 0}$ , where  $T_m$  and  $E_m$  are collections of vertices and edges respectively. Then define a discrete  $p$ -energy of a function  $f : T_m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$\mathcal{E}_p^n(f) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(x,y) \in E_n} |f(x) - f(y)|^p.$$

If there exists a scaling constant  $\sigma_p$  such that

$$\{f | f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (\sigma_p)^n \mathcal{E}_p^n(f) \text{ is ‘‘convergent’’ in some sense.}\}$$

is a nice function space possessing the properties of the ordinary  $(1, p)$ -Sobolev spaces on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the above function space is a  $(1, p)$ -Sobolev space on the metric space  $(X, d)$ .

The first part, which is the construction of a sequence of graphs, can be done by the theory of partitions of metric spaces studied in [7]. In [8], we pursued the above idea to define a counterpart of the Sobolev space and obtained the notion of ‘‘ **$p$ -conductive homogeneity**’’ as the condition ensuring the realization of the construction of  $(1, p)$ -Sobolev space on a metric space  $(X, d)$  through the above idea. The key notions are the conductance constant and the neighbor disparity constant. In particular, if a metric space has 2-conductive homogeneity and  $\dim_{ARC}(X, d) > 2$ , where  $\dim_{ARC}(X, d)$  is the Ahlfors regular conformal dimension of  $(X, d)$ , the constructed  $(1, 2)$ -Sobolev space is a domain of a non-trivial diffusion process, which may be called the Brownian motion. (The Ahlfors regular conformal dimension is the quasi-symmetric invariant of metric spaces. For its definition, see [7] for example.)

Once we have established the notion of the conductive homogeneity, it is important to have a variety of new examples having the property. Without them, the theory is like a gorgeous apartment with no residents. In this aspect of the study, we established a new class of planar self-similar sets, called locally symmetric polygon-based self-similar set, in the joint paper [9] with Y. Ota. Typical examples of locally symmetric polygon-based self-similar sets are shown in Figure 1. Those examples have no global symmetry, but they are  $p$ -conductively homogeneous for  $p > \dim_{ARC}(X, d)$ , where  $\dim_{ARC}(X, d)$  is the Hausdorff dimension of  $(X, d)$ . In particular, since  $\dim_{ARC}(X, d) < 2$ , we have constructed ‘‘Brownian motions’’ on them.

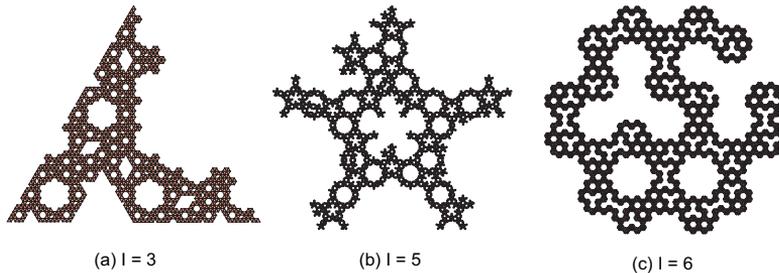


FIGURE 1. Locally symmetric polygon-based self-similar sets

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## On the energy image density conjecture of Bouleau and Hirsch

MATHAV MURUGAN

(joint work with Sylvester Eriksson-Bique)

We report on the recent affirmative resolution of the energy image density conjecture of Bouleau and Hirsch (1986) [5, Theorem 1.7], [1, p. 251]. This conjecture generalizes a foundational result in Malliavin calculus: the non-degeneracy of the Malliavin matrix of a random variable implies absolute continuity of its law. This property is a key step in Malliavin’s probabilistic proof of Hörmander’s hypoellipticity theorem. Going beyond the original framework of Dirichlet structures, we establish the energy image density property in a unified setting that includes classical Dirichlet forms, Sobolev spaces defined via upper gradients, and self-similar

energies on fractals. As an application of independent interest, we show that the martingale dimension of a diffusion satisfying a sub-Gaussian heat kernel estimate is finite, thereby verifying a recent conjecture [6, Conjecture 3.12]. As another application, we provide a new proof of Cheeger’s conjecture on the Hausdorff dimension of images of differentiability charts in PI spaces [3, Conjecture 4.63].

For a precise statement of this conjecture, we recall the relevant definitions below.

**Definition 1.** A Dirichlet structure  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  is a probability space  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu)$  along with a quadratic form  $(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  on  $L^2(X, \mu)$  that satisfies the following properties.

- (i) (densely defined, non-negative definite, quadratic form)  $\mathcal{E} : \mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is bilinear, where  $\mathcal{F}$  is a dense subspace of  $L^2(X, \mu)$  and  $\mathcal{E}(f, f) \geq 0$  for all  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- (ii) (closed form)  $(\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  is a closed form; that is,  $\mathcal{F}$  is a Hilbert space equipped with the inner product

$$\mathcal{E}_1(f, g) := \mathcal{E}(f, g) + \langle f, g \rangle_{L^2(\mu)}, \quad \text{for all } f, g \in \mathcal{F}.$$

- (iii) (Markovian property)  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  implies that  $\tilde{f} := 0 \vee (f \wedge 1) \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{E}(\tilde{f}, \tilde{f}) \leq \mathcal{E}(f, f)$ .
- (iv)  $\mathbf{1} \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1}) = 0$ , where  $\mathbf{1}$  is the constant function on  $X$  that is identically one.
- (v) (existence of carré du champ operator) For all  $f \in \mathcal{F} \cap L^\infty(m)$ , there exists  $\gamma(f, f) \in L^1(m)$  such that for all  $h \in \mathcal{F} \cap L^\infty(m)$ , we have

$$\mathcal{E}(fh, f) - \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{E}(h, f^2) = \int h\gamma(f, f) d\mu.$$

- (vi) (strong locality) For all  $f, g \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $(f + a)g = 0$  implies  $\mathcal{E}(f, g) = 0$ .

By [2, Proposition I.4.1.3], for any Dirichlet structure  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  there exists a unique positive symmetric and continuous bilinear form  $\gamma : \mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{F} \rightarrow L^1(\mu)$  (called the carré du champ operator) such that

$$(1) \quad \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{E}(fh, g) + \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{E}(gh, f) - \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{E}(h, fg) = \int h\gamma(f, g) d\mu, \quad \text{for all } f, g, \in \mathcal{F} \cap L^\infty.$$

For a function  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_n) \in \mathcal{F}^n$ , we define the carré du champ matrix  $\gamma(f)$  as the  $n \times n$  matrix

$$(2) \quad \gamma(f) = [\gamma(f_i, f_j)]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

The carré du champ matrix is the natural generalization of the Malliavin matrix to the setting of strongly local Dirichlet forms. In the special case of the Ornstein–Uhlenbeck Dirichlet form on Wiener space, this carré du champ matrix coincides with the classical Malliavin matrix. We refer to [2, Definition II.2.3.3] and [7, p. 92] for the definitions of the Ornstein–Uhlenbeck Dirichlet form on Wiener space and Malliavin matrix respectively. Hence the energy image density property in Definition 2 and Conjecture 3 below can be viewed as a broad generalization

of Malliavin’s criterion for absolute continuity of the law of a random variable on Wiener space using non-degeneracy of the Malliavin matrix under minimal regularity assumption.

Next, we recall the energy image density property introduced by Bouleau and Hirsch.

**Definition 2.** *Let  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  be a Dirichlet structure with the associated carré du champ operator  $\gamma : \mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{F} \rightarrow L^1(\mu)$ . We say that the Dirichlet structure  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  satisfies the energy image density property, if for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f \in \mathcal{F}^n$ , we have*

$$(3) \quad f_*(\mathbf{1}_{\{\det(\gamma(f))>0\}} \cdot \mu) \ll \mathcal{L}_n,$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_n$  is the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Let us briefly explain the condition  $\det(\gamma(f)) > 0$  in (3). Consider the Dirichlet form for Brownian motion of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  given by  $\mathcal{E}(g, g) = \int |\nabla g|^2 dx$  for all  $g \in \mathcal{F} = W^{1,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , where  $\nabla g$  denotes the distributional gradient of  $g$ . Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a smooth function whose components are in the Sobolev space  $W^{1,2}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ . In this case,  $\gamma(f_i, f_j) = \nabla f_i \cdot \nabla f_j$  and hence the condition  $\det(\gamma(f))(x) > 0$  is equivalent to the statement that the differential  $Df$  of  $f$  at  $x$  is surjective, or equivalently,  $f$  is a submersion at  $x$ . For an abstract Dirichlet form, this condition can be interpreted more generally as requiring that  $f$  ‘varies in all infinitesimal directions’ at  $x$ . Intuitively, the invertibility of the carré du champ matrix ensures that  $f$  has enough local variability so that its image is sufficiently ‘spread out’, a viewpoint that directly motivates the energy image density condition in more abstract settings.

The Bouleau–Hirsch conjecture [1, p. 251] is stated as follows.

**Conjecture 3** (EID conjecture). *Every Dirichlet structure satisfies the energy image density property.*

The main result of [5] is the positive answer to Bouleau–Hirsch conjecture.

**Theorem 4.** *Let  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{F})$  be a Dirichlet structure with the associated carré du champ operator  $\gamma : \mathcal{F} \times \mathcal{F} \rightarrow L^1(\mu)$ . For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\varphi \in \mathcal{F}^n$ , we have*

$$f_*(\mathbf{1}_{\{\det(\gamma(\varphi))>0\}} \cdot \mu) \ll \mathcal{L}_n,$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_n$  is the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\gamma(\varphi)$  is the carré du champ matrix as defined in (2).

A key ingredient in the proof is a deep structure theorem of measures and normal currents in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  developed by De Philippis and Rindler [4, Corollary 1.12] recalled below.

**Theorem 5.** [4, Corollary 1.12] *Let  $T_1 = \vec{T}_1 \|T_1\|, \dots, T_n = \vec{T}_n \|T_n\|$  be one-dimensional normal currents on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that there exists a positive Radon measure  $\nu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the following properties:*

- (i)  $\nu \ll \|T_i\|$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ;
- (ii) For  $\nu$ -a.e.  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\text{span}\{\vec{T}_1(x), \dots, \vec{T}_n(x)\} = \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Then  $\nu \ll \mathcal{L}_n$ .

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### Absolutely continuous curves in kinetic optimal transport

JAN MAAS

(joint work with Giovanni Brigati, Filippo Quattrocchi)

The classical notion of absolute continuity can be naturally generalised to curves in metric spaces: A curve  $\gamma : (0, T) \rightarrow X$  with values in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be 2-absolutely continuous if there exists  $\alpha \in L^2(0, T)$  such that

$$d(\gamma(s), \gamma(t)) \leq \int_s^t \alpha(r) dr$$

for all  $0 < s < t < T$ . A central result in the field of Optimal Transport [1] gives a characterisation of 2-absolutely continuous curves in the Wasserstein space  $\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbf{R}^d)$ , the space of probability measures on  $\mathbf{R}^d$  having finite second moment endowed with the  $L^2$ -Wasserstein metric  $W_2$ . (Recall that

$$W_2(\mu, \nu)^2 := \inf \mathbf{E}|X - Y|^2,$$

where the infimum runs over all random variables  $(X, Y)$  with  $\text{law}(X) = \mu$  and  $\text{law}(Y) = \nu$ .) The result asserts that for a weakly continuous curve  $t \mapsto \mu_t \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbf{R}^d)$  the following statements are equivalent:

- (1)  $t \mapsto \mu_t$  is 2-absolutely continuous in the Wasserstein space  $(\mathcal{P}_2(\mathbf{R}^d), W_2)$ ;
- (2)  $t \mapsto \mu_t$  solves the continuity equation  $\partial_t \mu + \nabla \cdot (v\mu) = 0$  for some vector

$$\text{field } v \text{ satisfying } \int_0^T \int_{\mathbf{R}^d} |v(t, x)|^2 d\mu_t(x) dt < \infty.$$

This result provides a bridge between the metric geometry of the Wasserstein space and a concrete class of partial differential equations.

It is natural to ask for an analogous result in kinetic theory, where the continuity equation is replaced by the Vlasov equation

$$\partial_t \mu + v \cdot \nabla_x \mu + \nabla_v \cdot (F\mu) = 0.$$

This equation describes a time-evolving measure  $\mu_t(dx, dv)$  on position-velocity space driven by a time-dependent acceleration field  $F_t(x, v)$ . Instead of the Wasserstein metric  $W_2$ , we consider a natural second-order discrepancy  $C_T$  between probability measures on position-velocity space, which depends nontrivially on the length of the chosen time horizon  $T > 0$ . More precisely, for  $\mu, \nu \in \mathcal{P}_2(\mathbf{R}^{2d})$  we define

$$C_T(\mu, \nu)^2 := \inf \mathbf{E} \left[ \frac{1}{12} \left| \frac{Y - X}{T} - \frac{V + W}{2} \right|^2 + |V - W|^2 \right].$$

The infimum runs over all random variables  $((X, V), (Y, W))$  with  $\text{law}(X, Y) = \mu$  and  $\text{law}(Y, W) = \nu$ . This object appears in earlier work on variational discretisations of kinetic Fokker–Planck equations [5, 3, 4]. The underlying cost function, which may look mysterious at first glance, arises naturally from the theory of large deviations: it appears in the (nonisotropic Gaussian) heat kernel of the Kolmogorov diffusion  $\partial_t \mu + v \cdot \nabla_x \mu = \Delta \mu$ , just as the isotropic quadratic cost function  $|x - y|^2$  defining the 2-Wasserstein metric features in the heat kernel of the usual diffusion equation  $\partial_t \mu = \Delta \mu$ .

While  $C_T$  is not a metric, it is natural to declare a curve of measures  $t \mapsto \mu_t$  to be absolutely continuous with respect to  $(C_T)_T$  if there exists  $\alpha \in L^2(0, T)$  such that

$$C_{t-s}(\mu_s, \mu_t) \leq \int_s^t \alpha(r) dr$$

for all  $s < t$ . One of our main results [2] asserts that, under appropriate technical assumptions, these absolutely continuous curves are exactly those that satisfy the Vlasov equation  $\partial_t \mu + v \cdot \nabla_x \mu + \nabla_v \cdot (F\mu) = 0$  for some acceleration field  $F$  with  $\int_0^T \int_{\mathbf{R}^{2d}} |F(t, x, v)|^2 d\mu_t(x, v) dt < \infty$ . This result provides a natural kinetic counterpart to the characterisation of absolutely continuous curves in the Wasserstein space, potentially allowing for further applications of optimal transport in kinetic theory.

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### Cutoff for underdamped Langevin dynamics

MAX FATHI

(joint work with Arnaud Guillin, Cyril Labbé, Justin Salez)

This talk presented some results on cutoff for underdamped (or kinetic) Langevin dynamics, building up on the recent work of Salez [3] on cutoff for nonnegatively curved diffusion processes.

The dynamics considered are of the form

$$(1) \quad dX_t = V_t dt; \quad dV_t = -\nabla W(X_t) - V_t + \sqrt{2}dB_t$$

where  $(X_t, V_t)$  is the position and velocity, and  $W$  a potential. Its invariant measure is of the form

$$\pi(dx, dv) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-W(x) - |v|^2/2) dx dv.$$

The cutoff phenomenon is an abrupt convergence to equilibrium for sequences of Markovian dynamics, based on the notion of (total variation) mixing time

$$t_{mix}^{(S)}(\varepsilon) := \inf\{t \geq 0; d_{TV}(\mathcal{L}(X_t, V_t), \pi) \leq \varepsilon \quad \forall (x_0, v_0) \in S\}$$

where  $S$  is a set of possible initial data, which in compact settings is often simply the whole state space, but here we consider non-compact spaces, so we must take its choice into account. Cutoff is said to occur when, for a sequence of Markovian dynamics, we have

$$\frac{t_{mix}^{(n, S_n)}(\varepsilon) - t_{mix}^{(n, S_n)}(1 - \varepsilon)}{t_{mix}^{(n, S_n)}(1 - \varepsilon)} \rightarrow 0 \quad \forall \varepsilon \in (0, 1/2).$$

This property means that the first order behavior of the mixing time does not depend on  $\varepsilon$ , and that the time it takes to go from distance  $1 - \varepsilon$  to  $\varepsilon$  to equilibrium is much smaller than the time it takes for the distance to start being smaller than 1 (which is the maximum value). It depends on the sequence of dynamic, as well as the choice of sequence of initial data.

The varentropy method for cutoff of [3] is combined with certain estimates from hypocoercivity theory, such as Wasserstein contraction [1] and short-time entropic regularization [2], to obtain

**Theorem 1.** *Consider a sequence of dynamics of the form (1), with varying dimension  $d_n$ , potential  $W_n$  and set of initial data  $S_n \subset B_{\mathbb{R}^{2d_n}}(0, R_n)$ . Assume that the equilibrium measures are centered, and that  $m < \nabla^2 W_n < M$  for  $0 < m < M$  such that  $\sqrt{M} - \sqrt{m} < 1$ . Then cutoff occurs if*

$$t_{mix}^{(n, S_n)}(1 - \varepsilon) \gg \log \log(d_n + R_n^2).$$

As an application, we obtain cutoff for the classical mean-field Langevin dynamics for potentials satisfying the assumptions, including for example

$$W(x_1, \dots, x_N) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N |x_i|^2 + \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i \neq j} f(x_i - x_j)$$

as soon as  $\|\nabla^2 f\|_\infty$  is not too large and the set of initial data is a ball of radius of order  $\sqrt{N}$  (which is the natural scale in this problem). These dynamics have a mixing time of order at least  $\log N$  (because of propagation of chaos), so the criterion for cutoff is satisfied.

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**Fine properties of upper gradient-based Sobolev spaces in metric measure spaces, with application to Dirichlet boundary value problems**

NAGESWARI SHANMUGALINGAM

The talk gives an overview of a version of Sobolev spaces of functions on non-smooth metric measure spaces using the notion of *p-weak upper gradients* - a notion first proposed by Heinonen and Koskela [1]. The context is that of a metric space  $(X, d)$ , equipped with a Borel regular measure  $\mu$ . A measurable function  $u : X \rightarrow [-\infty, \infty]$  is said to have a non-negative Borel regular function  $g : X \rightarrow [0, \infty]$  as an upper gradient if

$$|u(\gamma(b)) - u(\gamma(a))| \leq \int_a^b g(\gamma(t)) |\dot{\gamma}(t)| dt$$

whenever  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  is a rectifiable curve (that is, a continuous map of finite length). In the above, we also require that if *at least* one of  $u(\gamma(b))$  and  $u(\gamma(a))$  is not a real number, then the right-hand side of the above integral must be infinite.

Unlike in the case of classical Sobolev spaces in Euclidean domains, and horizontal Sobolev spaces in domains in Carnot groups, we do not allow for perturbation of such a function  $u$  arbitrarily on a set of measure zero; to allow for arbitrary perturbation, the set must, in addition to being of measure zero, also have the property that the collection of all rectifiable curves in  $X$  that intersect the set must have zero  $p$ -modulus; with such a relaxation, we consider the Newton-Sobolev class  $N^{1,p}(X)$  of equivalence classes of functions on  $X$ . In the Euclidean and Carnot setting as well as in Riemannian setting, these function classes consist of functions that belong to an equivalence class in the classical Sobolev space but with fine continuity property. More on this can be found in the book [2].

In the second part of the talk we discuss how this new way of looking at Sobolev spaces also allow us to consider solutions to Dirichlet problems in Euclidean domains whose boundary need not be Lipschitz regular. If  $\Omega$  is a domain with the complement  $X \setminus \Omega$  of the domain of positive measure (it suffices to have positive  $p$ -capacity), the key test-class in dealing with such a Dirichlet problem is to consider the class of functions  $u$  in  $N^{1,p}(\Omega)$  for which the zero-extension of  $u$  gives a function in  $N^{1,p}(X)$ . What this means is that for  $p$ -modulus almost every rectifiable curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  with  $\gamma(a) \in \Omega$  and  $\gamma(b) \in X \setminus \Omega$ , and for each  $t_0 \in \gamma^{-1}(\partial\Omega)$ , we

have  $\lim_{[a,b] \ni t \rightarrow t_0} u(\gamma(t)) = 0$ . Thus we can make sense of what it means for two Newton-Sobolev functions on  $\Omega$  to have the *same boundary data* in formulating the Dirichlet problem. This approach was first explored in [3].

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## Participants

**Prof. Dr. Patricia Alonso Ruiz**

Fakultät für Mathematik und  
Informatik  
Friedrich-Schiller-Universität  
07743 Jena  
GERMANY

**Dr. Sebastian Andres**

Institut für Mathematische Stochastik  
Technische Universität Braunschweig  
Universitätsplatz 2  
38106 Braunschweig  
GERMANY

**Dr. Rotem Assouline**

Institut de Mathématiques de Jussieu  
(IMJ-PRG)  
Sorbonne Université  
4, Place Jussieu  
75252 Paris Cedex 05  
FRANCE

**Prof. Dr. Franck Barthe**

Institut de Mathématiques de Toulouse  
Université de Toulouse  
118, Route de Narbonne  
31062 Toulouse Cedex 9  
FRANCE

**Prof. Dr. Fabrice Baudoin**

Matematisk Institut  
Aarhus Universitet  
Ny Munkegade 118  
8000 Aarhus C  
DENMARK

**Pierre Bizeul**

c/o Prof. Steven Gelbart  
Dept. of Maths  
Weizmann Institute of Sciences  
Rehovot 76100  
ISRAEL

**Dr. Marie Bormann**

Hausdorff Center for Mathematics  
Universität Bonn  
Endenicher Allee 62  
53115 Bonn  
GERMANY

**Prof. Dr. Gilles Carron**

Département de Mathématiques  
“Jean Leray”  
UMR 6629  
Nantes Université  
2, rue de la Houssinière  
44322 Nantes Cedex 03  
FRANCE

**Prof. Dr. Linan Chen**

Dept. of Mathematics and Statistics  
McGill University  
805 Sherbrooke St West  
Burnside Hall 1005  
Montréal QC H3A 0B9  
CANADA

**Prof. Dr. Zhen-Qing Chen**

Department of Mathematics  
University of Washington  
Seattle WA 98195  
UNITED STATES

**Prof. Dr. Dario Cordero-Erausquin**

Institut de Mathématiques de Jussieu  
Sorbonne Université  
4, Place Jussieu  
75252 Paris Cedex 05  
FRANCE

**Benoit Dagallier**

Department of Mathematics  
Imperial College of Science,  
Technology and Medicine  
180 Queen's Gate, Huxley Bldg.  
London SW7 2BZ  
UNITED KINGDOM

**Prof. Dr. Lorenzo Dello Schiavo**

Università degli Studi di Roma  
"Tor Vergata"  
Viale della Ricerca Scientifica 1  
00133 Roma 00133  
ITALY

**Prof. Dr. Jean Dominique  
Deuschel**

Institut für Mathematik  
Sekt. MA 7-4  
Technische Universität Berlin  
Straße des 17. Juni 136  
10623 Berlin  
GERMANY

**Prof. Dr. Matthias Erbar**

Fakultät für Mathematik  
Universität Bielefeld  
Postfach 100131  
33501 Bielefeld  
GERMANY

**Dr. Max Fathi**

Laboratoire Jacques-Louis Lions &  
Laboratoire de Probabilités, Statistique  
et Modélisation  
Batiment Sophie Germain  
8, Place Aurélie Nemours  
75013 Paris Cedex  
FRANCE

**Dr. Mira Gordin**

Division of Applied Mathematics  
Brown University  
Box F  
182 George Street  
Providence, RI 02912  
UNITED STATES

**Prof. Dr. Masha Gordina**

Department of Mathematics  
University of Connecticut  
341 Mansfield Road  
Storrs CT 06269-3009  
UNITED STATES

**Dr. Nathael Gozlan**

Université Paris Cité  
MAP 5  
45 rue des Saints Pères  
75006 Paris  
FRANCE

**Assoc. Prof. Dr. Karen  
Habermann**

Department of Statistics  
University of Warwick  
Coventry CV4 7AL  
UNITED KINGDOM

**Prof. Dr. David P. Herzog**

Dept. of Mathematics  
Iowa State University  
Carver Hall  
411 Morrill Rd.  
Ames IA, 50011  
UNITED STATES

**Prof. Dr. Martin Huesmann**

Institut für Mathematische Stochastik  
Universität Münster  
Orléans-Ring 10  
48149 Münster  
GERMANY

**Erik Hupp**

Institut für Angewandte Mathematik  
Universität Bonn  
53115 Bonn  
GERMANY

**Dr. Naotaka Kajino**

Research Institute for Mathematical  
Sciences  
Kyoto University  
Kitashirakawa-Oiwake-cho, Sakyo-ku  
Kyoto 606-8502  
JAPAN

**Prof. Dr. Jun Kigami**

Graduate School of Informatics  
Kyoto University  
Yoshida-honmachi, Sakyo-ku  
Kyoto 606-8501  
JAPAN

**Prof. Dr. Bo'az Klartag**

Department of Mathematics  
The Weizmann Institute of Science  
P. O. Box 26  
76 100 Rehovot  
ISRAEL

**Dr. Eva Köpfer**

Institut für angewandte Mathematik  
(IaM)  
Universität Bonn  
Endenicher Allee 20  
53115 Bonn  
GERMANY

**Prof. Dr. Takashi Kumagai**

Department of Mathematics  
Waseda University  
Ohkubo 3-4-1  
Shinjuku-ku  
Tokyo 169-8555  
JAPAN

**Dr. Joseph Lehec**

Laboratoire Mathématiques et  
Applications  
Université de Poitiers  
BP 30179  
Site du Futuroscope, Teoport 2  
11, Boulevard Marie et Pierre Curie  
86073 Poitiers Cedex 9  
FRANCE

**Zhenhao Li**

Fakultät für Mathematik  
Universität Bielefeld  
Universitätsstr. 25  
33615 Bielefeld  
GERMANY

**Dr. Jessica Lin**

Department of Mathematics and  
Statistics  
McGill University  
Burnside Hall 1217  
805 Sherbrooke Street West  
Montréal QC H3A 0B9  
CANADA

**Prof. Dr. Jan Maas**

IST Austria  
Am Campus 1  
3400 Klosterneuburg  
AUSTRIA

**Prof. Dr. Tai Alexis Melcher**

Department of Mathematics  
University of Virginia  
141 Cabell Drive, Kerchof Hall  
P.O. Box 400137  
Charlottesville, VA 22904-4137  
UNITED STATES

**Prof. Dr. Emanuel Milman**

Department of Mathematics  
TECHNION  
Israel Institute of Technology  
Amado 630  
Haifa 32000  
ISRAEL

**Dr. Ilaria Mondello**

Faculté de Sciences et Technologie  
Université Paris-Est, Créteil  
Bâtiment P3  
61, Avenue du General de Gaulle  
94010 Créteil Cedex  
FRANCE

**Dr. Mathav Murugan**

Department of Mathematics  
University of British Columbia  
121-1984 Mathematics Road  
Vancouver BC V6T 1Z2  
CANADA

**Dr. Shin-ichi Ohta**

Department of Mathematics  
Graduate School of Science  
Osaka University  
Machikaneyama 1-1, Toyonaka  
560-0043 Osaka 560-0043  
JAPAN

**Dr. Wei Qian**

Department of Mathematics  
University of Hong Kong  
Pokfulam Road  
Hong Kong  
CHINA

**Prof. Dr. Laurent Saloff-Coste**

Department of Mathematics  
Cornell University  
Malott Hall  
Ithaca, NY 14853-7901  
UNITED STATES

**Prof. Dr. Giuseppe Savaré**

Department of Decision Sciences,  
Bocconi University  
Via Roentgen 1  
Milano 20136  
ITALY

**Dr. Nageswari Shanmugalingam**

Dept. of Mathematical Sciences  
University of Cincinnati  
P.O. Box 210025  
Cincinnati OH 45221-0025  
UNITED STATES

**Prof. Dr. Theo Sturm**

Institut für angewandte Mathematik  
Universität Bonn  
Endenicher Allee 60  
53115 Bonn  
GERMANY

**Prof. Dr. Anton Thalmaier**

Department of Mathematics  
University of Luxembourg  
Campus Belval, Maison du Nombre  
6, Avenue de la Fonte  
4364 Esch-sur-Alzette  
LUXEMBOURG

**Prof. Dr. Max von Renesse**

Mathematisches Institut  
Universität Leipzig  
Augustusplatz 10  
04109 Leipzig  
GERMANY

**Prof. Dr. Jian Wang**

School of Mathematics and Statistics  
Fujian Normal University  
South 603, Technology Building  
Qishan Campus  
No. 1 Keji Road, Shangjie, Minhou  
Fuzhou 350 117  
CHINA

**Dr. Kai-Hsiang Wang**

Faculty of Mathematics  
Technion – I.I.T.  
Haifa 32000  
ISRAEL