The Mixing Time of the Dikin Walk in a Polytope — A Simple Proof

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Abstract

 \bigcirc We study the mixing time of the Dikin walk in a polytope — a random walk based on the log-barrier from the interior point method literature. This walk, and a close variant, were studied by Narayanan (2016) and Kannan-Narayanan (2012). Bounds on its mixing time are important for algorithms for sampling and optimization over polytopes. Here, we provide a simple proof of their result that this random walk mixes in time O(mn) for an n-dimensional polytope

Keywords: Polytopes, Sampling, Volume computation, Random walks, Interior point methods.

We study the mixing time of the point method literature. This (2012). Bounds on its mixing to we provide a simple proof of the described using *m* inequalities. *Keywords:* Polytopes, Samplin **1. Introduction** Sampling a point from the polytope $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is an extensiva a crucial ingredient in several c ing convex bodies. Towards thi ergodic and reversible random tionary distribution is uniform of such a walk determines its pends on the isoperimetric con the transition function of the v fluential work of Dyer *et al.* [3] of work on faster and faster al approximately uniform point f over, since convex bodies show there is a wide body of work co-isoperimetry in convex bodies matics and optimization. One such important conne method literature was present-and Narayanan [6] and Naray *Dikin walk* in a polytope. Rou Sampling a point from the uniform distribution on a polytope $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is an extensively-studied problem and is a crucial ingredient in several computational tasks involving convex bodies. Towards this, typically, one sets up an ergodic and reversible random walk inside K whose stationary distribution is uniform over K. The mixing time of such a walk determines its efficacy, and, in turn, depends on the isoperimetric constant of K with respect to the transition function of the walk. Starting with the influential work of Dyer *et al.* [3], there has been a long line of work on faster and faster algorithms for generating an approximately uniform point from a convex body. Moreover, since convex bodies show up in a variety of areas, there is a wide body of work connecting random walks and isoperimetry in convex bodies to several areas in mathe-

One such important connection to the interior point method literature was presented in the works of Kannan and Narayanan [6] and Narayanan [9] who proposed the Dikin walk in a polytope. Roughly, the uniform version of the Dikin walk, considered by [6], when at a point $x \in K$, computes the *Dikin ellipsoid* at x, and moves to a random point in it after a suitable Metropolis filter. The Metropolis step ensures that the walk is ergodic and reversible. The Gaussian version of the Dikin walk, considered by [9], picks the new point from a Gaussian distribution centered at x with its covariance given by the Dikin ellipsoid at x, and applies a suitable Metropolis filter. The Dikin ellipsoid at a point x is the ellipsoid described by the Hessian of

the log-barrier function at x. It was introduced by Dikin in the first interior point method for linear programming [2].

Several virtues of the Dikin ellipsoid (see [10, 11, 7]) were used by [6, 9] to prove that the mixing time of the Dikin walk is O(mn) starting from a warm start, when K is described by m inequality constraints. Recall that a distribution over K is said to be a warm start if its density is bounded from above by a constant relative to the uniform distribution on K. Roughly, the proof (for either walk) consists of two parts: (1) an isoperimetric inequality, proved by Lovász [8], for convex bodies in terms of a distance introduced by Hilbert, and (2) a bound on the changes in the sampling distributions of the Dikin walk in terms of the Hilbert distance. The bound in (2) was the key technical contribution of [6, 9] towards establishing the mixing time of the Dikin walk. We present a simple proof of this bound for the Gaussian Dikin walk implying that it mixes in time O(mn). Our proof uses well-known facts about Gaussians, and concentration of Gaussian polynomials.

1.1. Dikin walk on Polytopes

Suppose $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a bounded polytope with a nonempty interior, described by m inequalities, $a_i^{\top} x \ge b_i$, for $i \in [m]$. We use the notation $x \in K$ to denote that x is in the interior of K. The log-barrier function for K at $x \in K$ is $F(x) := -\sum_{i \in [m]} \log(a_i^\top x - b_i)$. Let H(x) denote the Hessian of F at x, *i.e.*, $H(x) := \sum_{i \in [m]} \frac{1}{(a_i^\top x - b_i)^2} a_i a_i^\top$. For all $x \in K$, H(x) is a positive definite matrix, and defines the local norm at x, denoted $\|\cdot\|_x$, as $\|v\|_x^2 := v^\top H(x)v$. The ellipsoid $\{z : \|z - x\|_x \leq 1\}$ is known as the Dikin ellipsoid at x.

From a point $x \in K$, the next point z in the Dikin walk is sampled from the Dikin ellipsoid at x. The uni-

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form Dikin walk, considered by [6], sampled the new point z from the uniform distribution in this ellipsoid. In the Gaussian Dikin walk, considered by [9], z is sampled from g_x , a multivariate Gaussian distribution centered at x with covariance matrix $\frac{r^2}{n}H(x)^{-1}$, where r is a constant. Thus, the density of the distribution is given by

$$g_x(z) = \sqrt{\det H(x)} \left(\frac{n}{2\pi r^2}\right)^{n/2} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{n}{2r^2} \cdot \|z - x\|_x^2\right)$$

Equivalently, the next point z is given by

$$z = x + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} \left(H(x) \right)^{-1/2} g$$

where g is an n-dimensional vector with each coordinate of g sampled as an independent standard gaussian $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

In order to convert this into a random walk that stays inside K, with its stationary distribution as the uniform distribution on K, we apply the Metropolis filter to obtain the transition probability density p_x of the Gaussian Dikin walk: $\forall z \neq x$, if $z \in K$, $p_x(z) = \min\{g_x(z), g_z(x)\}$ (the walk stays at x with the remaining probability).

1.2. Hilbert Metric, Isoperimetry, and Mixing Time

We introduce the distance function which plays an important role in establishing the mixing time of the Dikin walk. Given two points $x, y \in K$, let p, q be the end points of the chord in K passing through x, y, such that the points lie in the order p, x, y, q. We define $\sigma(x, y) := \frac{|\overline{xy}||\overline{pq}|}{|\overline{px}||\overline{qy}|}$, where $|\overline{xy}|$ denotes the length of the line segment xy. $\log(1 + \sigma(x, y))$ is a metric on K, known as Hilbert metric.

Lovász proved the following theorem for any random walk on K: Suppose for any two initial points $x, y \in K$ that are close in σ distance, the statistical distance of the distributions after one step of the walk each from x and y, is bounded away from 1. Then, the lazy version of the random walk (where we stay at the current point with probability 1/2 at each step) mixes rapidly.

Theorem 1 (Lovász [8]). Consider a reversible random walk in K with its stationary distribution being uniform on K. Suppose $\exists \Delta > 0$ such that for all $x, y \in K$ with $\sigma(x, y) \leq \Delta$, we have $\|p_x - p_y\|_1 \leq 1 - \Omega(1)$, where p_x denotes the distribution after one step of the random walk from x. Then, after $O(\Delta^{-2})$ steps, the lazy version of the walk from a warm start is within 1/4 total variation distance from the uniform distribution on K.

Kannan and Narayanan proved that the transition function of the uniform Dikin walk, p_x , for $x \in int(K)$, satisfies the hypothesis of the theorem above with $\Delta = \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{mn}}\right)$, thus implying that it mixes in O(mn) steps from a warm start. An analogous result for the Gaussian Dikin walk is implicit in the work of Narayanan. Our main contribution is an alternative and simple proof of their main technical contributions. In particular, we prove the following theorem. **Theorem 2.** Let $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2]$. For the Gaussian Dikin walk on K with $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{400} (\log \frac{200}{\varepsilon})^{-3/2}$, for any two points $x, y \in K$ such that $||x - y||_x \leq \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}}$, we have $||p_x - p_y||_1 \leq \varepsilon$.

In order to use this theorem along with Theorem 1 to obtain the claimed mixing time bound, one needs a simple fact that, for any x, y in a polytope K, which is described using m inequalities, $\sigma(x, y) \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} ||x - y||_x$. A proof of this fact is given in the appendix; see Lemma 9.

The following two lemmas are the main ingredients in the proof of Theorem 2: (1) If two points x, y are close in the local norm, *i.e.*, $||x - y||_x \leq \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}}$, then the two Gaussian distributions g_x and g_y are close in statistical distance. (2) If r is small enough (as a function of ε), then for all x, p_x and g_x are ε -close in statistical distance.

Lemma 3. Let $r \leq 1$, and $c \geq 0$ be such that $c \leq \min\{r, \frac{1}{3}\}$. Let $x, y \in K$. If $||x - y||_x \leq \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}$, then $||g_x - g_y||_1 \leq 3c$.

This lemma relies on a well-known fact about the Kullback-Leibler divergence between two multivariate Gaussian distributions, and Pinsker's inequality that bounds the statistical distance between two distributions in terms of their divergence.

Lemma 4. Given $\varepsilon \in [0, 1/2]$, for $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{100} (\log \frac{50}{\varepsilon})^{-3/2}$, we have $\|p_x - g_x\|_1 \leq \varepsilon$.

This lemma, which shows that the Metropolis filter does not change the distribution much, relies on a result on the concentration of Gaussian polynomials, proved using hypercontractivity. Given the above lemmas, Theorem 2 follows by applying triangle inequality.

2. Statistical distance between Gaussians and the local norm

In this section, we present a proof of Lemma 3 that bounds the statistical distance between g_x and g_y for two points x, y that are close in the local norm. We need the following well-known fact about the Kullback-Leibler divergence between two multivariate Gaussian distributions.

Fact 5. Let $G_1 = \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $G_2 = \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$ be two *n*-dimensional Gaussian distributions. Then,

$$D_{KL}(G_2||G_1) = \frac{1}{2} \left(Tr\left(\Sigma_1^{-1}\Sigma_2\right) - n + \log \frac{\det \Sigma_1}{\det \Sigma_2} + (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^\top \Sigma_1^{-1} (\mu_1 - \mu_2) \right),$$

where D_{KL} denotes the Kullback-Leibler divergence

$$D_{KL}(P||Q) = \int \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dP(x).$$

In order to use this theorem, we have to bound the eigenvalues of $H(x)H(y)^{-1}$. For x, y that are close in the local norm, this follows since $H(x) \approx H(y)$.

Proof Lemma 3: From the assumption, we have,

$$\frac{c^2}{n} \ge \|x - y\|_x^2 = \sum_{i \in [m]} \frac{(a_i^\top (x - y))^2}{(a_i^\top x - b_i)^2} \ge \max_{i \in [m]} \frac{(a_i^\top (x - y))^2}{(a_i^\top x - b_i)^2}$$

Thus, for all $i \in [m]$, we have

$$\left(1 - \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \left(a_i^\top x - b_i\right) \le \left(a_i^\top y - b_i\right) \le \left(1 + \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \left(a_i^\top x - b_i\right)$$

By the definition of H, we get,

$$\left(1 - \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 H(y) \preceq H(x) \preceq \left(1 + \frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 H(y).$$

Thus, all eigenvalue $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n > 0$ of $H(x)H(y)^{-1}$, satisfy

$$\left(1-\frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 \le \lambda_i \le \left(1+\frac{c}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2.$$

We can now bound the statistical distance between $g_x = \mathcal{N}\left(x, \frac{r^2}{n}H(x)^{-1}\right)$ and $g_y = \mathcal{N}\left(y, \frac{r^2}{n}H(y)^{-1}\right)$ by using Pinsker's inequality [1, p. 44], which gives that $\|g_x - g_y\|_1^2 \leq 2 \cdot D_{\mathrm{KL}}(g_y||g_x)$. Letting Σ_1, Σ_2 denote the covariance matrices of g_1, g_2 , we can write $\mathrm{Tr}\left(\Sigma_1^{-1}\Sigma_2\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$, and $\log \frac{\det \Sigma_1}{\det \Sigma_2} = \log \frac{1}{\det \Sigma_1^{-1}\Sigma_2} = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{1}{\lambda_i}$.

$$\left\|g_x - g_y\right\|_1^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\lambda_i - 1 + \log\frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right) + \frac{n}{r^2} \left\|x - y\right\|_x^2$$

(Using Fact 5)

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\lambda_i + \frac{1}{\lambda_i} - 2 \right) + \frac{n}{r^2} \|x - y\|_x^2$$
(Using $\log \frac{1}{\lambda} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} - 1$)

$$\leq n \cdot \max\left\{\frac{(2c/\sqrt{n-c^2/n})^2}{(1-c/\sqrt{n})^2}, \frac{(2c/\sqrt{n+c^2/n})^2}{(1+c/\sqrt{n})^2}\right\} + \frac{n}{r^2} \cdot \frac{c^2}{n}.$$

(Using the convexity of $\lambda + \frac{1}{\lambda} - 2$)

$$\leq n \cdot \frac{(2c/\sqrt{n} - c^2/n)^2}{(1 - c/\sqrt{n})^2} + \frac{c^2}{r^2}$$
$$= c^2 \cdot \frac{(2 - c/\sqrt{n})^2}{(1 - c/\sqrt{n})^2} + \frac{c^2}{r^2} \leq \frac{25}{4}c^2 + c^2 \leq 9c^2,$$

where the last line uses $c \leq 1/3, r \leq 1$ and $n \geq 1$.

3. The effect of the Metropolis filter

In this section, we prove Lemma 4 that shows that for any $x \in K$, the statistical distance between the Gaussian distribution g_x and the random walk distribution p_x , obtained by applying the Metropolis filter to g_x , is small. We have,

$$\|p_x(z) - g_x(z)\|_1 = 1 - \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{z \sim g_x} \min\left\{1, \frac{g_z(x)}{g_x(z)}\right\}.$$
 (1)

Given $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2]$, we show that for an appropriate choice of r, the above statistical distance is bounded by ε .

The ratio of g_z and g_x has two terms: one involving the ratio of det H(x) and det H(z), and one involving the difference in local norms $||z - x||_z^2 - ||z - x||_x^2$. Proposition 6 bounds the first by controlling the norm of $\nabla \log \det H(x)$. Proposition 7 bounds the second term by using concentration of Gaussian polynomials.

Proof of Lemma 4: We have,

$$\frac{g_z(x)}{g_x(z)} = \exp\left(-\frac{n}{2r^2} \left(\|z - x\|_z^2 - \|z - x\|_x^2\right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\log\det H(z) - \log\det H(x)\right)\right).$$

From Proposition 6, for $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{4} (2 \log 4/\varepsilon)^{-1/2}$, we have

 $\mathbf{Pr}[\log \det H(z) - \log \det H(x) \ge -\varepsilon/2] \ge 1 - \varepsilon/4.$

Also, from Proposition 7, for $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{100} (\log 50/\varepsilon)^{-3/2}$, we have,

$$\Pr\left[\left\|z-x\right\|_{z}^{2}-\left\|z-x\right\|_{x}^{2}\leq\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\cdot\frac{r^{2}}{n}\right]\geq1-\varepsilon/4.$$

Combining the two using a union bound, we get that except with probability $\varepsilon/2$, we have, $\frac{g_z(x)}{g_x(z)} \ge e^{-\varepsilon/2} \ge 1 - \varepsilon/2$. Thus,

$$\frac{\mathbf{E}}{z \sim g_x} \min\left\{1, \frac{g_z(x)}{g_x(z)}\right\} \ge \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \Pr_{z \sim g_x} \left[\frac{g_z(x)}{g_x(z)} \ge 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right] \\
\ge \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)^2 \ge 1 - \varepsilon.$$

The claim now follows from (1).

Proposition 6. Given $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2]$, for $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{2 \log 1/\varepsilon}}$, and $z \sim g_x$ we have

$$\Pr[\log \det H(z) - \log \det H(x) \ge -2\varepsilon] \ge 1 - \varepsilon.$$

Proof of Proposition 6: Let $V(x) := \frac{1}{2} \log \det H(x)$. From the work of Vaidya [12], we know that V(x) is a convex function. Thus, $V(z) - V(x) \ge (z - x)^{\top} \nabla V(x)$. We know that $z = x + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} (H(x))^{-1/2} g$, where $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_n)$. Thus,

$$V(z) - V(x) \ge \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} g^{\top} \left(H(x) \right)^{-1/2} \nabla V(x).$$

 $g^{\top} (H(x))^{-1/2} \nabla V(x)$ is a Gaussian with mean 0 and variance $\left\| (H(x))^{-1/2} \nabla V(x) \right\|_{2}^{2}$. From Lemma 4.3 in the work of Vaidya and Atkinson [13], it follows that

$$\left\| \left(H(x) \right)^{-1/2} \nabla V(x) \right\|_2^2 \le n.$$

Using standard tail bounds, we get that for all $\lambda > 0$,

$$\mathbf{Pr}[g^{\top}(H(x))^{-1/2}\nabla V(x) \ge -\lambda\sqrt{n}] \ge 1 - \exp(-\lambda^2/2).$$

Picking $\lambda = \sqrt{2 \log 1/\varepsilon}$, and combining, we get, $\mathbf{Pr}[V(z) - V(x) \ge -r\sqrt{2 \log 1/\varepsilon}] \ge 1 - \varepsilon$. For $r \le \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{2 \log 1/\varepsilon}}$, we have $r\sqrt{2 \log 1/\varepsilon} \le \varepsilon$, which gives the claim. \Box

Proposition 7. Given $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2]$, for $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{20} (\log 11/\varepsilon)^{-\frac{3}{2}}$, and $z \sim g_x$, we have,

$$\Pr\left[\left\|z-x\right\|_{z}^{2}-\left\|z-x\right\|_{x}^{2}\leq 2\varepsilon\cdot\frac{r^{2}}{n}\right]\geq 1-\varepsilon.$$

Proof Proposition 7: We have $z = x + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} (H(x))^{-\frac{1}{2}} g$, where $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_n)$. If we let $\hat{a}_i = \frac{1}{a_i^\top x - b_i} (H(x))^{-\frac{1}{2}} a_i$, we get $a_i^\top (z - x) = \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} (a_i^\top x - b_i) \cdot \hat{a}_i^\top g$, and $\sum_{i=1}^m \hat{a}_i \hat{a}_i^\top = \mathbb{I}_n$.

$$\begin{split} \|z - x\|_{z}^{2} - \|z - x\|_{x}^{2} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{m} (a_{i}^{\top}(z - x))^{2} \left(\frac{1}{(a_{i}^{\top}z - b_{i})^{2}} - \frac{1}{(a_{i}^{\top}x - b_{i})^{2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{r^{2}}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{a}_{i}^{\top}g)^{2} \left(\frac{1}{(1 + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}}\hat{a}_{i}^{\top}g)^{2}} - 1 \right) \\ &= \frac{r^{4}}{n^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{a}_{i}^{\top}g)^{4} \left(\frac{2}{(1 + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}}\hat{a}_{i}^{\top}g)} + \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}}\hat{a}_{i}^{\top}g)^{2}} \right) \\ &- \frac{2r^{3}}{n^{3/2}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{a}_{i}^{\top}g)^{3}. \end{split}$$
(2)

We now use concentration of Gaussian polynomials (see Theorem 8) to bound the two terms above. Let $P_1(g) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{a}_i^{\top}g)^3$. From Fact 10, we know $\mathbf{E}_g P_1(g)^2 \leq 15n$. Thus, using Theorem 8, we know that for any $\lambda_1 \geq (\sqrt{2e})^3$,

$$\Pr_{g}\left[|P_{1}(g)| \geq \lambda_{1}\sqrt{15n}\right] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{3}{2e}\lambda_{1}^{2/3}\right).$$

Picking $\lambda_1 = \left(\max\left\{2e, \frac{2e}{3}\log\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\right\}\right)^{3/2}$, and $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2\sqrt{15}\lambda_1}$, we obtain, $\Pr\left[|P_1(g)| \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{2r}\sqrt{n}\right] \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Thus, with probability at least $1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$,

$$-\frac{2r^3}{n^{3/2}}\sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{a}_i^\top g)^3 \le \frac{2r^3}{n^{3/2}} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{2r}\sqrt{n} = \varepsilon \cdot \frac{r^2}{n}.$$
 (3)

Now, we let $P_2(g) := \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{a}_i^\top g)^4$. Again, from Fact 10, we know that $\mathbf{E}_g P_2(g)^2 \leq 105n^2$, and applying Theorem 8, we obtain that for $\lambda_2 = \left(\max\left\{2e, \frac{2e}{4}\log\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\right\}\right)^2$ and $r \leq \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}{\sqrt{8\lambda_2\sqrt{105}}}$, we obtain, $\Pr\left[|P_2(g)| \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{8r^2}n\right] \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Thus, with probability at least $1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

$$\frac{r^4}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{a}_i^\top g)^4 \le \frac{r^4}{n^2} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{8r^2} n = \frac{\varepsilon}{8} \cdot \frac{r^2}{n}.$$

Note that this also implies that for all i, $\frac{r}{\sqrt{n}}|\hat{a}_i^{\top}g| \leq \left(\frac{\varepsilon r^2}{8n}\right)^{1/4} \leq \frac{1}{2}$, where the last inequality holds for all $r \leq 1$. Thus, with probability at least $1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$, we have

$$\frac{r^4}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{a}_i^\top g)^4 \left(\frac{2}{(1 + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} \hat{a}_i^\top g)} + \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{r}{\sqrt{n}} \hat{a}_i^\top g)^2} \right) \\ \le 8 \frac{r^4}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{a}_i^\top g)^4 \le \varepsilon \cdot \frac{r^2}{n}.$$

Combining this with Equations (2) and (3), and applying a union bound, we get that with probability at least $1 - \varepsilon$

$$||z - x||_{z}^{2} - ||z - x||_{x}^{2} \le 2\varepsilon \cdot \frac{r^{2}}{n}$$

Finally, we verify that for $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2]$, any $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{20} (\log 11/\varepsilon)^{-\frac{3}{2}}$ satisfies the conditions

$$r \leq \min\left\{1, \frac{\varepsilon}{2\sqrt{15\lambda_1}}, \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}{\sqrt{8\lambda_2\sqrt{105}}}\right\}.$$

Theorem 8. (see Janson [5, Thm 6.7]) Let P(g) be a degree q polynomial, where $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_n)$. Then, for any $t \geq \sqrt{2e^q}$, we have,

$$\Pr_{g}\left[|P(g)| \ge t \left(\mathbf{E} P(g)^{2}\right)^{1/2}\right] \le \exp\left(-\frac{q}{2e}t^{2/q}\right).$$

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metric

Lemma 9 ([6]). For any $x, y \in K$, we have $\sigma(x, y) \geq$ $\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \|x - y\|_x$.

Proof Lemma 9: Let p, x, y, q be the points in order on the chord of K that passes through x, y with p, q being the end-points of the chord. Thus,

$$\sigma(x,y) = \frac{|x-y||p-q|}{|p-x||q-y|} \ge \max\left\{\frac{|x-y|}{|p-x|}, \frac{|x-y|}{|x-q|}\right\}$$
$$= \max_{i \in [m]} \frac{|a_i^\top (x-y)|}{(a_i^\top x - b_i)}$$
$$\ge \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \left(\sum_{i \in [m]} \frac{(a_i^\top (x-y))^2}{(a_i^\top x - b_i)^2}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \|x-y\|_x.$$

Appendix B. Moments of Gaussian Polynomials

Fact 10. Suppose $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is distributed according to $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_n)$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i b_i^{\top} = \mathbb{I}_n$. Then, we have,

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top}g)^3\right)^2 \le 15n, \text{ and } \mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top}g)^4\right)^2 \le 105n^2.$$

Proof of Fact 10: We first consider the first part of the fact. From Fact 11, we know that for all i, j,

$$\mathbf{E}_{g}(b_{i}^{\top}g)^{3}(b_{j}^{\top}g)^{3} = 9 \|b_{i}\|^{2} \|b_{j}\|^{2} (b_{i}^{\top}b_{j}) + 6(b_{i}^{\top}b_{j})^{3}.$$

Summing over all i, j, we get,

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top}g)^3\right)^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \mathbf{E}(b_i^{\top}g)^3 (b_j^{\top}g)^3$$
$$= 9\sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \|b_i\|_2^2 \|b_j\|_2^2 (b_i^{\top}b_j) + 6\sum_{i,j=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top}b_j)^3. \quad (B.1)$$

This equality can also be derived using Isserlis' theorem ([4]). If we let B be the $m \times n$ matrix with its i^{th} row being b_i^{\top} , and $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$ be such that $w_i = \|b_i\|_2^2$, we can simplify the first term in the above sum as follows.

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \|b_i\|_2^2 \|b_j\|_2^2 (b_i^{\top} b_j) = \left\|\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|b_i\|^2 b_i\right\|_2^2 = \left\|B^{\top} w\right\|_2^2.$$

Appendix A. Relating the local metric to the Hilbert Using $\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i b_i^{\top} = \mathbb{I}_n$, we get $B^{\top}B = \mathbb{I}_n$. Thus, the $m \times m$ metric m matrix $\Pi := BB^{\top}$ satisfies $\Pi^2 = \Pi$. Since Π is also symmetric, it is an orthogonal projection. Thus, we have $\|\Pi w\|_2 \le \|w\|_2$. We obtain,

$$\left\| B^{\top} w \right\|_{2}^{2} = w^{\top} B B^{\top} w = w^{\top} \Pi w$$

= $w^{\top} \Pi^{2} w$
= $\| \Pi w \|_{2}^{2} \le \| w \|_{2}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \| b_{i} \|^{4}.$

Since $\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i b_i^{\top} = \mathbb{I}_n$, we get that for all i, $||b_i|| \leq 1$. Moreover, taking trace, we obtain $\sum_{i=1}^{m} ||b_i||^2 = n$. Thus,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|b_i\|^4 \le \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|b_i\|^2 = n.$$

Thus, we can bound the first term in Equation (B.1) by n. For the second term in Equation (B.1), using $||b_i||_2 \leq 1$

for all *i*, and Cauchy-Schwarz, we get $|b_i^{\top}b_j| \leq 1$ for all *i*, *j*. Using $\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i b_i^{\top} = \mathbb{I}_n$, we also know that for all *j*, $\sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top} b_j)^2 = \|b_j\|_2^2$. Thus, we get,

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top} b_j)^3 \le \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top} b_j)^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left\| b_j \right\|_2^2 = n.$$

Combining the bounds for the two terms in Equation (B.1), we get the first part of the fact.

For the second part of the fact, we use Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top}g)^4\right)^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \mathbf{E}(b_i^{\top}g)^4 (b_j^{\top}g)^4 \\ \leq \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \left(\mathbf{E}(b_i^{\top}g)^8\right)^{1/2} \left(\mathbf{E}(b_j^{\top}g)^8\right)^{1/2}.$$

We have that $b_i^{\top}g$ is distributed as a Gaussian with mean 0 and variance $\|b_i\|_2^2$. Thus, $\mathbf{E}(b_i^{\top}g)^8 = 105 \|b_i\|_2^8$. Hence, we get,

$$\mathbf{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} (b_i^{\top}g)^4\right)^2 \le 105 \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} \|b_i\|_2^4 \|b_j\|_2^4$$
$$= 105 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \|b_i\|^4\right)^2 \le 105n^2,$$

proving the second part of the fact.

Note: The bounds given by the above fact are tight for the case where b_i form an orthonormal basis.

Fact 11 (Isserlis [4]). Suppose $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is distributed according to $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{I}_n)$, and b_1, b_2 are any two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$\mathbf{E}_{g}(b_{1}^{\top}g)^{3}(b_{2}^{\top}g)^{3} = 9 \|b_{1}\|^{2} \|b_{2}\|^{2} (b_{1}^{\top}b_{2}) + 6(b_{1}^{\top}b_{2})^{3}.$$

Proof of Fact 11: We define $\hat{b}_i := \frac{1}{\|b_i\|} \cdot b_i$ to be the corresponding unit vectors. Thus,

$$\mathbf{E}(b_1^{\top}g)^3(b_2^{\top}g)^3 = \|b_1\|^3 \|b_2\|^3 \mathbf{E}(\hat{b}_1^{\top}g)^3(\hat{b}_2^{\top}g)^3.$$
(B.2)

We let e_1, \ldots, e_n denote the standard basis vectors for \mathbb{R}^n , *i.e.*, e_i is 1 in the *i*th coordinate and 0 elsewhere. Since the distribution of g is rotationally symmetric, we can assume that $\hat{b}_1 = e_1$, and $\hat{b}_2 = \cos \theta \cdot e_1 + \sin \theta \cdot e_2$, where θ is such that $\cos \theta = \hat{b}_1^\top \hat{b}_2$. Thus,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}(\hat{b}_1^{\top}g)^3(\hat{b}_2^{\top}g)^3 &= \mathbf{E}\,g_1^3\left(\cos\theta\cdot g_1 + \sin\theta\cdot g_2\right)^3 \\ &= \cos^3\theta\,\mathbf{E}\,g_1^6 + 0 + 3\cos\theta\sin^2\theta\,\mathbf{E}\,g_1^4\,\mathbf{E}\,g_2^2 + 0 \\ &= 15\cos^3\theta + 9\cos\theta\sin^2\theta = 9\cos\theta + 6\cos^3\theta \\ &= 9\left(\hat{b}_1^{\top}\hat{b}_2\right) + 6\left(\hat{b}_1^{\top}\hat{b}_2\right)^3. \end{split}$$

Combining with Equation (B.2), we obtain the fact. \Box