

On the Monge–Ampère equation on Wiener space

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We prove that the optimal transportation mapping that takes a Gaussian measure γ on an infinite dimensional space to an equivalent probability measure $g \cdot \gamma$ satisfies the Monge–Ampère equation provided that $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$ and $g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$.

The Monge–Kantorovich problem and the Monge–Ampère equation have become a very popular object of research in the last decade (see [1], [2], where one can find additional references). Let μ and ν be two probability measures on \mathbb{R}^n such that

$$W(\mu, \nu)^2 = \inf_{m \in \mathcal{P}(\mu, \nu)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} |x_1 - x_2|^2 m(dx_1, dx_2) < \infty, \quad (1)$$

where $\mathcal{P}(\mu, \nu)$ is the set of all Borel probability measures on $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ whose projections on the factors are μ and ν . Under broad assumptions on μ and ν (see the above cited books and [3]), there exists a Borel mapping T that takes μ to ν , i.e., $\mu \circ T^{-1} = \nu$, and satisfies the equality

$$\int |T(x) - x|^2 \mu(dx) = W(\mu, \nu)^2.$$

Therefore, the image of μ under the mapping $x \mapsto (x, T(x))$ gives minimum to the integral on the right-hand side in (1). According to [4], if μ is absolutely continuous, the optimal transportation T is the gradient of a convex function V . As shown in [5], if $\mu = f dx$ and $\nu = g dx$ are two absolutely continuous probability measures such that μ is equivalent to Lebesgue measure and V is a convex function such that ∇V takes μ to ν , then, letting $\det(D_{\text{ac}}^2 V)$ be the determinant of the density $D_{\text{ac}}^2 V$ of the absolutely continuous part of $D^2 V$ (i.e., the determinant in A.D. Alexandroff's sense), we obtain that the set M of points where the matrix $D_{\text{ac}}^2 V$ is defined and invertible is of full μ -measure and for almost all $x \in M$ the following Monge–Ampère equation holds:

$$f(x) = g(\nabla V(x)) \det D_{\text{ac}}^2 V(x).$$

The regularity of solutions of the Monge–Ampère equation has been studied in many works, see references in [6].

Our work is concerned with the infinite dimensional case and its principal result is a derivation of the Monge–Ampère equation for transformations of Gaussian measures on infinite dimensional spaces. The assertions given below extend the results proved in the recent works [7], [8], [9]. We shall use the following important existence theorem from [7]. Let X be a locally convex space and let γ be a centered Radon Gaussian measure on X with the Cameron–Martin space H equipped with the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_H$; the corresponding norm is denoted by $|\cdot|_H$. One may assume without loss of generality that $X = \mathbb{R}^\infty$, the countable power of the real line, and that γ is the countable power of the standard Gaussian measure; then $H = l^2$.

Suppose that we are given a probability measure $g \cdot \gamma$ such that

$$W_H(\gamma, g \cdot \gamma)^2 = \inf_{m \in \mathcal{P}(\gamma, g \cdot \gamma)} \int_{X \times X} |x_1 - x_2|_H^2 m(dx_1, dx_2) < \infty,$$

where $\mathcal{P}(\gamma, g \cdot \gamma)$ is the set of all Radon probability measures on $X \times X$ whose projections on the first and second factors are γ and $g \cdot \gamma$. Then there exists a unique measurable mapping (called the optimal transportation) $T: X \rightarrow X$ that sends γ to $g \cdot \gamma$ and satisfies the equality

$$W_H(\gamma, g \cdot \gamma)^2 = \int_X |T(x) - x|_H^2 d\gamma.$$

An effective sufficient condition for $W_H(\gamma, g \cdot \gamma)$ to be finite is the finiteness of entropy of g , i.e., the integrability of $g \log g$. The optimal transportation has the form $T = I + \nabla \Phi$, where Φ belongs to the Sobolev class $W^{2,1}(\gamma)$ and is 1-convex (see the definition below). If $g > 0$ γ -a.e. and $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$, then T has an inverse mapping S , i.e., one has $T \circ S(x) = S \circ T(x) = x$ for γ -a.e. x . Moreover, S realizes the optimal transportation that takes $g \cdot \gamma$ to γ and $S = I + \nabla \Psi$, where $\Psi \in W^{2,1}(\gamma)$ is 1-convex.

Let us introduce some notation. Let $L^2(\gamma, H)$ denote the Hilbert space of H -valued γ -measurable mappings v with finite norm

$$\|v\|_{L^2(\gamma, H)} = \left(\int_X |v(x)|_H^2 \gamma(dx) \right)^{1/2}.$$

The Hilbert–Schmidt norm of a symmetric operator A on H is defined by $\|A\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (Ae_i, Ae_i) \right)^{1/2}$, where $\{e_i\}$ is any orthonormal basis in H . Every vector $h \in H$ corresponds to a γ -measurable linear functional \widehat{h} on X such that $\langle h, k \rangle_H = (\widehat{h}, \widehat{k})_{L^2(\gamma)}$ for all $k \in H$ (see [10] for details). Set $x_i := \widehat{e}_i(x)$. As noted above, one may assume that we deal with the standard Gaussian product-measure on \mathbb{R}^{∞} and then \widehat{e}_i is the usual i th coordinate function. The σ -algebra generated by $\widehat{e}_1, \dots, \widehat{e}_n$ is denoted by \mathcal{F}_n . The space of smooth cylindrical functions, denoted by \mathcal{FC}_0^{∞} , consists of all functions of the form $\zeta(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, where $\zeta \in C_0^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ for some n . The Sobolev class $W^{2,1}(\gamma)$ consists of all functions $f \in L^2(\gamma)$ that have a generalized gradient $\nabla f \in L^2(\gamma, H)$ along H such that

$$\int_X \partial_h \varphi f d\gamma = - \int_X \varphi \langle \nabla f, h \rangle_H d\gamma + \int_X \varphi f \widehat{h} d\gamma$$

for all $h \in H$ and $\varphi \in \mathcal{FC}_0^{\infty}$, where ∂_h is the partial derivative along h . The Sobolev class $W^{2,1}(\gamma, H)$ of H -valued mappings and the Sobolev class $W^{2,2}(\gamma)$ of functions that are twice differentiable along H with the second derivative in the space of Hilbert–Schmidt operators are defined in a similar way (see [10] for details). The

Ornstein–Uhlenbeck semigroup $\{P_t\}$ on $L^p(\gamma)$, $1 \leq p < \infty$, is defined by

$$P_t f(x) := \int_X f\left(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y\right) \gamma(dy).$$

Let \mathcal{L} be the generator of $\{P_t\}$ on $L^2(\gamma)$. We recall that \mathcal{L} is an extension of the operator

$$\Delta_H f - \langle x, \nabla_H f \rangle_H := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\partial_{e_i}^2 f - x_i \partial_{e_i} f)$$

acting on smooth cylindrical functions. Given a function $f \in L^1(\gamma)$ with $f \log f \in L^1(\gamma)$, one defines $\mathcal{L}f$ in the sense of distributions as the linear functional

$$\varphi \mapsto \int_X f \mathcal{L}\varphi d\gamma$$

on \mathcal{FC}_0^∞ (note that $\mathcal{L}\varphi \in L^\infty(\gamma)$). If $f \in L^2(\gamma)$, then $\mathcal{L}f$ is a continuous linear functional on $W^{2,2}(\gamma)$. Convergence in the sense of distributions over (X, γ) is understood as pointwise convergence of linear functionals on \mathcal{FC}_0^∞ .

We recall the definition of a θ -convex function introduced in [11]. Let $F: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ be a measurable mapping such that $\gamma(\{F < \infty\}) > 0$ and let $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^1$. Let

$$F_\theta: H \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}, \quad F_\theta(h, w + h) = \frac{\theta}{2}|h|_H^2 + F(w + h).$$

Then F is called θ -convex if for all $h, k \in H$ and $\alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$ with $\alpha + \beta = 1$, one has

$$F_\theta(\alpha h + \beta k, w + \alpha h + \beta k) \leq \alpha F_\theta(h, w + h) + \beta F_\theta(k, w + k) \quad \gamma\text{-a.e.},$$

where the measure zero set on which this inequality fails may depend on h, k and α . See [11] for some equivalent definitions.

A Radon measure μ on X is called Skorohod differentiable along a vector $h \in X$ if there exists a Radon measure $d_h \mu$ such that for every smooth cylindrical function ζ one has

$$\int_X \partial_h \zeta(x) \mu(dx) = - \int_X \zeta(x) d_h \mu(dx).$$

Note that γ is differentiable along any $h \in H$ and $d_h \gamma = -\widehat{h} \cdot \gamma$. The second order derivative is defined as $d_{hh}^2 \mu := d_h(d_h \mu)$. In this paper we are especially interested in the second derivatives of the 1-convex potentials Φ and Ψ . In our case Φ and Ψ possess the first Sobolev derivatives $\nabla \Phi$ and $\nabla \Psi$ along H . We define Φ_{kh} , where $k, h \in H$, as a Radon measure satisfying the relation

$$\int_X \zeta(x) \Phi_{kh}(dx) = - \int_X \partial_h \zeta(x) \partial_k \Phi(x) \gamma(dx) + \int_X \zeta(x) \partial_k \Phi(x) \widehat{h}(x) \gamma(dx).$$

If $\partial_k \Phi$ is differentiable in the Sobolev sense, then, according to this definition, $\Phi_{kh} = \partial_h \partial_k \Phi \cdot \gamma$.

The density of the absolutely continuous part of Φ_{kh} (with respect to γ) is denoted by Φ_{kh}^{ac} and the singular part is denoted by Φ_{kh}^s . Note that since Φ is 1-convex, the measure Φ_{hh}^s is a nonnegative (Corollary 1). In the case when there exists an \mathcal{H} -valued measure with matrix elements $\Phi_{e_i e_j}$, we denote this measure by the symbol $D^2\Phi$. If $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\Phi_{e_i e_i}^{\text{ac}}(x)|^2 < \infty$ γ -a.e., then the \mathcal{H} -valued mapping with matrix elements $\Phi_{e_i e_j}^{\text{ac}}$ is denoted by the symbol $D_{\text{ac}}^2\Phi$ (even if $D^2\Phi$ does not exist; if the measure $D^2\Phi$ exists, then $D_{\text{ac}}^2\Phi$ is the density of its absolutely continuous part with respect to γ). Below we give some sufficient conditions for the existence of $D^2\Phi$.

The conditional expectation of $f \in L^1(\gamma)$ with respect to \mathcal{F}_n is denoted by $\mathbb{E}(f|\mathcal{F}_n)$. Set $P_n x = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{e}_i(x) e_i$. The operator $\mathbb{E}(\cdot|\mathcal{F}_n)$ extends to bounded Radon measures as follows: $\mathbb{E}(m|\mathcal{F}_n)$ is the restriction of a measure m to the σ -algebra \mathcal{F}_n . It is verified directly that $P_t \mathbb{E}(f|\mathcal{F}_n) = \mathbb{E}(P_t f|\mathcal{F}_n)$.

We consider the following problem: when do the potentials Φ and Ψ satisfy an infinite dimensional analog of the Monge–Ampère equation? The heuristic formulas for the Monge–Ampère equation are

$$g = \det_2(I + D^2\Psi) \exp\left(\mathcal{L}\Psi - \frac{1}{2}|\nabla\Psi|_H^2\right),$$

$$\frac{1}{g(T)} = \det_2(I + D^2\Phi) \exp\left(\mathcal{L}\Phi - \frac{1}{2}|\nabla\Phi|_H^2\right).$$

Here \det_2 denotes the Carleman–Fredholm determinant which is defined for any symmetric Hilbert–Schmidt operator Λ by the formula

$$\det_2(I + \Lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} (1 + \lambda_i) e^{-\lambda_i},$$

where λ_i are the eigenvalues of Λ counted with their multiplicities. As the first step one has to show that all the objects involved in equalities (2) and (3) exist indeed. It has been shown in [7] that $\mathcal{L}\Phi$ (considered as a distribution on the space (X, γ)) is a Radon measure if $g < C$. The density of its absolutely continuous part with respect to γ is denoted by $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Phi$. One can show that $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Phi := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\mathbb{E}(\Phi|\mathcal{F}_n)$ almost surely. Similarly, if $g > c > 0$, then $\mathcal{L}\Psi$ is a Radon measure, and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Psi$ is the density of its absolutely continuous part with respect to γ . Another result from [7] states that if $0 < c < g < C$, then

$$g(T) \underline{\lim}_n \det_2[I + D_{\text{ac}}^2\mathbb{E}(\Phi|\mathcal{F}_n)] \exp\left(\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Phi - \frac{1}{2}|\nabla\Phi|_H^2\right) \leq 1,$$

$$g \geq \underline{\lim}_n \det_2[I + D_{\text{ac}}^2\mathbb{E}(\Psi|\mathcal{F}_n)] \exp\left(\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Psi - \frac{1}{2}|\nabla\Psi|_H^2\right).$$

We see that these results give only inequalities instead of the expected equalities. However, according to [8], if $-\log g$ is an H -convex function (which is, certainly, a very strong restriction on g), then the infinite dimensional Monge–Ampère equation holds.

The main result of this paper is the following theorem.

Theorem 1. (i) Suppose that $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$ and $g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then there exist \mathcal{H} -valued mappings $D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Psi$ and $D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Phi$ with matrix elements $\Phi_{e_i e_j}^{\text{ac}}$ and $\Psi_{e_i e_j}^{\text{ac}}$ and a subsequence $\{n_k\}$ such that γ -a.e. there exist finite limits

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \Psi = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (\Psi_{e_i e_i}^{\text{ac}} - x_i \partial_{e_i} \Psi), \quad \mathcal{L}_0 \Phi = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} (\Phi_{e_i e_i}^{\text{ac}} - x_i \partial_{e_i} \Phi).$$

In addition, one has

$$g = \det_2(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Psi) \exp\left(\mathcal{L}_0 \Psi - \frac{1}{2} |\nabla \Psi|_H^2\right),$$

$$\frac{1}{g(T)} = \det_2(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Phi) \exp\left(\mathcal{L}_0 \Phi - \frac{1}{2} |\nabla \Phi|_H^2\right).$$

Furthermore, $(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Psi)(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Phi(S)) = (I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Phi(S))(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Psi) = I$.

(ii) Suppose that $g > c > 0$ and $g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then $\mathcal{L}_0 \Psi = \mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}} \Psi$ and

$$g = \det_2(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Psi) \exp\left(\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}} \Psi - \frac{1}{2} |\nabla \Psi|_H^2\right).$$

(iii) Suppose that $0 < g < C$ and $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then $\mathcal{L}_0 \Phi = \mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}} \Phi$ and

$$\frac{1}{g(T)} = \det_2(I + D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Phi) \exp\left(\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}} \Phi - \frac{1}{2} |\nabla \Phi|_H^2\right).$$

All these equalities hold almost everywhere.

The main result follows from a series of auxiliary assertions presented below. Let us consider a probability measure $g \cdot \gamma$ and approximations of g by functions $g_n \rightarrow g$ such that every g_n is measurable with respect to \mathcal{F}_n . We shall consider the approximations $P_{\frac{1}{n}} \mathbb{E}(g | \mathcal{F}_n)$ and $\mathbb{E}(g | \mathcal{F}_n)$. Let $\{T_n\}$ and $\{S_n\}$ be the sequences of optimal transportations sending γ to $g_n \cdot \gamma$ and $g_n \cdot \gamma$ to γ , accordingly. By the finite dimensional case

$$T_n = I + \nabla \Phi_n, \quad S_n = I + \nabla \Psi_n,$$

where Φ_n and Ψ_n are 1-convex functions. It is clear that

$$T_n \circ S_n(x) = S_n \circ T_n(x) = x \quad \gamma\text{-a.e.}$$

According to [7], one has $T_n \rightarrow T$ and $S_n \rightarrow S$ in measure γ . Passing to a subsequence we may assume that there holds a.e. convergence. The potentials Φ and Ψ are not uniquely determined, because adding constants one does not change their gradients. Throughout we use the convention that the constants are chosen in such a way that the integrals of Φ and Ψ against γ vanish (and the same for the approximations). With this convention, we obtain by the Poincaré inequality that $\Phi_n \rightarrow \Phi$ and $\Psi_n \rightarrow \Psi$ in $L^2(\gamma)$.

The following important identity was proved in [9]:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X \log \frac{g_m}{g_n} g_m d\gamma &= \frac{1}{2} \int_X |S_n - S_m|_H^2 g_m d\gamma \\ &\quad + \int_X \left[\text{Tr}(DS_n(DS_m)^{-1} - I) - \log \det(DS_n(DS_m)^{-1}) \right] g_m d\gamma, \end{aligned}$$

where DF denotes the derivative of a mapping F . Note that both integrands are nonnegative. Letting $g_n = 1$ or $g_m = 1$ we obtain the following relations:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X \log \frac{1}{g_n} d\gamma &= \frac{1}{2} \int_X |S_n(x) - x|_H^2 \gamma(dx) - \int_X \log \det_2 DS_n d\gamma, \\ \int_X g_m \log g_m d\gamma &= \frac{1}{2} \int_X |S_m(x) - x|_H^2 g_m \gamma(dx) - \int_X \log \det_2 [(DS_m)^{-1}] g_m d\gamma. \end{aligned}$$

These formulas give the following estimates of the transportation cost:

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_X |\nabla \Psi_n|_H^2 d\gamma \leq \int_X \log \frac{1}{g_n} d\gamma, \quad \frac{1}{2} \int_X |\nabla \Phi_n|_H^2 d\gamma \leq \int_X g_n \log g_n d\gamma.$$

The latter estimate is Talagrand's inequality [12].

Theorem 2. *Let $\log g, g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$ and $g_n = P_{1/n} \mathbb{E}(g | \mathcal{F}_n)$. Then there exists measurable mappings K and L with values in the space of symmetric Hilbert–Schmidt operators such that, for some subsequence $\{n_k\}$, the mappings $DS_{n_k} - I = D^2 \Psi_{n_k}$ and $(DS_{n_k})^{-1} - I$ converge γ -a.e. to $(I + K)^2 - I$ and $(I + L)^2 - I$ in the Hilbert–Schmidt norm. Moreover,*

$$(I + K)(I + L) = (I + L)(I + K) = I$$

and the following inequalities hold:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X \log \frac{1}{g} d\gamma &\geq \frac{1}{2} \int_X |\nabla \Psi|_H^2 d\gamma - \int_X \log \det_2 [(I + K)^2] d\gamma, \\ \int_X g \log g d\gamma &\geq \frac{1}{2} \int_X |\nabla \Phi|_H^2 d\gamma - \int_X \log \det_2 [(I + L)^2] g d\gamma. \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$\int_X \left(\|K\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 + \|L\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \right) \min(1, g) d\gamma < \infty.$$

An important step in the proof of Theorem 1 is to show that the operators $(I + K(x))^2 - I$ and $[I + L(T(x))]^2 - I$ coincide a.e. with $D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Psi(x)$ and $D_{\text{ac}}^2 \Phi(x)$, respectively. This step, however, employs Theorem 2 in the foregoing formulation.

Corollary 1. *Let $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$ and $g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then, for any $h, k \in H$, there exist bounded Radon measures Ψ_{hk} and Φ_{hk} and one has*

$$\Psi_{hk} = \frac{1}{2} [\Psi_{(h+k)(h+k)} - \Psi_{hh} - \Psi_{kk}], \quad \Phi_{hk} = \frac{1}{2} [\Phi_{(h+k)(h+k)} - \Phi_{hh} - \Phi_{kk}].$$

In addition, the measures Φ_{hh}^s and Ψ_{hh}^s are nonnegative and one has

$$\Phi_{hh}^{\text{ac}} \geq l_h(T) \quad \gamma\text{-a.e.}, \quad \Psi_{hh}^{\text{ac}} \geq k_h \quad \gamma\text{-a.e.},$$

where

$$k_h := \langle ((I + K)^2 - I)h, h \rangle_H, \quad l_h := \langle ((I + L)^2 - I)h, h \rangle_H.$$

Corollary 2. (i) Suppose that $g \geq c > 0$ for some constant c and $g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then there exists an \mathcal{H} -valued measure $D^2\Psi$ of bounded variation.

(ii) Suppose that $0 < g \leq C$ for some constant C and $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then there exists an \mathcal{H} -valued measure $D^2\Phi$ of bounded variation.

The following lemma is a generalization of Lemma 7.2 in [7].

Lemma 1. Let $\log g \in L^2(\gamma)$. Then $\mathcal{L}\Psi$ is a bounded Radon measure and γ -a.e. one has $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\mathbb{E}(\Psi|\mathcal{F}_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Psi$. If $|\log g|^2 g \in L^1(\gamma)$, then $\mathcal{L}\Phi$ is a bounded Radon measure and γ -a.e. one has $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\mathbb{E}(\Phi|\mathcal{F}_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{ac}}\Phi$.

Lemma 2. Let $F: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ be a locally integrable mapping such that its generalized derivative DF is a locally bounded measure with values in the space of nonnegative symmetric matrices. Let $D_{\text{ac}}F$ be the operator-valued density of the absolutely continuous component of DF and let $\Omega := \{x: \det D_{\text{ac}}F(x) > 0\}$. Then the measure $\lambda|_{\Omega} \circ F^{-1}$ is absolutely continuous.

Lemma 3. (i) Let $g > c > 0$ and $g \log g \in L^1(\gamma)$. Then the series $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Psi_{e_i e_i}^s$ converges in variation to a bounded nonnegative Borel measure on X .

(ii) If $0 < g \leq C$ and $\log g \in L^1(\gamma)$, then the series $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Phi_{e_i e_i}^s$ converges in variation to a bounded nonnegative Borel measure on X .

Proposition 1. Let $X = \mathbb{R}^d$ and let γ be the standard Gaussian measure.

(i) Let $g = e^\Phi$ and $D^2\Phi \leq M$, where $M < 1$. Then $I + D^2\Phi \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-M}}I$. In addition,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\nabla\Phi|^2 d\gamma + (1 - M) \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \|D^2\Phi\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 d\gamma \leq 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} g \log g d\gamma.$$

(ii) Let $g = e^\Psi$ and $D^2\Psi \geq -M$, where $M > -1$. Then $I + D^2\Psi \leq \sqrt{1+M} \cdot I$. In addition,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\nabla\Psi|^2 d\gamma + \frac{1}{1+M} \int_X \|D^2\Psi\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 d\gamma \leq 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \log \frac{1}{g} d\gamma.$$

Corollary 3. Let g be a probability density with respect to γ . Suppose that $g = e^{-V}$, where the function V is $(1 - \varepsilon)$ -convex, $\varepsilon > 0$. Then $\Phi \in W^{2,2}(\gamma)$. If $g = e^W$, where W is an M -convex function for some $M > -1$, then $\Psi \in W^{2,2}(\gamma)$.

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