TRANSPORT RAYS AND APPLICATIONS TO HAMILTON-JACOBI EQUATIONS

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1. INTRODUCTION

2. Settings

We consider a σ -generated probability space (X, Σ, μ) and a partition $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$, where $A = X/\sim$ is the quotient space, and $h: X \to A$ the quotient map. We give to A the structure of a probability space by introducing the σ -algebra $\mathcal{A} = h_{\sharp}\Omega$, where Ω are the saturated sets in Σ (unions of fibers of h), and $m = h_{\sharp}\mu$ the image measure such that $m(S) = \mu(h^{-1}(S))$.

Remark 2.1. \mathcal{A} is the largest σ -algebra such that h is measurable.

The following example shows that even though Σ is σ -generated, \mathcal{A} in general is not.

Example 2.2. Consider in $([0,1], \mathcal{B})$ (Borel) the equivalence relation

 $x \sim y$ iff $x - y = 0 \mod \alpha$,

for some $\alpha \in [0,1]$. If $\alpha = p/q$, with $p,q \in \mathbb{N}$ relatively prime, then we can take

$$(A, \mathcal{A}) = \left(\left[0, \frac{1}{q} \right], \mathcal{B} \right).$$

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, then A is a Vitali set. If $\mu = \mathcal{L}^1|_{[0,1]}$, then $m = h_{\sharp}\mathcal{L}^1|_{[0,1]}$ has only sets of either full or negligible measure. Assume by contradiction that $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ generates \mathcal{A} . Since $h^{-1}(x) = \{x + n\alpha \mod 1 : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \in \mathcal{B}$, it follows that each $a \in A$ belongs to a generating set of measure 0. But this leads to a contradiction:

$$1 = m(A) = m\left(\bigcup_{m(a_n)=0} a_n\right) \le \sum_{m(a_n)=0} m(a_n) = 0.$$

We now define the measure algebra $(\hat{\mathcal{A}}, \hat{m})$ by the following equivalence relation on \mathcal{A} :

 $a_1 \sim a_2$ iff $m(a_1 \bigtriangleup a_2) = 0.$

It is easy to check that $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ is a σ -algebra and \hat{m} is a measure on $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$.

Proposition 2.3. (\hat{A}, \hat{m}) is σ -generated.

 $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ is isomorphic to a sub- σ -algebra of Σ .

Remark 2.4. More generally, if (X, Σ, μ) is generated by a family of cardinality ω_{α} , then each sub- σ -algebra $\mathcal{A} \subset \Sigma$ is essentially generated by a family of sets of cardinality ω_{α} or less.

This is a particular case of a deep result, *Maharam's Theorem* ([7], 332T(b)), which describes isomorphisms between probability spaces: if $(\hat{\Sigma}, \hat{\mu})$ is a probability algebra, then

$$(\hat{\Sigma}, \hat{\mu}) \simeq \prod_{i} c_i \left[\bigotimes_{J_i} \{0, 1\}\right], \quad \sum_i c_i = 1,$$

where $\bigotimes_{J_i} \{0, 1\}$ is the measure space obtained by throwing the dice J_i times.

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3. DISINTEGRATION

Definition 3.1. We introduce the following relation on A:

 $a_1 \sim a_2$ iff the following holds:

for all $\hat{A} \in \hat{\mathcal{A}}, a_1 \in \hat{A}$ iff $a_2 \in \hat{A}$.

The equivalence classes of this relation are the atoms of the measure m. In particular, we can define the measure space

$$(\Lambda = A/\sim, \hat{\mathcal{A}}, m).$$

The σ -algebra is isomorphic to the σ -generated $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ constructed in the previous section.

Definition 3.2. The disintegration of the measure μ with respect to the partition $X = \bigcup_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ is a map

$$A \to P(X), \quad \alpha \mapsto \mu_{\alpha},$$

where P(X) is the class of probability measures on X, such that the following properties hold:

- (1) for all $B \in \Sigma$, the map $\alpha \mapsto \mu_{\alpha}(B)$ is *m*-measurable;
- (2) for all $B \in \Sigma$, $A \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$\mu(B \cap h^{-1}(A)) = \int_A \mu_\alpha(B) \,\mathrm{d}m(\alpha).$$

It is unique if μ_{α} is determined *m*-a.e.

- Remark 3.3. (1) Since we are not requiring the elements of the partition X_{α} to be measurable, in general $\mu_{\alpha}(X_{\alpha}) \neq 1$ for those X_{α} which are measurable. In this case we say that the disintegration is not strongly consistent with h.
 - (2) For general spaces which are not σ -generated, sometimes a disintegration nonetheless exists, but in general there is no uniqueness.
 - (3) The disintegration formula can easily be extended to measurable functions:

$$\int_X f \,\mathrm{d}\mu = \int_A \left(\int_X f \,\mathrm{d}\mu_\alpha \right) \mathrm{d}m(\alpha).$$

We now state the general disintegration theorem.

Theorem 3.4. Assume that (X, Σ, μ) is a σ -generated probability space, $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$ a partition of $X, h: X \to A$ the quotient map, and (A, A, m) the quotient measure space. Then the following holds:

- (1) There is a unique disintegration $\alpha \mapsto \mu_{\alpha}$.
- (2) If $(\Lambda, \hat{\mathcal{A}}, m)$ is the σ -generated algebra equivalent to (A, \mathcal{A}, m) , and $p : A \to \Lambda$ the quotient map, then the sets

$$X_{\lambda} = (p \circ h)^{-1}(\lambda)$$

are μ -measurable, the disintegration

$$\mu = \int_{\Lambda} \mu_{\lambda} \, \mathrm{d}m(\lambda)$$

is strongly consistent $p \circ h$, and

$$\mu_{\alpha} = \mu_{p(\alpha)}$$
 for m-a. e. α .

Definition 3.5. $R \subset X$ is a rooting set for $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} X_{\alpha}$, if for each $\alpha \in A$ there exists exactly one $x \in R \cap X_{\alpha}$.

R is a μ -rooting set if there exists a set $\Gamma \subset X$ of full μ -measure such that R is a rooting set for

$$\Gamma = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \Gamma_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} \Gamma \cap X_{\alpha}.$$

Proposition 3.6. If $\mu = \int_A \mu_\alpha dm(\alpha)$ is srongly consistent with the quotient map, then there exists a Borel μ -rooting set.

Example 3.7. Consider again

$$\sim y$$
 iff $x - y = 0 \mod \alpha$

If $\alpha = p/q$ with p, q relatively prime, then the rooting set is [0, 1/q), so that we know that the disintegration is strongly consistent with h. One can check that

$$\mu = \int_0^{\frac{1}{q}} \mathrm{d}\alpha \sum_{n=0}^{q-1} \delta\left(x - \alpha - \frac{n}{q}\right)$$

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, then we know that

$$(\Lambda, \hat{\mathcal{A}}, m) \simeq (\{\lambda\}, \{\emptyset, \{\lambda\}\}, \delta_{\lambda}),$$

so that

$$\mu = \int \mathrm{d}m\,\mu.$$

4. HAMILTON-JACOBI EQUATION AND MONOTONICITY

In the following we consider the Hamilton-Jacobi equation

x

$$\begin{cases} u_t + H(\nabla u) = 0, \\ u(0, x) = \bar{u}(x), \end{cases}$$

where $(t, x) \in \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\bar{u} \in L^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}^d)$. We assume that $H : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is C^1 and convex. We denote by $L = H^*$ the Legendre transform of H and assume that it has at least linear growth,

$$L(x) \ge \frac{1}{c}(|x| - c),$$

and is locally Lipschitz. By the properties of the Legendre transform, L is strictly convex.

For example, we can consider $H(x) = L(x) = \frac{1}{2}|x|^2$.

The viscosity solution is given explicitly by

$$u(t,x) = \inf \left\{ \bar{u}(y) + tL\left(\frac{x-y}{t}\right) : y \in \mathbb{R}^d \right\}.$$

Remark 4.1. The following properties can easily be checked:

- (1) Finite speed of propagation: u(t, x) depends only on the values of $\bar{u}(y)$ for $|x y| \leq c$.
- (2) Uniform Lipschitz continuity: For fixed y, the function $\bar{u}(y) + tL((x-y)/t)$ is uniformly Lipschitz in x for $|x-y| \leq c$. Hence u(t,x) is uniformly Lipschitz in x for all t > 0.
- (3) Semigroup property: For t > s > 0, we have that

$$u(t,x) = \min\left\{u(s,z) + (t-s)L\left(\frac{x-z}{t-s}\right) : z \in \mathbb{R}^d\right\}$$

(4) If $D^2H \in [1/c, c]\mathbb{I}$, then $D^2L \in [1/c, c]\mathbb{I}$, and thus $u(t, x) - c|x|^2/2t$ is concave in x. Hence $u(t, \cdot)$ is quasi-concave for t > 0.

We can solve the backward problem

$$\begin{cases} v_t + H(\nabla v) = 0, \\ v(1, x) = \bar{u}(1, x). \end{cases}$$

Then v has the same properties as above for t < 1, and the following duality holds:

$$u(1,x) = \min \left\{ v(0,y) + L(x-y) \right\},\$$

$$v(0,y) = \max \left\{ u(1,x) - L(x-y) \right\}.$$

We say that u(1, x) and v(0, y) are *L*-conjugate functions.

Definition 4.2. The couple $[y, x] \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d$ such that

$$u(1,x) = v(0,y) + L(x-y)$$

is called an *optimal couple*. The corresponding segment

$$\left\{ (1+t)y + tx : 0 \le t \le 1 \right\}$$

is called an *optimal ray*.

Remark 4.3. Due to the strict convexity of L, two rays cannot intersect anywhere except at their end points.

Remark 4.4. In general, the duality of u(1,x) and v(0,y) does not imply that u(t,x) = v(t,x) for 0 < t < 1.

Example 4.5. In the case $H(x) = L(x) = |x|^2/2$, the optimal rays are the graph of the maximal monotone operator

$$x \mapsto y(x) = \partial_x \left(\frac{|x|^2}{2} - u(1, x) \right).$$

It follows from Minty's Theorem ([2], p.142) that the map

$$x \mapsto tx + (1-t)y(x)$$

is surjective. Since the rays do not intersect, it follows that for all 0 < t < 1 and all $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$, there exists a unique optimal couple [y, x] such that

$$z = (1-t)y + tx.$$

Hence, using the explicit formula for the optimal ray, we obtain

$$u(t,x) = v(t,x)$$
 for all $t \in [0,1], x \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Hence the solution is both $(2t)^{-1}$ -concave and $(2(1-t))^{-1}$ -convex, thus $u \in C^{1,1}$.

The set y(x) is convex, therefore the rays departing from a given point form a convex set.

The example can be generalized to the case $H(x) = 1/2\langle x, Ax \rangle$ by a linear change of variable.

Example 4.6. A more difficult case is D^2H , $D^2L \in [1/c, c]\mathbb{I}$. One can use that $v(0, y) + |y|^2/(2c)$ is convex to compute the optimal rays for $t \ll 1$:

$$u(t,z) = \min\left\{v(0,y) + tL\left(\frac{z-y}{t}\right)\right\}$$
$$= \min\left\{v(0,y) + \frac{|y|^2}{2c} + tL\left(\frac{z-y}{t}\right) - \frac{|y|^2}{2c}\right\}.$$

The last two terms together are convex for $t < c^{-2}$, so that the minimizer is given by

$$\nabla L\left(\frac{z-y}{t}\right) = \partial^- v(0,y),$$

where $\partial^- v(0, y)$ denotes the subdifferential of v at y:

$$\partial^{-}f(x) = \left\{ p : \liminf \frac{f(x+h) + f(x) - ph}{|h|} \ge 0 \right\}$$

Similarly, we can introduce the superdifferential

$$\partial^+ f(x) = \left\{ p : \limsup \frac{f(x+h) + f(x) - ph}{|h|} \le 0 \right\}.$$

These sets are convex, but in general they are empty. We thus obtain

$$z = y + t\nabla H(\partial^- v(0, y)) \quad \text{for } 0 \le t \ll 1.$$

The strict convexity implies that the map $z \mapsto y$ is single-valued and Lipschitz. For $t \ll 1$, the projections of the rays z(y) are still convex sets. However, in general the rays do not extend to t = 1.

Example 4.7. Taking

$$L(x) = 3|x| + x_1|x|,$$
$$u(1,x) = \min\left\{L\left(x - \begin{pmatrix}0\\1\end{pmatrix}\right), L\left(x - \begin{pmatrix}0\\1\end{pmatrix}\right)\right\}$$

and computing the corresponding v(0, y), one can prove that there is a gap between the rays, i.e. there exists a region inside of which one has

u(t,x) > v(t,x).

Example 4.8. In the general case, when L is only strictly convex, there is no notion of subdifferential or superdifferential. One then has no quasi-concavity or quasi-convexity, hence no BV regularity. The graph of the optimal rays [y, x] is in general full of holes, and there is no interval where one could prove $C^{1,1}$ regularity.

5. Regularity properties of L-conjugate functions and optimal rays

We consider a pair of L-conjugate functions $u, v \in L^{\infty} \cap \text{Lip}$,

$$u(x) = \min\left\{v(y) + L(x-y) : y \in \mathbb{R}^d\right\},\$$
$$v(y) = \max\left\{u(x) - L(x-y) : x \in \mathbb{R}^d\right\},\$$

where as before $L: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is strictly convex and has at least linear growth.

We define the set

$$F = \left\{ [y, x] \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d : [x, y] \text{ optimal couple } \right\}$$

and its projection

$$F(t) = \left\{ z : z = (1-t)y + tx \text{ for some } [y, x] \in F \right\}$$

By the duality, we know that $F(0) = F(1) = \mathbb{R}^d$. On the set F(t) we define the vector field

$$\mathbf{p}_t(z) = (1, p_t(z))$$

= $(1, x - y)$, where $[y, x] \in F$ such that $z = (1 - t)y + tx$.

We also introduce the set-valued functions

$$y(x) = \left\{ y : [y, x] \in F \right\},\ x(y) = \left\{ x : [y, x] \in F \right\}.$$

From the fact that u and v are L-conjugate, we obtain the following lemma.

Lemma 5.1. The set F and its projections F(t) are closed, and the set-valued functions x(y), y(x) have locally compact images.

In particular y(x), x(y) are Borel measurable, because the inverse of compact sets is compact.

Example 5.2. When ∇u , ∇v exist, then they are related to p by

$$\nabla v(y) = \partial L(p_0(y)),$$

$$\nabla u(x) = \partial L(p_1(x)).$$

If we consider for example

$$L(x) = \frac{1}{2}|x|^2 + |x_1|,$$
$$u(x) = \min\left\{L\left(x - \begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix}\right), L\left(x - \begin{pmatrix}-1\\0\end{pmatrix}\right)\right\},$$

then it is easy to check that u(0) has no subdifferential or superdifferential.

5.1. Rectifiability property of jumps. Define the sets

$$J_m = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \text{ there exist } y_1, y_2 \in y(x) \text{ such that } |y_1 - y_2| \ge \frac{1}{m} \right\}$$

and

$$J = \bigcup_{m \in \mathbb{N}} J_m.$$

Lemma 5.3. J_m is closed and countably (d-1)-rectifiable, i. e. it can be covered with a countable number of images of Lipschitz functions $\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \to \mathbb{R}^d$.

The lemma can be proved by applying the rectifiability criterion [1], Theorem 2.61. The proof is analogous to Lemma 3.4 in [4].

In a similar way we obtain the following proposition:

Proposition 5.4. The set

$$J^{k} = \bigcup_{m \in \mathbb{N}} J^{k}_{m}$$
$$= \bigcup_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{d} : \text{ there exist } y_{1}, \dots, y_{k+1} \in y(x) \text{ s.t. } B\left(0, \frac{1}{m}\right) \subset \operatorname{co}\{y_{1}, \dots, y_{k+1}\} \right\}$$

is countably (d - k)-rectifiable, i.e. it can be covered with a countable number of images of Lipschitz functions $\mathbb{R}^{d-k} \to \mathbb{R}^d$.

5.2. Some approximations. To prove the estimates on the vector field \mathbf{p}_t or p_t , we need an approximation technique. The following proposition will be an essential tool.

Proposition 5.5. Assume that

$$\bar{u}_n(y) \to \bar{u}(y), \qquad L_n(x) \to L(x)$$

locally uniformly, and that we have the uniform bound

$$L_n(x) \ge \frac{1}{c}(|x|-c) \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N},$$

where c does not depend on n.

Then the conjugate functions $u_n(1,x)$, $v_n(0,y)$ converge uniformly to u(1,x), v(0,y), and the graph F_n converges locally in Hausdorff distance fo a closed subset of F.

5.3. Fundamental example. Let $\{y_i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ be a dense sequence in \mathbb{R}^d , and define

$$u_N(x) = \min \left\{ u(y_i) + L(x - y_i) : i = 1, \dots, N \right\}.$$

We can split \mathbb{R}^d into at most N open regions Ω_i (Voronoi-like cells), inside which we have

$$u_N(x) = u(y_i) + L(x - y_i), \quad x \in \Omega_i,$$

together with the negligible set

$$\bigcup_{i\neq j} \left(\bar{\Omega}_i \cap \bar{\Omega}_j\right).$$

The boundary of each region is Lipschitz, and inside each region the corresponding directional field p_N is given by

$$p_N(x) = x - y_i, \quad x \in \Omega_i.$$

5.4. Divergence estimate. In the points x where the field p(x) is single valued, the approximate $p_n(x)$ converges to p(x). This implies that

$$p_n(x) \to p(x) \quad \mathcal{L}^d$$
-a.e.

Using this fact we can prove the following proposition:

Proposition 5.6. div *p* is a locally bounded measure satisfying

$$\operatorname{div} p - d\mathcal{L}^d \le 0.$$

Proof. The approximating fields satisfy the bound, thus by the above convergence we get the bound for div p. It is a measure because positive distributions are measures.

6. Jacobian estimates

As in the previous section, we take a dense sequence $\{y_i : i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ in \mathbb{R}^d . For a fixed time $t \in (0, 1)$, we consider the approximation with finitely many points at t = 0,

$$u_N(t,x) = \min\left\{u(0,y_i) + tL\left(\frac{x-y_i}{t}\right) : i = 1,\dots,N\right\}.$$

Take a compact subset $A(t) \subset F(t)$. We denote by $A_N(s)$ the push-forward of the set A(t) along the approximating rays $p_N(t, x)$. Then we get

$$\mathcal{L}^{d}(A_{N}(s)) \ge \left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^{d} \mathcal{L}^{d}(A(t)) \quad \text{ for } s \le t.$$

Up to a set of measure ϵ , we can assume that $p_N(t)$, p(t) are continuous and $p_N(t) \to p(t)$ uniformly on A(t). Then $A_N(s)$ is compact for $s \leq t$, and it converges to A(s) in Hausdorff distance. Since \mathcal{L}^d is upper semicontinuous with respect to the Hausdorff distance, this implies that

$$\mathcal{L}^d(A(s)) \ge \left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^d \mathcal{L}^d(A(t)) \quad \text{for } s \le t.$$

By repeating the above approximation with finitely many points at t = 1, one obtains the corresponding estimate

$$\mathcal{L}^d(A(s)) \ge \left(\frac{1-s}{1-t}\right)^d \mathcal{L}^d(A(t)) \quad \text{for } s \ge t.$$

We thus obtain the following estimate for the push-forward of the Lebesgue measure.

Lemma 6.1. Let

$$\mu(s) = [z + (s - t)p]_{\sharp} \mathcal{L}^d.$$

Then

$$\mu(s) = c(s, t, z)\mathcal{L}^d|_{F(t)},$$

with

$$c(s,t,z) \in \left[\left(\frac{s}{t}\right)^d, \left(\frac{1-s}{1-t}\right)^d \right] \quad \text{for } s \le t,$$
$$c(s,t,z) \in \left[\left(\frac{1-t}{1-s}\right)^d, \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^d \right] \quad \text{for } t \le s.$$

Proof. By the previous estimates, we have for $s \ge t$,

$$\left(\frac{1-t}{1-s}\right)^{d} \mathcal{L}^{d}(A(s)) \leq \mathcal{L}^{d}(A(t)) \leq \left(\frac{t}{s}\right)^{d} \mathcal{L}^{d}(A(s)).$$

By the definition of the image measure,

$$\mathcal{L}^d(A(t)) = \mu(s)(A(s)).$$

Thus the result follows.

The function c(s, t, z) is the Jacobian of the transformation.

6.1. Disintegration of the Lebesgue measure. Using Lemma 6.1, we now apply the Fubini-Tonelli theorem to a measurable set $A = \bigcup_t \{t\} \times A(t) \subset \bigcup_t \{t\} \times F(t)$ to obtain

$$\int_{A} \mathrm{d}t \times \mathcal{L}^{d} = \int \mathrm{d}t \int_{A(t)} \mathcal{L}^{d}$$
$$= \int \mathrm{d}t \int_{A(t,s)} c(t,s) \mathcal{L}^{d}$$
$$= \int \mathcal{L}^{d} \int \mathrm{d}t c(t,s) \chi_{A(t,s)}$$

where A(t, s) is the image of the set A(t) by

$$A(t,s) = (z + (s - t)p(z))(A(t))$$

Remark 6.2. In the new coordinates, dt c(t, s) is concentrated on a single optimal ray.

Since the rays do not intersect, we can disintegrate the Lebesgue measure along rays,

$$\mathcal{L}^d \times \mathrm{d}t|_F = \int \mathrm{d}m(\alpha)\mu_\alpha$$

We can parameterize the rays by the points of the plane t = 1/2, then the support of μ_{α} is the optimal ray passing through $\alpha \in F(1/2)$. Using the previous formula, we obtain the following theorem:

Theorem 6.3. The disintegration of the Lebesgue measure on the set of optimal rays F is

$$\int \mathrm{d}m(\alpha)\mu_{\alpha},$$

with

$$m(\alpha) = \mathcal{L}^d \int_0^1 c\left(t, \frac{1}{2}\right) \mathrm{d}t,$$
$$\mu_\alpha = \left(\int_0^1 c\left(t, \frac{1}{2}\right) \mathrm{d}t\right)^{-1} c\left(t, \frac{1}{2}\right) \mathrm{d}t,$$

where $c\left(t, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ is the Jacobian along the ray $\alpha + (t - 1/2)p(\alpha)$. Remark 6.4. By Fubini's theorem,

$$\int_0^1 c\left(t, \frac{1}{2}\right) \mathrm{d}t < +\infty \quad \mathcal{L}^d\text{-a.e.},$$

therefore the formula makes sense.

In the following we denote $c(t, \alpha) = c(t, 1/2, \alpha)$.

6.2. Regularity of the Jacobian and applications.

Lemma 6.5. $c(t, \alpha) \in W_t^{1,1}$, and there exists a $K_d > 0$ such that

$$\int_0^1 \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} c(t, \alpha) \right| \, \mathrm{d}t \le K_d.$$

Proof. Since

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}c(t,\alpha) + \frac{d}{1-t}c(t,\alpha) \ge 0,$$

we can estimate

$$\begin{split} \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} c(t,\alpha) \right| \mathrm{d}t &\leq \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} c(t,\alpha) + 2 \frac{d}{1-t} c(t,\alpha) \,\mathrm{d}t \\ &\leq c \left(\frac{1}{2},\alpha\right) + 4d \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} c(t,\alpha) \,\mathrm{d}t, \end{split}$$

and similarly

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} c(t,\alpha) \right| \mathrm{d}t \le c \left(\frac{1}{2},\alpha\right) + 4d \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{1} c(t,\alpha) \,\mathrm{d}t,$$

 $\mathrm{Tot.Var.}(c(\cdot,\alpha)) \leq 4d + 2c\left(\frac{1}{2},\alpha\right).$

 $\lim_{t\to 0^+,1^-} c(t,\alpha)$

 $\int_0^1 c(t,\alpha) \,\mathrm{d}t = 1$

Hence

In particular the limits

exist. From the normalization

$$c(t,\alpha) \geq \min\left\{2^d |t|^d, 2^d |1-t|^d\right\} c\left(\frac{1}{2},\alpha\right),$$

it follows that there is K_d^\prime such that

$$c\left(\frac{1}{2},\alpha\right) \le K'_d,$$

so that by (6.1) there is K_d such that

Tot.Var.
$$(c(\cdot, \alpha)) \leq K_d$$

Corollary 6.6.

$$\frac{1}{c} \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} c \right| \in L^1_{\mathrm{loc}}(\mathrm{d}t \, \mathrm{d}x).$$

6.3. Divergence formulation.

Proposition 6.7. We have the following relation between c and the divergence of the vector field p:

$$\operatorname{div}(1, p\chi_F) = \left. \frac{1}{c} \frac{\mathrm{d}c}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathrm{d}t \,\mathrm{d}z \right|_F$$

From

$$\frac{1}{c}\frac{\mathrm{d}c}{\mathrm{d}t} \in \left(-\frac{d}{1-t}, \frac{d}{t}\right)$$

 $it\ follows\ that\ it\ is\ an\ absolutely\ continuous\ measure.$

Proof. Take a test function $\phi \in C_c^1(F)$. Applying the disintegration along the rays, one obtains

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_0^1 \phi(t,z) \operatorname{div}(1, p_t \chi_{F(t)}) \, \mathrm{d}t \, \mathrm{d}z \\ &= -\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_0^1 \chi_{F(t)}(z) \phi_t(t,z) + p_t(z) \cdot \nabla \phi(t,z) \, \mathrm{d}t \, \mathrm{d}z \\ &= -\int \mathrm{d}m(\alpha) \int_0^1 \mathrm{d}t \, c(t,\alpha) \Big[\phi_t(t,(1-t)y+tx) + (x-y) \cdot \nabla \phi(t,(1-t)y+tx) \Big] \\ &= -\int \mathrm{d}m(\alpha) \int_0^1 \mathrm{d}t \, c(t,\alpha) \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \phi(t,(1-t)y+tx) \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}m(\alpha) \int_0^1 \mathrm{d}t \, \frac{\mathrm{d}c}{\mathrm{d}t}(t,\alpha) \phi(t,(1-t)y+tx) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{c} \frac{\mathrm{d}c}{\mathrm{d}t}\right) \phi(t,z) \mathrm{d}t \, \mathrm{d}z. \end{split}$$

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