



# An application of the stationary phase method to maximum entropy solutions of the multivariable moments problems

Călin-Grigore Ambrozie\*

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## Abstract

We use Hörmander's results on the method of the stationary phase to elaborate a technique of obtaining systems of algebraic equations, that can help the computation of the parameters defining the maximum entropy representing density of a finite set of moments.

*Keywords:* maximum entropy, moments problem, positive representing density.

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## 1 Statement of the problem

Fix  $n, m \geq 1$  and let  $\mathbb{R}^n$  be the  $n$ -dimensional Euclidian space, endowed with the Lebesgue measure  $dt$ , where  $t = (t_1, \dots, t_n)$  denotes the variable in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Let  $A = A_{n,m} = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n : |\alpha| \leq 2m\}$ , where  $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$  for any multiindex  $\alpha$ . Given an arbitrary set  $\gamma = (\gamma_\alpha)_\alpha$  of numbers  $\gamma_\alpha$  ( $\alpha \in A$ ), the truncated problem of moments under consideration here requires to establish if there are nonnegative, absolutely continuous measures  $\mu = f dt \geq 0$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\int t^\alpha f(t) dt = \gamma_\alpha \quad (\alpha \in A). \quad (1)$$

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Thus we consider absolutely continuous representing measures  $f dt$ , with nonnegative density  $f$  from  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$  – the space of all classes of Lebesgue measurable functions that Lebesgue integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Set  $a := \text{card } A$ .

In a previous work [ ] we characterized the existence of such representing densities by the solvability of the following system

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t^\alpha e^{\sum_{\beta \in A} x_\beta t^\beta} dt = \gamma_\alpha \quad (\alpha \in A) \quad (2)$$

of  $a$  equations with  $a$  unknowns  $x_\alpha$  ( $\alpha \in A$ ). Therefore if our problem (1) has any absolutely continuous solution  $\mu = f dt$ , then it will necessarily have also a solution of the form from above. The concrete form of (2) then should allow to study the existence of (or approximate) the vector  $x = (x_\alpha)_{\alpha \in A} \in \mathbb{R}^a$ , see for instance [?], [3] and [ ].

For powers moment problems, it is known [ ], [ ] that if there exists an integrable representing density of the form  $f_* = \exp(\sum_{\alpha \in A} x_\alpha u_\alpha)$  on the whole space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then knowing a large set of its moments, namely all  $\gamma_\alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in A + A$ , provides the values of  $x_\alpha$  ( $\alpha \in A$ ) by solving a compatible and determined linear system (??). Note the following example. Let  $n = 1$  and  $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Set  $u_\alpha(t) = t^\alpha$  ( $\alpha = 0, 1, 2$ ). In this case one can use (2) to compute  $x_\alpha$  by hand. Namely, assume that  $f_*(t) := \exp(x_0 + x_1 t + x_2 t^2)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  is integrable and satisfies (2). Since  $f_* \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ , then  $x_2 < 0$ . Hence by the Leibniz–Newton formula we have  $\int f'_* dt = 0$  and  $\int (t f'_*(t))' dt = 0$ , where  $f'$  denotes the derivative of  $f$ . It follows  $x_1 \gamma_0 + 2x_2 \gamma_1 = 0$  and  $\gamma_0 + x_1 \gamma_1 + 2x_2 \gamma_2 = 0$ . Then  $x_1 = \gamma_0 \gamma_1 d^{-1}$ ,  $x_2 = -\gamma_0^2 d^{-1}$  and  $x_0 = \ln(\gamma_0 / \int \exp(x_1 t + x_2 t^2) dt)$ , where  $d := \gamma_0 \gamma_2 - \gamma_1^2$ . Hence  $f_*(t) = C \exp[-(t - s)^2/d]$  is a multiple of the Gauss distribution of mean  $s = \gamma_1/2$  and dispersion  $d$ . Thus we get the well-known fact that the maximum entropy probability density of given mean and dispersion is the normal one, see [11] for instance. Similar computations providing  $x$  in terms of the known data  $\gamma_\alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in A$  can be done also when  $A = \{\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n \mid \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \leq 2\}$  (this moment problem has been solved in [8] by different methods).

Namely,  $f_*$  maximizes the Boltzmann's integral  $-\int f \ln f dm$  amongst all the absolutely continuous measures  $\mu = f m \geq 0$  satisfying the equalities (1).

To briefly recall the significance of the maximum entropy solution [7], [11], [12], let  $V : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \rightarrow (T, m)$  be a random variable with values in  $T$  and absolutely continuous repartition  $P \circ V^{-1} = \mu = f m$ , where  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  is a probability field. Let  $T$  be finite with  $m :=$  the normalized cardinal measure. The average of the minimum amount of information necessary

to determine the position of  $V$  in  $T$  proves then to be equal to Shannon's entropy

$$H(f) := - \int_{\Omega} \log_2 f(V(\omega)) dP(\omega) \quad (= - \sum_{t \in T} f(t) \log_2 f(t)),$$

see for instance [11]. In general, if  $T$  is endowed with some arbitrary non-negative measure  $m$ , then the corresponding degree of randomness of  $V$  is measured by

$$H(V) := - \int_{\Omega} \ln f \circ V dP \quad (= - \int_T f \ln f dm).$$

Suppose that the repartition  $f$  of  $V$  is unknown, but we can find the mean values of some quantities  $u_{\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha \in A$  depending on  $V$ . The available data on  $V$  are thus given by the knowledge of the numbers

$$\gamma_{\alpha} := \int_{\Omega} u_{\alpha}(V(\omega)) dP(\omega) \quad (= \int_T u_{\alpha}(t) f(t) dm(t)) \quad (\alpha \in A).$$

The problem is now to choose the most reliable  $f$  by using all this (and only this) information. The repartition  $f_*$  of the highest degree of randomness allowed by the conditions (1) is then the natural choice for  $f$ , see for instance [11], [12] for details. Note also in this sense the very interesting result from below.

**Theorem 0** [7] *Let  $n := 1$  and  $T := [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $V$  be a random variable with uniform distribution on  $T$ . If  $V_1, V_2, \dots$  are independent copies of  $V$ , then the conditional probability of  $V$  given the observation*

$$k^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k u_{\alpha}(V_i) = \gamma_{\alpha} \quad (\alpha \in A, k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

*converges to  $f_{*,x}$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .*

Therefore in certain moment-type problems it could be of interest to approximate  $f_{*,x}$  (that is,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^a$ ).

The main concern of the present paper is then to find a way of **computing / approximating the vector  $x = (x_{\alpha})_{\alpha}$  in the equation (2) from above.**

## 2 Main results

Let  $p$  be a polynomial of degree  $2m$  in  $n$  variables  $t = (t_1, \dots, t_n)$ , with real coefficients  $x_i$ ,

$$p(t) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n, |i| \leq 2m} x_i t^i,$$

s.t.  $p(t) \leq -c\|t\|^2 + c'$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $c, c' > 0$ .

Set  $x = (x_i)_i \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , where  $N := \text{card} \{i : |i| \leq 2m\}$ .

Let  $g_i = g_i(x)$  be defined by

$$g_i = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t^i e^{p(t)} dt \quad (|i| \leq 2m)$$

and set  $g = (g_i)_i \in \mathbb{R}^N$ . Thus  $g = g(x)$ .

Our problem is then to find a suitable way (analytic, numerical etc) of expressing  $x$  in terms of  $g$ ;  $x = x(g) = ?$

Our **Main theorem** is the following.

**Theorem** *There exist  $N - 1$  nontrivial polynomial functions  $f_k$  of  $N - 1$  variables, the coefficients of which depend on  $g$ , s.t. the sets  $\tilde{x} := (x_i)_{i \neq 0}$  satisfy*

$$f_1(\tilde{x}) = 0, \dots, f_{N-1}(\tilde{x}) = 0.$$

**Lemma 1** *Let  $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a closed convex cone and  $L, M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be linear subspaces with  $L \subset M$  and  $\dim M/L = 1$  s.t.  $L + C \cap M \neq M$ . Let  $f$  be a linear functional on  $L$  s.t.  $fx > 0$  for every nonzero  $x \in C \cap L$ . Then there exists a linear extension  $F$  of  $f$  to  $M$  s.t.  $Fx > 0$  for every nonzero  $x \in C \cap M$ .*

*Proof.* We can suppose that  $C \cap M \not\subset L$  (in particular,  $C \cap M \neq \emptyset$ ). Fix also a unit vector  $u \in M$ , orthogonal to  $L$ . By a compactness argument, there is a constant  $a > 0$  s.t.

$$d(x, C) \geq a\|x\| \quad (x \in L, fx \leq 0), \quad (3)$$

for otherwise we can find a sequence of unit vectors  $x_k \in L$  with  $fx_k \leq 0$  s.t.  $d(x_k, C) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , and hence, a subsequence convergent to a unit vector  $x \in C \cap L$  with  $fx \leq 0$ , contrary to the hypotheses.

Let  $\mathcal{C} := \text{ri}(C \cap M)$ . We prove that  $\mathcal{C} \cap L = \emptyset$ . Suppose there exists a vector  $v \in \mathcal{C}$  with  $v \in L$ . Let  $c_1 \in (C \cap M) \setminus L$ . Then the inner product  $\langle c_1, u \rangle \neq 0$ . Since  $v$  is in the relative interior  $\mathcal{C}$  of the set  $C \cap M$  and  $c_1 \in C \cap M$ , by [Theorem II.6.4, [?]] we can find an  $\epsilon > 0$  s.t.  $c_2 := -\epsilon c_1 + (1 + \epsilon)v$  is in  $C \cap M$ . Since  $v \in L$  and  $u \perp L$ , we have  $\langle c_2, u \rangle = -\epsilon \langle c_1, u \rangle$ . The number  $\langle c_2, u \rangle$  is then  $\neq 0$  and has opposite sign to  $\langle c_1, u \rangle$ . Write  $c_i = \langle c_i, u \rangle u + h_i$  where  $h_i \in L$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . Then  $\langle c_i, u \rangle u \in (C \cap M) + L$ . It follows, due to the signs of the coefficients, that both  $u, -u \in C \cap M + L$ , and so  $\mathbb{R} \cdot u \in C \cap M + L$ , whence  $M = \mathbb{R} \cdot u + L \subset C \cap M + L$ , that is contrary to the hypotheses  $L + C \cap M \neq M$ .

Since  $\mathcal{C} \cap L = \emptyset$ , one of the half-spaces associated to the hyperplane  $L$  in  $M$  must contain  $\mathcal{C}$  entirely, for if  $\mathcal{C}$  contained points  $x$  and  $y$  in the two opposing half-spaces, some point of the line segment between  $x$  and  $y$  would be in  $L$ , that is impossible. The corresponding closed half-space of  $M$  must then contain the closure

$$\overline{\mathcal{C}} = \overline{\text{ri}(C \cap M)} = \overline{C \cap M} = C \cap M.$$

Then there is a unit vector  $x_0 \in M$ , namely one of the vectors  $u$  or  $-u$  orthogonal to  $L$  in  $M$ , s.t.  $\langle c, x_0 \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $c \in C \cap M$ . Extend  $f$  by taking  $Fx_0 > \|f\|a^{-1}$ . Then for any  $c \in C \cap M$ , the orthogonal decomposition

$$c = \lambda x_0 + h \quad (\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, h \in L)$$

gives  $0 \leq \langle c, x_0 \rangle = \lambda \|x_0\|^2 + 0 = \lambda$ . To prove that  $Fc \geq 0$  with strict inequality if  $c \neq 0$ , consider two cases.

If  $fh \geq 0$ , we obtain  $Fc = \lambda Fx_0 + fh \geq 0$ , and  $Fc \neq 0$  unless both  $\lambda, fh = 0$  which means  $c = h \in C \cap L$  and  $fh = 0$  that implies  $c = 0$  by our hypotheses.

If  $fh < 0$ , by (3) we have

$$|fh| \leq \|f\| \|h\| \leq \|f\| a^{-1} d(h, C) \leq \|f\| a^{-1} \|h - c\| \leq \|f\| a^{-1} \lambda,$$

whence  $Fc = \lambda Fx_0 + fh \geq (Fx_0 - \|f\|a^{-1})\lambda \geq 0$ , with strict inequality because  $Fc = 0$  only when  $\lambda = 0$  in which case  $c = h \in C \cap L \rightarrow fh \geq 0$  that is impossible when  $fh < 0$ .

For any multiindex  $i = (i_1, \dots, i_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n$  we write as usual  $i! = i_1! \cdots i_n!$ ,  $|i| = i_1 + \cdots + i_n$  and  $x^i = x_1^{i_1} \cdots x_n^{i_n}$  for a variable  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ . Also,  $i \leq j$  means  $i_1 \leq j_1, \dots, i_n \leq j_n$ . Let  $\deg p$  denote the degree of a polynomial  $p$ . Let  $p_h$  denote the homogeneous part of maximal degree of  $p$ .

Let  $GL(n)$ , resp.  $O(n)$  denote as usual the group of all invertible, resp. orthogonal linear maps on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Remind that a *positive definite form* in  $n$  variables is a polynomial  $p = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} X_i X_j$  s.t. the  $n \times n$  matrix  $[a_{ij}]_{i,j=1}^n$  is positive definite, namely  $\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} x_i x_j > 0$  for every vector  $(x_i)_{i=1}^n \neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or, equivalently, s.t.  $p(x) \geq c \|x\|^2$  for some constant  $c = c_p > 0$  ( $\Leftrightarrow \lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = +\infty$ , too).

**Definition** We call an arbitrary polynomial  $p \in \mathbb{R}[X]$  *positive definite* if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $R$  s.t.

$$p(x) \geq c \|x\|^2$$

for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|x\| \geq R$ , or, equivalently, if there exist  $c > 0$ ,  $c'$  s.t.

$$p(x) + c' \geq c \|x\|^2 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

condition that easily proves also to be equivalent to

$$\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = +\infty.$$

Let  $P = P_n = \{ p \in \mathbb{R}[X_1, \dots, X_n] : p \text{ is positive definite} \}$ .

**Remark 2** (a) If  $p = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} X_i X_j + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i X_i + c$ , then  $p \in P_n \Leftrightarrow$  the form  $\sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij} X_i X_j$  is positive definite.

(b)  $P_n$  is a convex cone, stable under multiplication.

(c) If  $p \in P_n$ , then for every  $T \in GL(n)$ ,  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  the polynomial  $p(TX + x_0) + c$  also is in  $P_n$ .

(d) If  $X = (X^1, \dots, X^k)$  is a partition of the set  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  of variables and  $p_j \in \mathbb{R}[X^j] \subset \mathbb{R}[X]$  is a positive definite form in  $\mathbb{R}[X^j]$  for each  $j = \overline{1, k}$  then  $p_1 + \cdots + p_k \in P_n$ .

(e)  $P_n$  is the minimal set containing all polynomials  $p_1 + \cdots + p_k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$  from (e) and stable under the operations from (b) and (c).

(f) If  $p \in P$ , then  $\deg p$  must be even  $\geq 2$ .

(g) For  $p$  homogeneous,  $p \in P \Leftrightarrow \inf_{\|x\|=1} p(x) > 0 \Leftrightarrow p(x) \geq c \|x\|^{\deg p} \forall x$  for some  $c > 0$ .

(h) If the homogeneous part  $p_h$  of  $p$  is in  $P$ , then  $p \in P$ , but the converse is not true: for example, the polynomial  $p = X_1^4 + X_2^2 \in \mathbb{R}[X_1, X_2]$  is in  $P_2$  while  $p_h = X_1^4 \notin P_2$ .

We remind from [?] the following lemma.

**Lemma 3** *For any  $p \in \mathbb{R}[X]$  there exists a unique minimal linear subspace  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.  $p = p \circ P_Y$ .*

Let  $\text{supp } p$  denote the unique minimal linear subspace provided by Lemma 3. We call  $\text{supp } p$  the *support* of the polynomial  $p$ .

**Lemma 4** *Let  $P : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be linear s.t.  $P^2 = P$  and  $\dim \text{im } P = n - 1$ . If  $p \in \mathbb{R}[X]$  s.t.  $p = p \circ P$ , then  $p = p \circ P_{\ker(I-P^*)}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $Z = \ker(I - P^*)$ . Since  $P$  is a projection onto a hyperplane,  $I - P$  is a projection onto a 1-dimensional space. Then there exist some vectors  $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.  $x - Px = \langle x, v \rangle w$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The equality  $P^2 = P$  is equivalent to  $\langle v, w \rangle = 1$ . We can assume that  $\|w\| = 1$ , replacing  $w$  by  $\|w\|^{-1}w$  and  $v$  by  $\|w\|v$ . Set  $e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $O \in O(n)$  s.t.  $Oe_1 = w$ . Let  $Q = O^*PO$  and  $q = p \circ O$ . Since  $p = p \circ P$ , we have  $q \circ Q = q$ . Write  $O^*v = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$ . The equalities  $1 = \langle v, w \rangle = \langle O^*v, O^*w \rangle = \langle (a_1, \dots, a_n), e_1 \rangle = a_1$  show that  $a_1 = 1$ . It follows that  $Qx = x - \langle Ox, v \rangle O^*w = x - \langle x, O^*v \rangle e_1$ . Hence for every  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have  $\langle (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), (1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \rangle = x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} Qx &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) - \langle (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), (1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \rangle (1, 0, \dots, 0) \\ &= \left( - \sum_{j=2}^n a_j x_j, x_2, \dots, x_n \right). \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\partial_1 Q = 0$ , that is, the polynomial function  $Q = Q(x)$  does not depend on the variable  $x_1$ . Hence

$$Q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \equiv Q(0, x_2, \dots, x_n). \quad (4)$$

Now  $(I - P)^* = (\langle \cdot, v \rangle w)^* = \langle \cdot, w \rangle v$  and hence  $Z = \ker(I - P^*) = w^\perp$ . Then for every  $x = (x_j)_{j=1}^n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have

$$P_{O^*Z}x = O^*P_{w^\perp}Ox = O^*(I - P_{\mathbb{R} \cdot w})Ox =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
O^*(Ox - \langle Ox, w \rangle w) &= x - \langle x, O^*w \rangle O^*w \\
&= x - \langle x, e_1 \rangle e_1 = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) - (x_1, 0, \dots, 0) = (0, x_2, \dots, x_n).
\end{aligned}$$

Then, using (4) also, we obtain  $q(P_{O^*Z}x) = q(0, x_2, \dots, x_n) = q(x)$ , namely  $q \circ P_{O^*Z} = q$ . Hence  $p \circ OP_{O^*Z}O^* = p$ . But  $P_{O^*Z} = O^*P_ZO$ , and so,  $p \circ P_Z = p$ .

**Lemma 5** *Let  $\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{q}, \tilde{r}$  be polynomials with  $\deg \tilde{r} < \deg \tilde{q} (< \deg \tilde{\pi}?)$  and  $\tilde{q}$  homogeneous of degree  $k$ . Write  $\tilde{q} = \sum_{j=0}^k P_j X_n^j$  with  $P_j \in \mathbb{R}[X']$  homogeneous of degree  $k - j$ . Suppose there is an index  $j \in \{1, \dots, k - 1\}$  s.t.  $P_j \not\equiv 0$ . Suppose also that  $\tilde{\pi} \in \mathbb{R}[X']$ . Then  $e^{\tilde{\pi} + \tilde{q} + \tilde{r}} \notin L^1$ .*

**Lemma 6** *Let  $\pi, q, r \in \mathbb{R}[X]$  s.t.  $\deg r < \deg q (< \deg \pi?)$  and  $q$  is homogeneous. Let  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a linear subspace s.t.  $\pi = \pi \circ P_Y$ . Suppose that  $\sup\{d(z, Y) : z \in \text{supp } q, \|z\| = 1, q(z) \geq 0\} = 1$ . Then  $e^{\pi + q + r} \notin L^1$ .*

Remind that we have obtained in [1] the following theorem.

**Theorem 7** *Let  $p \in \mathbb{R}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  be arbitrary. Set  $f(t) = e^{p(t)}$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) *The function  $f = e^p$  is Lebesgue integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .*
- (b) *The polynomial  $-p$  is positive definite in  $\mathbb{R}[X_1, \dots, X_n]$ .*

The idea is to be used firstly can be described by the following elementary example.

**Example:**  $n = 1, m = 1$

In this case, the equations of moments are:

$$\int e^{x_0 + x_1 t + x_2 t^2} dt = g_0, \quad \int t e^{x_0 + x_1 t + x_2 t^2} dt = g_1, \quad \int t^2 e^{x_0 + x_1 t + x_2 t^2} dt = g_2$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 g_0 + 2x_2 g_1 = 0, \quad g_0 + x_1 g_1 + 2x_2 g_2 = 0$$

$\Rightarrow x_1 = x_1(g), x_2 = x_2(g)$  by solving the system of equations  $f_1(x_1, x_2) = 0, f_2(x_1, x_2) = 0$  from above

(while  $x_0$  can be obtained from  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{x_0 + x_1 t + x_2 t^2} dt = g_0$ )

**Proof:** Leibniz-Newton formula



$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dt}(e^{x_0+x_1t+x_2t^2})dt = e^{x_0+x_1t+x_2t^2} \Big|_{t=-\infty}^{t=+\infty} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x_1 + 2x_2t)e^{x_0+x_1t+x_2t^2} dt = 0, \text{ that is,}$$

$$x_1g_0 + 2x_2g_1 = x_1 \int e^{x_0+x_1t+x_2t^2} dt + 2x_2 \int te^{x_0+x_1t+x_2t^2} dt = 0$$

$$\text{and we similarly use } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dt}(te^{x_0+x_1t+x_2t^2})dt = 0$$

## 2.1 Notions of multivariable moments problems

Fix  $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$

**Problem:**

Characterize those sets  $g = (g_i)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n, |i| \leq 2m}$  of real numbers  $g_i$  that admit nonnegative representing measures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with respect to the powers  $t^i$  ( $|i| \leq 2m$ ), that is,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t^i d\mu(t) = g_i \quad (i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n, |i| \leq 2m)$$

where we used the multiindex notation,

$$\begin{aligned} i &= (i_1, \dots, i_n) & |i| &= i_1 + \dots + i_n \\ t &= (t_1, \dots, t_n) & t^i &= t_1^{i_1} \dots t_n^{i_n} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &: \text{Bor}(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow [0, \infty) \text{ measure} \\ \text{s.t. } &t^i \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mu) \forall i \text{ with } |i| \leq 2m \end{aligned}$$

We call  $\mu$  a *representing measure* for  $g$

We call  $\int t^i d\mu(t)$  the *moments* of  $\mu$

If  $\mu = f dt$  with  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, dt)$ , we call  $f$  a *representing density* for  $g$

**Example 1**  $n = 1, m = \text{arbitrary}, g = (g_i)_{i=0}^{2m}$

**Theorem** (Hamburger, Markov, Chebyshev,...) A set  $g = (g_0, g_1, \dots, g_{2m})$  is a sequence of moments of some nontrivial representing density  $f \geq 0$ , that

is,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^i f(t) dt = g_i \quad (i = 0, \dots, 2m),$$

if and only the Hankel matrix

$$H_g := [g_{i+j}]_{i,j \leq m}$$

is positive definite, namely  $\sum_{i,j=0}^m g_{i+j} \lambda_i \lambda_j > 0$  for all  $(\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_m) \neq 0$ , or equivalently,

$$g_0 > 0, g_0 g_2 - g_1^2 > 0, \dots, \det H_g > 0.$$

**Proof**

– Riesz-Haviland's theorem:  $g$  is a set of moments  $\Leftrightarrow$  the functional  $L : X^i \mapsto g_i$  satisfies  $Lp \geq 0$  for all polynomials  $p \geq 0$  ( $Lp = \int p d\mu$ )

– On the real line,  $p \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow p = \sum q^2 =$  sum of squares of polynomials  $q = \sum_i \lambda_i X^i$

$$- L(q^2) = L(\sum_{i,j} \lambda_i \lambda_j X^{i+j}) = \sum_{i,j} \lambda_i \lambda_j g_{i+j}$$

In this case (real line), various numerical algorithms can provide approximate solutions  $\mu = \int f dt$

**Example 2**  $m = 1, n = \text{arbitrary}, g = (g_i)_{|i| \leq 2}$

Since any polynomial of degree 2 in several variables is a sum of squares, we obtain the (also, well known):

**Theorem** A set  $g = (g_{i_1, \dots, i_n})_{i_1 + \dots + i_n \leq 2}$  has representing measures  $\mu \geq 0$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n \Leftrightarrow$

$$\sum_{i,j \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n; |i|, |j| \leq m} g_{i+j} \lambda_i \lambda_j \geq 0$$

for all  $(\lambda_i)_{|i| \leq m}$ .

In this case (moments of order 2), there exist elementary ways of finding solutions  $\mu$ .

**In the general case**, for arbitrary  $n$  and  $m$  ( $\geq 2$ ), no such characterizations or analytic solutions are known (there are positive polynomials that are not sums of squares).

We remind from [] the following basic result.

**Theorem** Let  $g = (g_i)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n, |i| \leq 2m}$  be a set of powers moments of a measure  $\mu = f dt + \nu \geq 0$ , with  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, dt) \setminus \{0\}$  and  $\nu$  singular with respect to  $dt$ . Namely,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t^i d\mu(t) = g_i \quad (|i| \leq 2m).$$

Then there exist  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$  ( $|i| \leq 2m$ ), uniquely determined by  $g$ , such that the polynomial

$$p(t) := \sum_{|j| \leq 2m} x_j t^j$$

satisfies  $p(t) \leq -c\|t\|^2 + c'$  and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t^i \exp\left(\sum_{|j| \leq 2m} x_j t^j\right) dt = g_i \quad (|i| \leq 2m).$$

## 2.2 On the maximum entropy principle

Let

$$V : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \rightarrow (T, m)$$

be a random variable with values in  $T$  and absolutely continuous repartition

$$P \circ V^{-1} = \mu = f m,$$

where  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  is a probability field and  $T$  is a measurable space.

If  $T = \text{finite}$  and  $m := \text{the normalized cardinal measure}$ :

**Theorem** (Shannon) The average of the minimum amount of information necessary to determine the position of  $V$  in  $T$  equals the *entropy*  $H(f)$  of  $V$ ,

$$H(f) := - \int_{\Omega} \log_2 f(V(\omega)) dP(\omega) = - \sum_{t \in T} f(t) \log_2 f(t).$$

In general, the degree of randomness of  $V$  is measured by

$$H(V) := - \int_{\Omega} \ln f \circ V \, dP \quad (= - \int_T f \ln f \, dm).$$

Suppose the repartition  $f$  of  $V$  is unknown but we can find the average values  $g_i$  of some quantities  $u_i$  depending on  $V$ .

The available data on  $V$  are thus given by the knowledge of the numbers

$$g_i := \int_{\Omega} u_i(V(\omega)) \, dP(\omega) = \int_T u_i(t) f(t) \, dm(t) \quad (5)$$

The problem is now to choose the most reliable  $f$ , by using all this, and only this information.

**Solution:**  $f = f_*$ , maximizing  $H(\cdot)$  subject to eqs. (5)

**Formula:**  $f_*(t) = \exp \sum_i x_i u_i(t)$

Other motivations for  $H$ :

– Let  $T = \mathbb{R}$  and  $m = dt$ ;

Boltzmann's integral formula for the physical entropy,

$$H(f) = - \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) \ln f(t) \, dt.$$

– **Theorem** (Van Campenhout; Cover) Let  $T = [a, b]$  be endowed with  $m = dt$ . Let  $V$  be a random variable with uniform distribution on  $T$ . Let  $V_1, V_2, \dots$  be independent copies of  $V$ .

Then the conditional probability of  $V$  given the observation

$$k^{-1} \sum_{p=1}^k u_i(V_p) = g_i \quad (p = 1, 2, \dots)$$

converges to  $f_*$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

Suppose we look for a joint repartition

$$fm := P \circ (V_1, \dots, V_n)^{-1}$$

of  $n$  random variables  $V_1, \dots, V_n$  with values in  $\mathbb{R}$  by knowing only the average values

$$g_i = \int_{\Omega} V_1^{i_1} \dots V_n^{i_n} dP = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t_1^{i_1} \dots t_n^{i_n} f(t) dt$$

for all multiindices  $i = (i_1, \dots, i_n)$  with  $|i| \leq 2m$ .

Then let  $T := \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $m = dt$ ,  $u_i(t) = t^i$  and maximize

$$H(f) := - \int f \ln f dm$$

among all absolutely continuous measures  $\mu = fm \geq 0$  having the prescribed moments

$$\int t^i f(t) dt = g_i \quad (|i| \leq 2m)$$

**Conclusion:**  $f_*(t) = \exp p(t)$ ,  $p(t) = \sum_{|i| \leq 2m} x_i t^i$

**Problem:** computation of the coefficients  $x_i$

### 3 Method of the stationary phase

$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}_{n,m} := \{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n : |i| \leq m, i \neq 0\}$$

$$M = M_{n,m} := \text{card } \mathcal{M}$$

$$\tau : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^M, \quad \tau(t) := (t^i)_{i \in \mathcal{M}}$$

**Lemma** There is a map

$$a : \{i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^n : |i| \leq 2m\} \rightarrow \{\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_+^M : |\alpha| \leq 2\}$$

s.t.

$$t^i \equiv \tau(t)^{a(i)} \quad \forall i$$

Instead of the variables  $t_1, \dots, t_n$ , we introduce new variables  $T_1, \dots, T_M$ ,

s.t.

the monomials  $t^i$  of order  $|i| \leq 2m$   
 can be expressed as  
 monomials  $T^\alpha$  with  $\alpha = a(i)$  of order  $|\alpha| \leq 2$ ,  
 by

$$t^i = T^\alpha|_{T=\tau(t)}$$

**Example**  $n = 1, m = 2$       $\tau(t) = (t, t^2)$

$$\mathcal{M} = \{1, 2\}, M = 2; \quad \mathbb{R}^n = \{t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}, \quad \mathbb{R}^M = \{(T_1, T_2)\}_{T_1, T_2 \in \mathbb{R}}$$

The variables  $T_1, T_2$  are: "  $T_1 = t$ ", "  $T_2 = t^2$ "  
 (dependent,  $T_2 = T_1^2$ , when restricted to the image of  $\tau$  :

$$\begin{aligned} t^0 &= 1 = (t, t^2)^{(0,0)} \\ t^1 &= T_1 = (t, t^2)^{(1,0)} \\ t^2 &= T_1^2 = (t, t^2)^{(2,0)} \\ t^3 &= T_1 T_2 = (t, t^2)^{(1,1)=a(3)}; \text{ here } t^3 = \tau(t)^{a(3)} \\ t^4 &= T_2^2 = (t, t^2)^{(0,2)} \end{aligned}$$

The equations of moments  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} t^i e^{p(t)} dt = g_i$  become

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^M} T^\alpha e^{P(T)} d\mu(T) = g_i$$

where:

$P(T)$  = polynomial of degree 2 s.t.  $P|_{T=\tau(t)} = p(t)$ ;

$\mu$  is a singular measure of integration along the  $n$ -dimensional submanifold  
 $\{\tau(t)\}_t$  of  $\mathbb{R}^M$ ;

write  $\int T^\alpha e^{P(T)} d\mu(T) = \langle \mu, T^\alpha e^{P(T)} \rangle = g_i$

$$\psi(T) := e^{-\|T\|^2}$$

$T = (T_1, \dots, T_M) \in \mathbb{R}^M$  independent variables

$$\psi_k(T) := c_k \psi(kT) = c_k e^{-k^2 \|T\|^2}$$

$c_k$  constant s.t.  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^M} \psi_k(T) dT = 1 \quad \forall k \geq 1$

$$\psi_k \rightarrow \delta$$

in  $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R}^M)$ , as  $k \rightarrow \infty$

$$\mu * \psi_k \rightarrow \mu * \delta = \mu$$

$$\langle \mu * \psi_k, T^\alpha e^{P(T)} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mu, T^\alpha e^{P(T)} \rangle = g_i. \quad (6)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mu * \psi_k, T^\alpha e^{P(T)} \rangle &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} \psi_k(T - \tau(\lambda)) T^\alpha e^{P(T)} dT d\lambda \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} T^\alpha d\tilde{\mu}(T), \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

$$\tilde{\mu} = [c_k \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-k^2 \|T - \tau(\lambda)\|^2 + P(T)} d\lambda] dT$$

$\tilde{\mu}$  is a continuous integral of gaussian densities

(6), (7)  $\Rightarrow$  for large  $k$ , we get a small perturbation of the moments equations

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^M} T^\alpha d\tilde{\mu}(T) \approx g_i$$

for which "the coefficients of  $p$  in  $e^p$  are computable"

For every fixed  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $j \in \mathcal{M}$  ( $\subset \mathbb{Z}_+^n$ ), by Stokes' formula on large spheres, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} \frac{d}{dT_j} (c_k e^{-k^2 \|T - \tau(\lambda)\|^2} \cdot e^{P(T)}) dT &= 0 \Rightarrow \\ -2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} k^2 c_k e^{-k^2 \|T - \tau(\lambda)\|^2} (T_j - \lambda^j) e^{P(T)} dT \\ + \int_{\mathbb{R}^M} \psi_k(T - \tau(\lambda)) \frac{d}{dT_j} (e^{P(T)}) dT &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

( $\psi_k(T) = c_k e^{-k^2 \|T\|^2}$ ). After integration over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

**2nd term** =  $\langle \mu * \psi_k, \frac{d}{dT_j} (e^{P(T)}) \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mu, \frac{d}{dT_j} (e^{P(T)}) \rangle$  = a linear combination of the coefficients  $x_i$ , with coefficients depending on known data  $g$

**1st term** = rational expression in terms of integrals of the form

$$\int u(y) e^{ikf(y)} dy$$

where  $y =$  either  $T$  or  $t$ , and  $f$  is complex-valued  
(for ex.  $f(y) = i \|y - \tau(\lambda)\|^2$ )

**Theorem** (Hörmander,... ) Let  $f = f(y)$  be a complex valued  $C^\infty$  function in a neighborhood of 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  s.t.

$\text{Im } f \geq 0$ ,  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f'(0) = 0$ ,  $\det f''(0) \neq 0$ .

Then there is a compact neighborhood  $K = K_f$  of 0 s.t. for every  $u \in C_0^\infty(K)$  and  $p \geq 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \int u e^{ikf} dy - R_k \cdot \left( L_0 u + \frac{1}{k} L_1 u + \frac{1}{k^2} L_2 u + \cdots + \frac{1}{k^{p-1}} \right) \right| \\ & \leq C_p \frac{1}{k^{p+\frac{m}{2}}} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where  $R_k = (\det(kf''(0))/2\pi i)^{-1/2}$

and each  $L_j$  is a differential operator of order  $2j$  acting on  $u$  at 0, given by

$$L_j u = \sum_{\nu-\mu=j} \sum_{2\nu \geq 3\mu} i^{-j} 2^{-\nu} \langle f''(0) D, D \rangle^\nu (g^\mu u)(0) / \mu! \nu!$$

where  $D = (\frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial y_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial y_m})$  and

$$g(y) = f(y) - f(0) - \langle f''(0) y, y \rangle / 2.$$

Moreover, the coefficients of  $L_j$  are rational homogeneous functions of degree  $-j$  in  $f''(0), \dots, f^{(2j+2)}(0)$  with denominator  $(\det f''(0))^{3j}$ . In every term the total number of derivatives of  $u$  and  $f''$  is at most  $2j$ .

Also, each constant  $C_p = C_p(f, u)$  is bounded "when  $f, f', u$  are controlled".

**Example of use of (8):**  $p = 2$ ,  $m = N$ ,  $y = T$ ,

$f(y) = i \|y - \tau(\lambda)\|^2$ ; for simplicity,  $\lambda := 0$

$u(y) = y^\alpha e^{P(y)}$  with  $\alpha \neq 0$ ;

we multiply the equation

$$\begin{aligned} \int u e^{ikf} dy &= R_k \left( L_0 u + \frac{1}{k} L_1 u + O\left(\frac{1}{k^2}\right) \right) \\ &= R_k \left( u(0) + \frac{1}{k} (\Delta u)(0) + O\left(\frac{1}{k^2}\right) \right) = R_k \left( \frac{1}{k} \Delta u(0) + O\left(\frac{1}{k^2}\right) \right) \end{aligned}$$

by  $k$ , then divide the result by



$$\int e^{if} dy = R_k \cdot (1 + O(\frac{1}{k}))$$

and obtain that

$$\frac{k \int u e^{ikf} dy}{\int e^{ikf} dy} = \frac{\Delta u(0) + O(\frac{1}{k})}{1 + O(\frac{1}{k^2})} = \Delta u(0) + O(\frac{1}{k}),$$

that provides

$$k \int e^{-k\|T-\tau(\lambda)\|^2} T^\alpha e^{P(T)} dT = (\Delta u) \cdot \int \psi_k(T - \tau(\lambda)) e^{P(T)} dT \\ + O(1/k) \rightarrow (\Delta u) \times \text{known data}$$

Integration with resp. to  $\lambda$  gives, since  $u = T^\alpha e^{P(T)}$ , a **1st term** = quadratic function of  $x$ , with coefficients depending on  $g$

etc

Conclusions:

- larger  $p$  are necessary to deal with higher order moments  $m = 3, 4, \dots$ ;
- also,  $f$  is not always quadratic; may be given by the implicit function theorem;
- this method can be used, in principle, for arbitrary data  $n, m$  etc;
- the usefulness of the results for concrete moments problems would only occur by means of explicitly computing the functions  $f_i(X)$  in the main Theorem; this seems to be a routine, but difficult task, to be completed in future papers.

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Institute of Mathematics AV CR  
 Žitná 25, 115 67 Prague 1  
 Czech Republic

`ambrozie@math.cas.cz`