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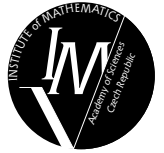
**An application of the stationary phase
method to maximum entropy solutions
of the multivariable moments problems**

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

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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.

Mathematics Subject Classification: MSC 44A60, 49J99

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 α . Given an arbitrary set $\gamma = (\gamma_\alpha)_\alpha$ of numbers γ_α ($\alpha \in A$), 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 [1] 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_α ($\alpha \in A$). 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 [2], [3] and [4].

For powers moment problems, it is known [5], [6] 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 γ_α , $\alpha \in A + A$, provides the values of x_α ($\alpha \in A$) 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_α 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 γ_α , $\alpha \in A$ 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 (Ω, \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_{α} , $\alpha \in A$ 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

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

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 ≥ 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 μ a *representing measure* for g

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

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 μ .

In the general case, for arbitrary n and m (≥ 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 ν 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 (Ω, \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^α 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 τ ;

$$t^0 = 1 = (t, t^2)^{(0,0)}$$

$$t^1 = T_1 = (t, t^2)^{(1,0)}$$

$$t^2 = T_1^2 = (t, t^2)^{(2,0)}$$

$$t^3 = T_1 T_2 = (t, t^2)^{(1,1)=a(3)}; \text{ here } t^3 = \tau(t)^{a(3)}$$

$$t^4 = T_2^2 = (t, t^2)^{(0,2)}$$

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. $P|_{T=\tau(t)} = p(t)$;

μ 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^∞ 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 λ 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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