

# Rates of Convergence in the Central Limit Theorem for Markov Chains

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University of Connecticut, 2025

## ABSTRACT

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# Rates of Convergence in the Central Limit Theorem for Markov Chains

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A Dissertation  
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
at the  
University of Connecticut

2025

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# APPROVAL PAGE

Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation

## Rates of Convergence in the Central Limit Theorem for Markov Chains

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

At this point, I would like to thank the many people who - directly or indirectly  
- have contributed to this dissertation. ....

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## NOTATION

(This section should be for reference only and most of these symbols should be defined in the text)

First recall the conventional multiindex notation. Let  $\mathbb{N}_0$  denote the nonnegative integers. A multiindex  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$  is an  $n$ -tuple of nonnegative integers. The degree of a multiindex is  $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n$ . Multivariate exponentiation is defined as follows. For  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$x^\alpha = x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots x_n^{\alpha_n}.$$

Here we will use the convention  $0^0 = 1$  so that for example  $(x, y, z)^{(0,1,0)} = y$ . We will use  $e_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to represent the canonical unit vector

$$e_i = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

which can also be interpreted as a multiindex so for example

$$(x, y, z)^{2e_1+e_3} = x^2 z$$

The multinomial formula gives a convenient expansion for multinomial powers. Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then

$$(b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_n)^k = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} b^\alpha$$

where the multinomial coefficients are defined

$$\binom{k}{\alpha} = \frac{k!}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_n!}.$$

Note that the multinomial expansion sums over all multiindices  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$  of degree  $k$ .

We denote the standard euclidean inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$$

where  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and the Euclidean norm

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

We may slightly abuse notation by using the inner product and norm in different

dimensions, even in the same equation. This can be excused if one views each euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as embedded in the sequence space  $\ell^2(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}})$  in which the inner product and norm are equivalent.

When discussing hyperplanes in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  we index them by a unit normal vector,  $\omega \in S^{n-1}$ , and distance from origin  $-\infty < p < \infty$ , and we write for example the implicit hyperplane equation  $\langle x, \omega \rangle = p$ . Note that  $\langle x, -\omega \rangle = -p$  represents the same hyperplane. It is perhaps more correct, in later defining the Radon and Gaussian Radon transforms, to identify these indexes and define the transforms over a projective space. We omit this discussion as it is not relevant within the scope of this work.

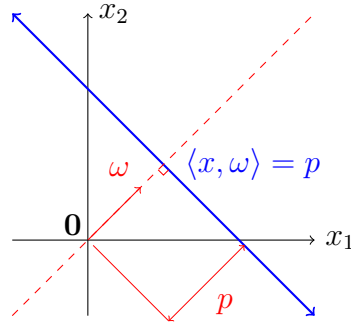


Figure 0.0.1: Hyperplane equation

Unless otherwise indicated all measures are Euclidean measures, that is the Borel measure associated with the standard Euclidean metric on a given space. In particular the Euclidean measure on a hyperplane of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is equivalent to the Euclidean measure on  $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ . We chose for convenience to denote measures by their associated variable such as  $dx$ ,  $dp$ ,  $dz$ , and others. It should be stated that this notation, while uniform, is context dependent. For example in the integrals

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{\langle x, \omega \rangle = p} dx,$$

the measure  $dx$  is to be understood as the  $n$ -dimensional and  $(n-1)$ -dimensional Euclidean measure respectively.



---

# Introduction

## TITLE? NEEDED

### 0.1 TO DO

- To write:
  - Document. Fix bibliography
  - Document. Fix section spacing and indentation. Ideally sections are left aligned with no indent, and the first paragraph of a section is not indented. Also should probably not indent after  $\text{displaymath}$  or similar mid-paragraph clauses (e.g. `enumerate`, `itemize`, etc)
  - Intro. More formulas in intro.
  - Moments. Prove: Determinacy result for gaussian weighted L2.
  - Moments. Find good reference for terminology and history.
  - Moments. Define problems for measures before functions.
  - GF/M. Define Hermite polynomials, uni- and multi-variate.
  - RT/GRT. Slice theorem: connect sufficient conditions to Fubini conditions.
  - RT/GRT. Work on notation for Gaussian measure. In particular  $w$  and  $\omega$  are too similar.
  - RT/GRT. Search for references on G slice theorem and G projection moments etc
  - RT/GRT. Expand background, historical context, etc...
  - Moments. Prove: Bounded regions are uniquely determined by moments? Maybe fits in RT/GRT since it can be formulated in terms of RT.
  - Implementation. Output some figures from Mathematica. For example sample points, moment tables, and reconstructions.
  - Example. Try to prove the conjecture (RT Hermite)

- Split Ch2 in half: Theory and application.
- To research:
  - Everywhere (ongoing). Provide examples for  $n = 2, 3$  of as many results as we can.
  - GRT. Domains of definition, i.e.  $GRT : L^2 \rightarrow L^2$  and such.
  - GRT. Integration by parts formula for  $GRT$  of  $\partial f / \partial x_i$  (found dR/dp and thus dGR/dp)
  - GRT. Verify the conjecture for  $n = 3$
  - GRT. Prove the conjecture on GRT of Hermite polynomials.
  - Try to derive GRT of monomials from Hermite polynomials.
  - Mathematica. Implement Gaussian shape reconstruction method, try some example shapes. Clearly lay out the choices made: Series of expanding images, or compactified  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ? How to complexify points?

## 0.2 Shape Reconstruction

The shape reconstruction method: In a 2005 paper, Annie Cuyt et. al. [?Cuyt05] proposed a method for shape reconstruction from moments, via Pade approximants to a multidimensional integral transform. Given a set of multivariate moments of some region  $A$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the method produces a pixel image approximating  $A$ .

Suppose  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , and let  $f(x)$  be its indicator function. We may assume  $f$  is measurable and has bounded support, and thus finite moments. The moment sequence gives Taylor coefficients in a neighborhood of zero for a certain holomorphic function with integral representation

$$g(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x)}{1 + \langle x, y \rangle} dx \approx \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n} \binom{|\alpha|}{\alpha} c_\alpha (-y)^\alpha.$$

Thus the function  $g(y)$  may be approximated to a certain degree of accuracy depending on the number of available moments.

At the same time  $g$  can be approximated by a multivariate quadrature formula

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x)}{1 + \langle x, y \rangle} dx = \sum_i \frac{1}{1 + \langle x_i, y \rangle} f(x_i) = \sum_i w(x_i, y) f(x_i)$$

Where the nodes  $x_i$  lie, for example, on a cubic lattice. We can then sample a Pade approximant to  $g$  at some sufficiently large group of points  $y = y_j$  forming a linear system of equations, from which we solve for  $f(x_i)$ . If all goes well we

have approximations of  $f(x_i)$  on a node lattice, which can be turned into a pixel image of  $A$ .

For now we will gloss over the numerical discussion of quadrature and linear systems, taking for granted that such methods are applicable in at least some simple cases. Computational tests (to be included in, say, section 10) further support the validity of the method. Our focus will be on demonstrating that one can approximate  $g$  by rational Padé approximants constructed from moments. To this end we show that, when restricted to one dimensional subspaces,  $g$  is equivalent to the Stieltjes transform of the Radon transform of  $f$  at a fixed projection angle.

$$g(z\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{R_f(\omega, p)}{1 + zp} dp$$

where  $\omega \in S^{n-1}$ ,  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus we are able to leverage the more well understood properties of these univariate transforms.

In particular, the “projection moments” of  $R_f(\omega, p)$  in any fixed direction  $\omega$ , may be computed from the multivariate moments of  $f$ . Further, it can be shown that Padé approximants to a moment sequence converge to the Stieltjes transform, and thus to  $g$ . Returning to shape reconstruction, it then follows that one can approximate  $g$  at various sample points  $y_j = z_j\omega_j$  via Padé approximants on linear subspaces at a selection of angles  $\omega$ , as is needed to form our linear system.

Now let us briefly discuss our proposed modification to the shape reconstruction method, the theoretical complications and computational considerations. Essentially what we propose is to recreate the method with a Gaussian measure applied, thus allowing for convergence on a larger class of regions  $A$ . In particular, the proposed method would apply to unbounded regions, for which we cannot guarantee finite moments, convergence of the function  $g(y)$  (let alone the explicit series expansion in terms of moments), or convergence of the Radon transform.

Here we will briefly discuss the potential challenges that this proposed method presents, which we address more carefully in sections 5 through 8. First and foremost instead of the standard moments (with respect to the Lebesgue measure), we are now given a Gaussian moment sequence — that is, moments with respect to the standard Gaussian measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . On the other end, the reconstructed region may be recovered as normal by simply inverting the Gaussian weight.

From a theoretical standpoint, proving the validity of the proposed method presents a few challenges. Firstly, even a quick glance at the classical literature tells us that moment problems on bounded domains are substantially better behaved than their unbounded counterparts. Whereas all moment problems on a bounded interval are determinate, we now have the potential to run in to indeterminate problems. We show that we can guarantee determinacy in a Gaussian-weighted  $L^2$  completion of the space of polynomials. This of course includes our

primary use case: indicator functions.

Secondly, we must address the effect of the proposed modifications on the Radon transform. We will define the Gaussian Radon transform, which unlike the Radon transform exists for unbounded regions  $A$ .

The Stieltjes transform on unbounded domains is significantly more complicated than the original case. From the integral representation

$$g(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x)}{1 + \langle x, y \rangle} dx,$$

one can start to see a problem: If  $f(x)$  has unbounded support  $g(y)$  has the potential to not converge for any  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . In particular  $g(y)$  may not exist in a neighborhood of 0, meaning our series expansion and thus the explicit connection to moments, may be broken. We need now to consider  $g$  as a function on some non-real domain. Here we show Pade approximants can be computed from moments which still approximate  $g$  on, for example, a half space. The convergence of these approximants is tied to the question of determinacy of the moment problem, which we resolve as described above. Thus we simply take sample points avoiding the problematic real space and the method is validated.

---

# Chapter 1

## Multivariate moment problems and the Radon transform

### 1.1 Classical and multivariate moment problems

Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}$ . For  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , define the  $k$ th moment of  $\mu$  as

$$c_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k d\mu(x)$$

provided the integral converges. The sequence  $(c_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0}$  is called a moment sequence or a moment problem, and the measure  $\mu$  is called a solution to the moment problem. Loosely speaking a moment problem poses the question: Under given constraints (e.g. measures supported within a fixed subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ), to what extent can one determine the solution  $\mu$  from its moments?

The classical study of moment problems is divided into three cases depending on the support of  $\mu$ . In each case there is a standard choice of support, from which general results are often derived by a change of variables.

Markov (or Hausdorff) moment problems within a bounded support.

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subseteq [0, 1]$$

Stieltjes moment problems within a one-sided infinite support.

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subseteq [0, \infty)$$

Hamburger moment problems within a two-sided infinite support.

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$$

In some special cases we will denote the moments  $c_k$  in a particular form:

- (i) When  $\mu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure  $dx$ ,

moments can be defined by

$$c_k = \int f(x)x^k dx$$

where  $f(x)$  is the density of  $\mu$  with respect to  $dx$

- (ii) When  $\mu$  is the Lebesgue measure on a set  $A$  of finite measure, moments can be defined by

$$c_k = \int_A x^k dx$$

There are two natural questions one can ask about a moment problem:

Solvability: Does a solution  $\mu$  exist possessing the given moments?

Determinacy: Is a solution unique? If not, what can be said about the set of solutions?

In the classical cases (Markov, Stieltjes, Hamburger) these questions have been more or less resolved. Precise conditions for solvable and determinate moment problems have been found, and the nature of solution sets to indeterminate moment problems are well understood. For instance, all solvable Markov moment problems are unique. This result follows from the Weierstrass approximation theorem:

**Proposition 1.1.1.** All Markov moment problems are determinate. If  $\mu, \nu$  are Borel measures on the unit interval  $[0, 1]$  with equal moments,

$$\int_0^1 x^k d\mu = \int_0^1 x^k d\nu, \quad k \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

then  $\mu = \nu$ .

However, many classes of generalized moment problems remain in active study.

In particular we will discuss multivariate moment problems. Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure now on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . For  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ . Define the  $\alpha$ th multivariate moment of  $f$  as

$$c_\alpha = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x^\alpha d\mu(x).$$

**Example 1.1.2.** Let  $A = [0, 1]^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be the unit cube and  $\mu$  the Lebesgue

measure on  $A$ . Then  $\mu$  has multivariable moments

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x^\alpha d\mu(x) &= \int_{[0,1]^n} x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 x_1^{\alpha_1} dx_1 \int_0^1 x_2^{\alpha_2} dx_2 \cdots \int_0^1 x_n^{\alpha_n} dx_n \\ &= \frac{1}{(\alpha_1 + 1)(\alpha_2 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_n + 1)} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for the Lebesgue measure  $\mu$  on any rectangular region  $A = \prod_{i=1}^n [a_i, b_i]$

$$\int_A x^\alpha d\mu(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{a_i}^{b_i} x_i^{\alpha_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{b_i^{\alpha_i+1} - a_i^{\alpha_i+1}}{\alpha_i + 1}$$

The moment sequence  $(c_\alpha)_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n}$  is now multiindexed, but the notions of solvability and determinacy are analogous: It is solvable provided there exists a Borel measure with these moments, and it is determinate provided such a measure is unique. Similarly, we divide multivariate moment problems into three cases:

Markov (or Hausdorff) multivariate moment problems within a bounded support.

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subseteq [0, 1]^n$$

Stieltjes multivariate moment problems within a half-plane.

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times [0, \infty)$$

Hamburger multivariate moment problems within a totally unbounded (?) support.

$$\text{supp}(\mu) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

While conditions for the solvability or determinacy of multivariate moment problems have been found in certain cases [CITATION NEEDED], they are nowhere near as comprehensive as those of classical moment problems. One straightforward, albeit limited, approach is to reduce an  $n$ -variate moment problem to a set of  $n$  univariate moment problems [1]. For example, we employ this strategy in our proofs of propositions [determinacy for bounded domain and gaussian measures].

We claim that multivariate moment problems on bounded domains are determinate, provided a solution exists. That is, without loss of generality,

**Claim 1.1.3.** If  $\mu$  is a Borel measure on the unit cube  $A = [0, 1]^n$ , with moments

$$c_\alpha = \int_A x^\alpha d\mu, \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$$

then the moment problem  $(c_\alpha)_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n}$  is determinate.

This claim is proved in proposition [\[1\]](#).

## 1.2 Gaussian functions and measures

**Definition 1.2.1.** Let  $w(p) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the standard Gaussian density on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$w(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}}$$

and  $w_n(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  the standard Gaussian density on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$w_n(x) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{n}{2}} e^{-\frac{\|x\|^2}{2}}.$$

Note that  $w = w_1$ .

A couple of formula: First the Gaussian integral,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(p) dp = 1.$$

This can be proven in a number of clever ways.

Second: The derivative

$$w'(p) = -pw(p).$$

Third: The Gaussian function dominates polynomials in the sense that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow -\infty} P(p)w(p) = 0 = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} P(p)w(p)$$

for any polynomial  $P$ .

**Definition 1.2.2.** The *Gaussian moments* of a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are

$$c_\alpha^G = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) x^\alpha w(x) dx$$

for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ .

**Example 1.2.3.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the constant function  $f(p) = 1$ . The Gaussian moments of  $f$ , i.e. the moments of  $w(p)$ , are

$$c_k^G = \begin{cases} (k-1)!!, & k \text{ even} \\ 0, & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

We have already seen  $c_0 = 1$ . Furthermore it is not hard to see that for odd  $k$ ,

$$c_k^G = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^k w(p) dp = 0$$



since  $p^k w(p)$  is an odd function.

Now for  $k \geq 2$  even, we derive a recurrence by integrating by parts

$$\begin{aligned}
c_k^G &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^k w(p) \, dp \\
&= - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^{k-1} (-pw(p)) \, dp \\
&= - [p^{k-1} w(p)]_{-\infty}^{\infty} + (k-1) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^{k-2} w(p) \, dp \\
&= (k-1) c_{k-2}^G.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus by induction,

$$c_k^G = (k-1)(k-3) \cdots c_0 = (k-1)!!.$$

A relationship between the univariate and multivariate Gaussian densities can be seen as follows: Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $n \geq 2$ . Suppose  $y = p\omega$  where  $\omega \in S^1$  and  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ , so that  $p\omega$  is the orthogonal projection of  $x$  onto the span of  $y$ . Then the Pythagorean relation,

$$\|x\|^2 = \|x - p\omega\|^2 + \|p\omega\|^2 = \|x - p\omega\|^2 + p^2$$

implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
w_n(x) &= (2\pi)^{-\frac{n}{2}} e^{-\frac{\|x\|^2}{2}} \\
&= (2\pi)^{-\frac{n-1}{2}} e^{-\frac{\|x-p\omega\|^2}{2}} (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}} \\
&= w_{n-1}(x - p\omega) w(p)
\end{aligned}$$

The equation

$$w_n(x) = w_{n-1}(x - p\omega) w(p) \tag{1.2.1}$$

is in some respect the defining property of the Gaussian measure described below. Indeed if  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , by repeated application of (1.2.1) one can write the decomposition

$$w_n(x) = \prod_{k=1}^n w(x_k).$$

Thus the  $w_n(x)$  is the product of  $n$  copies of  $w$ . The standard Gaussian measure  $\gamma^n$  is thus a measure whose cardinal projections are standard Gaussian measures.

**Definition 1.2.4.** Let  $\gamma^n$  be a the Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with density  $w_n$ ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) d\gamma^n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) w_n(x) \, dx.$$

We call  $\gamma^n$  the *standard Gaussian measure*. More generally, for mean  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and variance  $\sigma > 0$ , the following  $\gamma_{a,\sigma^2}^n$  are *Gaussian measures*,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) d\gamma_{a,\sigma^2}^n &= \frac{(2\pi)^{-\frac{n}{2}}}{\sigma} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) e^{-\frac{\|x-a\|^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(\sigma x + a) d\gamma^n \end{aligned}$$

**Example 1.2.5.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the constant function  $f(x) = 1$ . The Gaussian moments of  $f$  are the multivariate moments of  $w_n(x)$ , and can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} c_\alpha^G &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x^\alpha w_n(x) dx \\ &= \prod_{\ell=1}^n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_\ell^{\alpha_\ell} w(x_\ell) dx \\ &= \prod_{\ell=1}^n c_{\alpha_\ell}^G \end{aligned}$$

where  $\{c_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  are the univariate moments of  $w(p)$ . Thus  $c_\alpha^G = 0$  if any  $\alpha_i$  is odd. Otherwise, if every  $\alpha_i$  is even then

$$c_\alpha^G = \prod_{\ell=1}^n (\alpha_\ell - 1)!!$$

**Definition 1.2.6.** The *Hermite polynomials* can be defined by the Rodriguez formula

$$H_k(p) = (-1)^k \frac{w^{(k)}(p)}{w(p)}$$

note that  $H_k$  is a polynomial of degree  $k$ .

The Hermite polynomials have the following properties:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_k(p) H_\ell(p) w(p) dp = \begin{cases} \sqrt{2\pi} k!, & k = \ell \\ 0, & k \neq \ell \end{cases}$$

The Hermite polynomials form an orthonormal basis for  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, w)$ .

### 1.3 The Radon and Gaussian Radon transforms

Let  $f$  be a multivariable function on the  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We imagine taking “slices” of  $f$  by restricting it to a  $(n-1)$ -dimensional hyperplane

$\Lambda$ . These hyperplanes form the domain of the Radon Transform. More precisely, the Radon Transform associates each slice with a corresponding integral

$$R_f(\Lambda) = \int_{\Lambda} f(x) dx,$$

which can be thought of as a  $(n-1)$ -dimensional measurement of  $f$ . To be more precise we parametrize the collection of hyperplanes  $\Lambda$  by normal vector,  $\omega \in S^{n-1}$ , and (signed) distance from the origin  $-\infty < p < \infty$ . Indeed any hyperplane can be described in the form  $\Lambda = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle x, \omega \rangle = p\}$ . As mentioned, there is a slight inconsistency in these definitions where a hyperplane  $\Lambda$  can be indexed by both  $\langle \omega, x \rangle = p$  and  $\langle -\omega, x \rangle = -p$ . This difference is inconsequential for our purposes so we choose the latter definition for clarity.

The Radon transform [Helg65] (RT) is a thing that I will discuss the history of, with references, in this paragraph. The transform gets its name from Johann Radon, whose first defined the tranform in the form below in 1917, although a similar transform was introduced by Paul Funk in 1911 [????]. It is interesting to note that the primary application of the RT in medical imaging (CT scans) was not invented for another half century. I can only hope that in 2076 my dissertation will serve as an absorbant coffee coaster for a sleep deprived student.

**Definition 1.3.1.** Let  $f$  be a nonnegative measurable function on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The Radon transform  $R_f : S^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of  $f$  is a function which, given a unit vector  $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ , is defined as

$$R_f(\omega, p) = \int_{\langle x, \omega \rangle = p} f(x) dx,$$

provided the integral converges.

**Example 1.3.2.** For computation it is convenient to write the Radon Transform with an explicit isometric parameterization  $x(t)$  of the hyperplane  $\langle x, \omega \rangle = p$ . In particular we note that there exists a map  $x : \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $x(0) = p\omega$  and

$$R_f(\omega, p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} f(x(t)) dt.$$

For reference let's specify an hyperplane parameterization for the  $n = 2$  case. In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  often we identify  $\omega$  with the angle  $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$  such that  $\omega = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ . We define  $x(t)$  by

$$x(t) = (t \sin \theta + p \cos \theta, -t \cos \theta + p \sin \theta), \quad -\infty < t < \infty.$$

It is not difficult to show that  $x(0) = p\omega$ ,  $\langle x(t), \omega \rangle = p$ , and most importantly

$$R_f(\omega, p) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t \sin \theta + p \cos \theta, -t \cos \theta + p \sin \theta) dt$$

**Example 1.3.3.** Let  $B(r) = \{x : |x| \leq r\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be the ball of radius  $r$ .

$$R_{B(r)}(\omega, p) = \begin{cases} V_{n-1} \left( \sqrt{r^2 - p^2} \right), & |p| \leq r \\ 0 & |p| > r \end{cases}$$

where  $V_n(r)$  is the volume of a hypersphere of radius  $r$ ,

$$V_n(r) = \frac{\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2} + 1)} r^n.$$

Note that as a bounded domain, we can guarantee  $B(r)$  is integrable on all hyperplanes. In fact the RT of any subset of  $B(r)$  is sharply bounded by  $R_{B(r)} \leq V_{n-1}(r)$ . Also note that  $B(r)$  is rotation invariant, hence  $R_{B(r)}(\omega, p)$  is independent of  $\omega$ .

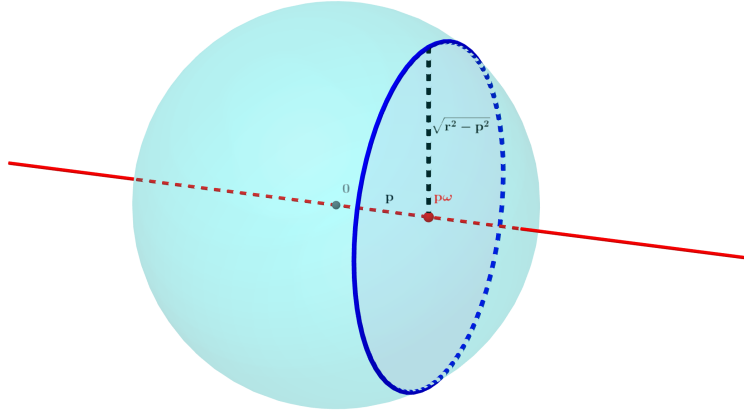


Figure 1.3.1: The RT of a ball

We can use this formula to determine the RT of an annulus. Let  $A(r_1, r_2) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : r_1 \leq \|x\| \leq r_2\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} R_{A(r_1, r_2)}(\omega, p) &= R_{B(r_2)}(\omega, p) - R_{B(r_1)}(\omega, p) \\ &= \begin{cases} V_{n-1}(\sqrt{r_2^2 - p^2}) - V_{n-1}(\sqrt{r_1^2 - p^2}), & |p| < r_1 \\ V_{n-1}(\sqrt{r_2^2 - p^2}), & r_1 \leq |p| \leq r_2 \\ 0, & |p| \geq r_2 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Now consider an example of an unbounded region.

**Example 1.3.4.** Let  $S = \{(x, y) : |y| \leq \frac{1}{2}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  be a strip centered on the

$x$ -axis with width 1. Clearly if  $\theta = \pi/2$  or  $3\pi/2$  then

$$R_S(\theta, p) = \begin{cases} \infty, & |p| \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & |p| > \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}.$$

Otherwise,

$$R_S(\theta, p) = \sec \theta$$

Note because  $S$  is unbounded, that  $R_S$  is not only unbounded, but even divergent in some cases.

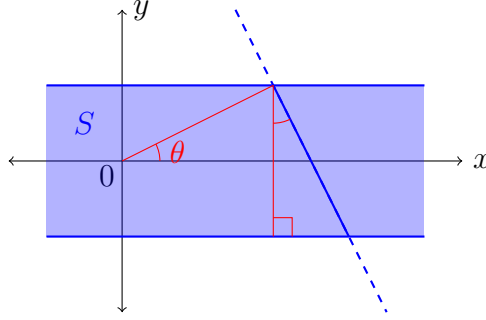


Figure 1.3.2: RT of a strip

Our main addition to previous work will be the use of a modified RT, the Gaussian Radon transform (GRT). This transform is very similar to the RT, but the inclusion of a Gaussian density  $w_{n-1}(x)$  in the integral allows for convergence on a larger class of functions  $f$ . This includes for example unbounded regions. In a broader context the Gaussian Radon transform also has the advantages of generalizing to infinite dimensional Hilbert spaces [Seng14] (on which the Lebesgue measure is not defined), as well as having a natural probabilistic interpretation.

**Definition 1.3.5.** The *Gaussian Radon transform*  $GR_f : S^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of  $f$  is defined similarly to the RT. Given  $\omega \in S^{n-1}$  and  $-\infty < p < \infty$ , the GRT is

$$GR_f(\omega, p) = \int_{\langle x, \omega \rangle = p} f(x) w_{n-1}(x - p\omega) dx.$$

provided the integral converges. Note the Gaussian density

$$w_{n-1}(x - p\omega) = (2\pi)^{-(n-1)/2} e^{-\|x - p\omega\|^2/2}$$

is centered on the point of the hyperplane closest to the origin.

**Remark 1.3.6.** It may be helpful to understand the GRT as a simple modifica-

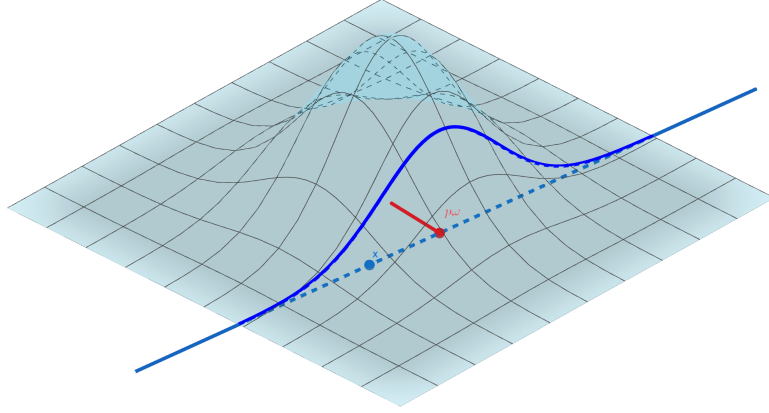


Figure 1.3.3: The GRT

tion of the RT with respect to a Gaussian measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . From the relation

$$\int_{\langle x, \omega \rangle = p} f(x) w_n(x) dx = \int_{\langle x, \omega \rangle = p} f(x) w_{n-1}(x) dx w(p),$$

we can express the GRT of  $f$  in terms of the RT of the function  $g(x) = f(x)w_n(x)$ :

$$R_g(\omega, p) = GR_f(\omega, p)w(p), \quad g(x) := f(x)w_n(x). \quad (1.3.1)$$

The relation above provides decent intuition for the GRT, and is also a useful tool proving some basic properties of the transform. Expand on intuition (maybe with example.)

**Example 1.3.7.** If  $x(t) : \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a parametrization of  $\langle x, \omega \rangle = p$  as described above, then

$$GR_f(\omega, p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} f(x(t))w_{n-1}(t)dt$$

In particular for  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$GR_f(\omega, p) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t \sin \theta + p \cos \theta, -t \cos \theta + p \sin \theta) w(t) dt$$

where  $\omega = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ .

**Example 1.3.8.** The Gaussian Radon transform is bounded for any measurable region  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Indeed

$$GR_A(\omega, p) \leq GR_1(\omega, p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-1}} w_{n-1}(t) dt w(p) = w(p)$$

**Example 1.3.9.** Consider the Strip  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  from [earlier example]. While the RT of  $S$  was divergent for  $\theta = \pi/2$  or  $3\pi/2$ , the GRT converges. In particular,

$$GR_S(\theta, p) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{p^2}{2}}, & |p| \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & |p| > \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

This is the density of a “truncated” normal distribution on  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ . For other angles  $GR_S(\theta, p)$  is likewise the density of a truncated normal distribution, this time with arbitrary endpoints  $[a, b]$ , given by

$$a = ?, \quad b = a + \sec \theta$$

Now imagine sweeping a hyperplanar “slice” across  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . As a function of  $p$ ,  $R(\omega, p)$  can be seen as a projection of  $f$  onto the linear subspace spanned by  $\omega$ . It is not surprising that integrating this projection over  $-\infty < p < \infty$  we get the same result as the  $n$ -fold integral of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(\omega, p) dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) dx$$

The so called “slice theorem” further generalizes this observation:

**Proposition 1.3.10** (Slice Theorem). If  $f \in C_c(\mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $F \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R})$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_f(\omega, p) F(p) dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) F(\langle x, \omega \rangle) dx, \quad (1.3.2)$$

*Proof.* This is a corollary of the Fubini-Tonelli theorem, which guarantees the slice formula as the integrals on either side converge absolutely. To see this note that there is a rigid transformation (Hilbert space isomorphism) taking this to an iterated integral over  $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ . Further,  $F(\langle x, \omega \rangle) \in L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , so the proposition follows by Hölder’s inequality

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x) F(\langle x, \omega \rangle)| dx \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x)| dx \|F(\langle x, \omega \rangle)\|_\infty < \infty$$

□

**Remark 1.3.11.** The sufficient conditions for the slice theorem above can loosened significantly. We can take for example the straightforward Fubini condition

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x) F(\langle x, \omega \rangle)| < \infty$$

which is necessary [CITATION NEEDED], but not convenient. We may also use the condition  $f$  has bounded support and  $F \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R})$ .

The conditions on  $f$  and  $F$  can be reduced somewhat. In general the convergence of either the left or right side above is sufficient. One

If  $F(p) = e^{-ip}$  and  $f(x)$  is such that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_f(\omega, p) dp < \infty$  then (1.3.2) becomes the well known Fourier slice theorem

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_f(\omega, p) e^{-ip} dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) e^{-i\langle x, \omega \rangle} dx,$$

which is often articulated as saying that the 1-dimensional Fourier transform of the Radon transform is the  $n$ -dimensional Fourier transform of  $f$ .

An early and natural question in the study of the RT is that of inversion. Radon himself derived the “Radon inversion formula” [Radon17] [Radon86], which is often proved via the above Fourier slice theorem. The groundbreaking inversion formula is the basis for what, in application, called “filtered backpropagation”.

If one is interested in inverting the RT then a prerequisite concern is of course: Is the transform injective? The answer clearly depends on what space we draw the function  $f$  from. Radon [Radon17] [Radon86] provides a set of sufficient regularity conditions such that the RT is invertible. Other similar results followed [?????]. On the other hand counterexamples have been constructed by, for example, Lawrence Zalcman [Zalc82], of continuous and nontrivial functions for which the RT is identically zero.

By way of the relation (1.3.1) we can prove an analogous slice theorem for the GRT. Mihai and Sengupta prove the general result if real, separable, infinite Hilbert spaces [CITATION NEEDED].

**Proposition 1.3.12** (Gaussian Slice Theorem). Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be measurable functions. If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, w_n)$  and  $F \in L^\infty(\mathbb{R})$  then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} GR_f(\omega, p) F(p) w(p) dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) F(\langle x, \omega \rangle) w_n(x) dx. \quad (1.3.3)$$

**Remark 1.3.13.** Again the more general Fubini condition

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |f(x) F(\langle x, \omega \rangle) w_n(x)| dx < \infty$$

may be used. Further, whatever conditions on  $f$  and  $F$  are sufficient for convergence in (1.3.2) are then sufficient conditions to be checked of  $f(x)w_n(x)$  and  $F(p)w(p)$ . I’ll need to check these conditions more carefully.

*Proof.* From (1.3.1)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} GR_f(\omega, p) F(p) w(p) dp = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_g(\omega, p) F(p) dp$$

where  $g(x) = f(x)e^{-\|x\|^2/2}$ . Note that  $\|g\|_1 = \|f\|_{1, w_n} < \infty$  and. Then applying the slice theorem:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_g(\omega, p) F(p) dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) F(\langle x, \omega \rangle) w_n(x) dx,$$



completing the proof. □

## 1.4 Projection moments

Taking from the context of classical moment problems we should define the notion of the Radon transform of a measure  $\mu$ . Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with finite moments  $c_\alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ . The projection  $\pi_\omega : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$\pi_\omega(x) = \langle x, \omega \rangle$$

is a Borel function, thus we may define the push-forward measure  $\mu_\omega = \mu \circ \pi_\omega^{-1}$  which for Borel sets  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is given by,

$$\mu_\omega(A) = \mu(\pi_\omega^{-1}(A)) = \mu(\{x : \langle x, \omega \rangle \in A\}).$$

We may call  $\mu_\omega$  the marginal projection measure of  $\mu$  with direction vector  $\omega$ .

Notice that if  $\mu$  is absolutely continuous with density representation  $\mu = f(x)dx$  then the slice theorem with  $F(p)$  the characteristic function of  $A$  gives,

$$\mu(\pi_\omega^{-1}(A)) = \int_{\langle x, \omega \rangle \in A} f(x)dx = \int_A R_f(\omega, p)dp$$

so that in fact  $\mu_\omega$  is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure  $dp$  and it's density is precisely the Radon transform  $R_f(\omega, p)$ . In this sense the marginal projection  $\mu_\omega$  is a natural generalization of the RT, so we define

**Definition 1.4.1.** The Radon transform of a Borel measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as the push-forward measure  $\mu_\omega = \mu \circ \pi_\omega^{-1}$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ , where  $\pi_\omega : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the projection

$$\pi_\omega(x) = \langle x, \omega \rangle.$$

We may denote this measure by  $R_\mu^\omega = \mu_\omega$ .

**Remark 1.4.2.** It seems that the slice theorem is analogous to — and perhaps generalized by — the change of variables formula for the pushforward measure  $R_\mu^\omega$ :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(p) dR_\mu^\omega(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} F(\pi_\omega(x)) d\mu$$

where  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable with respect to  $dR_\mu^\omega$  if and only if  $F \circ \pi_\omega : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable with respect to  $\mu$ .

Can we similarly define the GRT of a measure?

**Proposition 1.4.3.** Let  $c_\alpha(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_f(\omega, p) p^\alpha dp$  be the projection moments

of  $f$  at a fixed  $\omega$ , and  $c_\alpha$  the multivariate moments of  $f$ . Then

$$c_k(\omega) = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} \omega^\alpha c_\alpha$$

where  $\binom{k}{\alpha} = \frac{k!}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_n!}$  are multinomial coefficients.

*Proof.* By the slice theorem (1.3.2) with  $F(p) = p^k$ ,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_f(\omega, p) p^k dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \langle x, \omega \rangle^k dx.$$

Now  $\langle x, \omega \rangle^k = (x_1 \omega_1 + \dots + x_n \omega_n)^k$  has the multinomial expansion

$$\langle x, \omega \rangle^k = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} x^\alpha \omega^\alpha.$$

Thus after a bit of rearranging we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \langle x, \omega \rangle^k dx &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} x^\alpha \omega^\alpha dx \\ &= \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} \omega^\alpha \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) x^\alpha dx, \end{aligned}$$

where the integrands are precisely the  $k$ th degree multivariate moments of  $f$ .  $\square$

Similarly, moments of the GRT (Gaussian projection moments) can be expressed in terms of multivariate gaussian moments.

**Proposition 1.4.4.** Let  $c_k^G(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} GR_f(\omega, p) p^k w(p) dp$  be the Gaussian moments of the GRT of  $f$  at a fixed  $\omega$ . Let  $c_\alpha^G = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) w_n(x) x^\alpha dx$  be the Gaussian multivariate moments of  $f$ . Then

$$c_k^G(\omega) = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} \omega^\alpha c_\alpha^G.$$

*Proof.* The proof follows as it did for the RT. This time we apply the GRT slice theorem (1.3.3) with  $F(p) = p^k$ ,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} GR_f(\omega, p) p^k w(p) dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \langle x, \omega \rangle^k w_n(x) dx$$

Again we use the multinomial expansion of  $\langle x, \omega \rangle^k$  and rearrange:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \langle x, \omega \rangle^k w_n(x) dx = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} \omega^\alpha \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) w_n(x) x^\alpha dx.$$

Thus

$$c^G(\omega) = \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} \omega^\alpha c_\alpha^G.$$

□

**Example 1.4.5.** Let  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n \in S^{n-1}$  be the standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$(1, 0, \dots, 0), (0, 1, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, 0, \dots, 1)$$

Then  $\langle x, e_i \rangle = x_i$  is the natural projection of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  onto the  $e_i$  axis. The standard projection moments can be calculated as follows

$$\begin{aligned} c_k(e_i) &= \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \binom{k}{\alpha} e_i^\alpha c_\alpha \\ &= c_{ke_i} \end{aligned}$$

since  $e_i^\alpha = 0$  unless  $\alpha = ke_i$ . (This is based on the quirky assumption  $0^0 = 1$  in the definition of multiindex powers, but is fundamental to the multinomial theorem).

The following theorem, due to Petersen [CITATION NEEDED], gives a way us to reduce the question of determinacy for multivariate moment problems to the classical case.

**Proposition 1.4.6** (Petersen's theorem). Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure with finite moments on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  the standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If each  $R_\mu^{e_1}, \dots, R_\mu^{e_n}$  is determinate, then  $\mu$  is determinate.

*Proof.* An outline of the proof is as follows. Preliminarily, note that the solution set  $[\mu]$  of Borel measures with equivalent moments to  $\mu$  is convex [CITATION NEEDED], and a  $\mu$  is an extreme point in  $[\mu]$  if and only if polynomials are dense in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mu)$  [CITATION NEEDED]. Thus it suffices to show that polynomials are dense in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mu')$  for any  $\mu' \in [\mu]$ .

The family of products of continuous functions of compact support  $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i)$  where each  $f_i \in C_c(\mathbb{R})$ , is dense in  $L_1(\mu)$  [CITATION NEEDED]. Furthermore, since  $R_\mu^{e_i}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are determinate, polynomials are dense in each  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, R_\mu^{e_i})$  [CITATION NEEDED]. Petersen constructs a series of polynomials  $P_i : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that the polynomial product  $P(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n P_i(x_i)$  arbitrarily close to  $f$  in  $L^1(\mu)$ . Thus polynomials are dense in  $L^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mu)$  and the moment problem is determinate. [PROOF NEEDED]

Note Schmüdgen proves this via Borel characteristic functions. Not clear what the benefit is. □

**Remark 1.4.7.** Conjecture? We expect this result to hold true for any basis. Will have to check this. Arguable benefit for us is that we in theory can use any  $n$  linearly independent projections to reconstruct  $\mu$ .

**Corollary 1.4.8.** If  $\mu$  is compactly supported Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the multivariate moment problem is determinate.

*Proof.* It suffices to note that the projections  $R_\mu^{e_i}$  are compactly supported Borel measures on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and thus determinate by [CITATION NEEDED].  $\square$

We show in section (2.2) that any function  $f$  in the weighted space  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, \gamma)$  is determinate (maybe this should be moved to section 1.2). Petersen's theorem allows us to generalize this result to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Corollary 1.4.9.** If  $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^n, \gamma^n)$ , then  $f$  is determinate.

*Proof.* [PROOF NEEDED]  $\square$

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## Chapter 2

### Convergence of Padé approximants

Here we, hear ye, discuss the convergence of rational approximations to the Stieltjes transform. Namely, the Padé approximants to the moment series are defined and convergence to the Stieltjes transform is proved under certain restrictions.

#### 2.1 The Markov and Hamburger transforms

Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure with infinite support and finite moments  $c_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^k d\mu$ .

**Definition 2.1.1.** The function on  $\mathbb{C}$  defined by

$$g(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{1 + zp}$$

is called the Markov (Hamburger resp.) transform of  $\mu$  when  $\mu$  has bounded (unbounded resp.) support.

Let us consider the domain of definition for  $g(z)$ . Since  $p$  is a real number, the denominator  $1 + zp$  can only vanish if  $\text{Im } z = 0$ . In fact:

**Proposition 2.1.2.** The function  $g(z)$  is holomorphic on the upper half plane  $\text{Im } z > 0$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma$  be a closed piecewise  $C^1$  curve in the upper half plane.

$$\begin{aligned} |zg(z)| &\leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{|\frac{1}{z} + p|} \\ &\leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{|\text{Im } \frac{1}{z}|} \\ &= \frac{c_0}{|\text{Im } \frac{1}{z}|}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$|g(z)| \leq \frac{c_0}{|z \text{Im } \frac{1}{z}|} = c_0 \left| \frac{z}{\text{Im } z} \right|.$$

Note that as a compact subset of the upper half plane  $\gamma$  must have positive distance from the real line. As a consequence  $g(z)$  is bounded on  $\gamma$ , and by Fubini's theorem

$$\begin{aligned}\oint_{\gamma} g(z) dz &= \oint_{\gamma} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{1+zp} dz \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \oint_{\gamma} \frac{dz}{1+zp} d\mu \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0 d\mu = 0.\end{aligned}$$

By Morera's theorem  $g(z)$  is holomorphic on the upper half plane.  $\square$

**Remark 2.1.3.** Similarly one can show  $g(z)$  is holomorphic on the lower half plane  $\text{Im } z < 0$ . Moreover  $g(z)$  commutes with conjugation:

$$g(\bar{z}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{1+\bar{z}p} = \overline{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{1+zp}} = \overline{g(z)}$$

since  $\mu$  is a real measure.

When  $z$  is a real number  $g(z)$  may not converge. In particular  $g(z)$  does not converge when  $z = -1/p$  for some  $p$  in the support of  $\mu$ . Thus if  $\mu$  has bounded support  $g$  converges in a neighborhood of 0. On the other hand if  $\mu$  has unbounded support  $g(0)$  is not defined. However — as we will see — even in the Hamburger transform case, a formal series expansion at  $z = 0$  holds valuable information.

By a simple geometric series expansion,

$$\frac{1}{1+zp} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-z)^k p^k$$

when  $|zp| < 1$ . This suggests the connection between  $g(z)$  and the moment sequence  $(c_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}_0}$ . Indeed, at least formally,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\mu}{1+zp} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-z)^k p^k d\mu \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-z)^k \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^k d\mu \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (-z)^k.\end{aligned}$$

In the Markov case we have a positive radius of convergence. But even in the Hamburger case, there is a sense in which this asymptotic expansion holds “non-tangentially”.

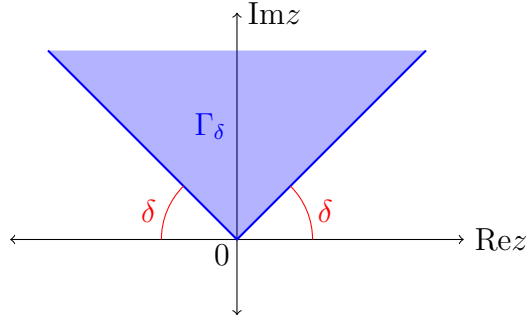


Figure 2.1.1: A wedge domain

Non-tangential convergence at  $z = 0$  is, as the name implies, convergence along curves not tangent to the real line at 0. More precisely, one defines a “wedge domain”

$$\Gamma_\delta = \{\delta \leq \arg z \leq \pi - \delta\}$$

in which curves approach 0 with an angle at least  $\delta$  from the real line.

**Definition 2.1.4.** (Non-Tangential Limit) We say  $g(z) \rightarrow z_0$  non-tangentially at  $z = 0$  if, for any  $\delta > 0$ , the limit

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} g(z) = z_0$$

holds for  $z$  in the  $\Gamma_\delta$ .

While  $g(z)$  does not generally converge at  $z = 0$ , in a non-tangential sense the aforementioned asymptotic expansion holds:

**Proposition 2.1.5.** (i) If  $\mu$  has bounded support

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (-z)^k$$

in a neighborhood of  $z = 0$ .

(ii) For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c_k (-z)^k + z^n h_n(z) \tag{2.1.1}$$

where  $h_n$  is such that  $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} h_n(z) = 0$  non-tangentially.

*Proof.* We first note that

$$\sum_{k=0}^n c_k (-z)^k = \sum_{k=0}^n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-zp)^k d\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1 - (-zp)^{n+1}}{1 + zp} d\mu$$

and so

$$h_n(z) = \frac{1}{z^n} \left\{ g(z) - \sum_{k=0}^n c_k (-z)^k \right\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{zp^{n+1}}{1+zp} d\mu.$$

It remains to determine if and in what sense this trailing term  $h_n(z)$  vanishes at the origin.

As expected in the case when  $\mu$  has bounded support,  $h_n(z)$  exists in a neighborhood of 0 and vanishes as  $z \rightarrow 0$  in this neighborhood. Thus the asymptotic expansion 2.1.1 is the Taylor expansion: The Markov transform is analytic at the origin.

When  $\mu$  has unbounded support and  $h_n(z)$  may not be well defined on the real line, so we must weaken our result to non-tangential convergence. If  $z \in \Gamma_\delta$  then we have the following inequalities for any  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$|p - z| \geq |p| \sin \delta \quad \text{and} \quad |p - z| \geq |p| \sin \delta.$$

We will show that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} h_{2n}(z) = 0, \quad z \in \Gamma_\delta$$

from which the corresponding limit for odd orders will immediately follow from the relation

$$h_{2n-1}(z) = zh_{2n}(z) + c_{2n}z^{2n}.$$

Here for the sake of convenience we define  $w = -\frac{1}{z}$ , following a more classical approach. Note that  $|w| = \frac{1}{|z|}$  and if  $z$  is in the wedge  $\Gamma_\delta$  then so is  $w$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} |h_{2n}(z)| &\leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{|p|^{2n+1}}{|p-w|} d\mu \\ &\leq \frac{|z|}{\sin \delta} \int_{|p| \leq A} |p|^{2n+1} d\mu + \frac{1}{\sin \delta} \int_{|p| \geq A} p^{2n} d\mu \\ &\leq \frac{2|z|A^{2n+2}}{\sin \delta} + \frac{1}{\sin \delta} \int_{|p| \geq A} p^{2n} d\mu \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} |h_{2n}(z)| \leq \frac{1}{\sin \delta} \int_{|p| \geq A} p^{2n} d\mu, \quad z \in \Gamma_\delta.$$

Since  $A$  is arbitrary and the integral  $\int p^{2n} d\mu = c_{2n}$  is convergent we are done.  $\square$

Evidently the asymptotic series expansion  $g(z) \simeq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (-z)^k$  is generally formal, having zero radius of convergence except in the Markov case. However as we will see in the next section, rational functions constructed from this formal



series exist which approximate  $g(z)$  on the upper half plane  $\{\text{Im} z > 0\}$ .

Finally we prove two formulas regarding the Hamburger transform of a RT projection. Let  $\omega \in S^{n-1}$  be fixed and consider.

$$g(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{R(\omega, p)}{1 + zp} dp$$

By applying the slice theorem, with  $F(p) = (1 + zp)^{-1}$  we see that the Hamburger transform of a projection can be represented by a similar multivariable integral of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{R_f(\omega, p)}{1 + zp} dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x)}{1 + z\langle x, \omega \rangle} dx$$

Similarly the GRT slice theorem with  $F(p) = (1 + zp)^{-1}$  is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{GR_f(\omega, p)w(p)}{1 + zp} dp = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x)w_n(x)}{1 + z\langle x, \omega \rangle} dx.$$

## 2.2 Padé approximants

In this section we recall the necessary definitions and results. Then we will prove some new results to be applied to the Gaussian Radon transform later.

**Definition 2.2.1** (Classical definition of Padé approximants). The Padé approximant to a (possibly formal) power series

$$R^{[L/M]}(z) \simeq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k z^k$$

is a rational function with numerator (denominator resp.) degree at most  $L$  ( $M$  resp.), with series equal to  $\sum_{k=0}^N c_k z^k + O(z^{N+1})$  up to as high an order  $N$  as possible.

Let

$$R^{[L/M]}(z) = \frac{P^{[L/M]}(z)}{Q^{[L/M]}(z)} = \frac{a_L z^L + \cdots + a_1 z + a_0}{b_M z^M + \cdots + b_1 z + b_0}.$$

Notice that in general there is a negligible constant common factor between the numerator and denominator, so that with the remaining  $L+M+1$  free parameters, we expect an order of accuracy of up to  $L+M+1$  constraints,  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{L+M}$ . Thus we define the  $[L/M]$  Padé approximant by the condition,

$$\frac{P^{[L/M]}(z)}{Q^{[L/M]}(z)} = \sum_{k=0}^{L+M} c_k z^k + O(z^{L+M+1}). \quad (2.2.1)$$

It is helpful to consider the related, and necessary condition

$$P^{[L/M]}(z) = Q^{[L/M]}(z) \left( \sum_{k=0}^{L+M} c_k z^k \right) + O(z^{L+M+1}). \quad (2.2.2)$$

In the classical theory of Padé approximants (2.2.2) was often taken as a definition. It is always possible to find polynomials of the required degree satisfying this second condition, however they do not necessarily attain the degree of accuracy required by the first. We follow Baker, defining  $R^{[L/M]}(z)$  by (2.2.1), provided such a rational function exists.

**Definition 2.2.2.** The Padé approximant  $R^{[L/M]}$  to a (possibly formal) power series is a the unique rational function with nummerator (denominator resp.) degree at most  $L$  ( $M$  resp.) satisfying the condition (2.2.1). If no such rational function exists we say the Padé approximant does not exist.

Here we note that a sufficient condition for the equivalence of the two definitions, and hence for the existence of the Padé approximant by Baker's definition is that  $b_0 = Q^{L/M}(0) \neq 0$ .

Equating coefficients of  $z^k$ ,  $k = 0, 1, \dots, L+M$  in (2.2.2) gives two linear systems

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= b_0 c_0 \\ a_1 &= b_1 c_0 + b_0 c_1 \\ &\vdots \\ a_L &= b_L c_0 + b_{L-1} c_1 + \dots + b_0 c_L \end{aligned}$$

and,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= b_M c_{L-M+1} + b_{M-1} c_{L-M+2} + \dots + b_0 c_{L+1} \\ 0 &= b_M c_{L-M+2} + b_{M-1} c_{L-M+3} + \dots + b_0 c_{L+2} \\ &\vdots \\ 0 &= b_M c_L + b_{M-1} c_{L+1} + \dots + b_0 c_{L+M} \end{aligned}$$

where for convenience we set  $c_k = 0$  for  $k < 0$ . The first systems shows the numerator  $P^{[L/M]}$  is determined by the denominator  $Q^{[L/M]}$ . From the second system we can derive a determinantal formula for  $Q^{[L/M]}$ . Augmented with the desired definition,

$$Q^{[L/M]}(z) = b_M z^M + b_{M-1} z^{M-1} + \dots + b_0$$

the system can be written in the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ Q^{[L/M]}(z) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{L-M+1} c_{L-M+2} \cdots c_{L+1} \\ c_{L-M+2} c_{L-M+3} \cdots c_{L+2} \\ \vdots \\ c_L \quad c_{L+1} \cdots c_{L+M} \\ z^M \quad z^{M-1} \cdots 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_M \\ b_{M-1} \\ \vdots \\ b_1 \\ b_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solving for  $b_0$  by Cramer's Rule we get,

$$b_0 \begin{vmatrix} c_{L-M+1} c_{L-M+2} \cdots c_{L+1} \\ c_{L-M+2} c_{L-M+3} \cdots c_{L+2} \\ \vdots \\ c_L \quad c_{L+1} \cdots c_{L+M} \\ z^M \quad z^{M-1} \cdots 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} c_{L-M+1} c_{L-M+2} \cdots c_L \\ c_{L-M+2} c_{L-M+3} \cdots c_{L+1} \\ \vdots \\ c_L \quad c_{L+1} \cdots c_{L+M-1} \end{vmatrix} Q^{[L/M]}(z)$$

The LHS is clearly a polynomial, and nonzero if the RHS minor is nonzero. Thus if the Hankel determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} c_{L-M+1} \cdots c_L \\ \vdots \quad \ddots \quad \vdots \\ c_L \quad \cdots c_{L+M-1} \end{vmatrix}$$

is nonzero, then up to the aforementioned constant factor,

$$Q^{[L/M]}(z) = \begin{vmatrix} c_{L-M+1} \cdots c_{L+1} \\ \vdots \quad \ddots \quad \vdots \\ c_L \quad \cdots c_{L+M} \\ z^M \quad \cdots 1 \end{vmatrix} \quad (2.2.3)$$

By convention we normalize  $R^{[L/M]}(z)$  so that  $b_0 = Q^{[L/M]}(0) = 1$ .

Since the Hankel determinants give a useful form for expressing some conditions of interest we will define  $H(n, m)$  to be the determinant of the  $(m+1) \times (m+1)$  Hankel matrix starting with  $c_n$ ,

$$H(n, m) := \begin{vmatrix} c_n & \cdots & c_{n+m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n+m} & \cdots & c_{n+2m} \end{vmatrix}$$

Note in particular that the sufficient condition  $Q^{[L/M]}(0) \neq 0$  for the existence of  $R^{[L/M]}(z)$  is equivalent to  $H(L-M+1, M-1) \neq 0$

We now narrow our focus to Padé approximants to a Humburger series. Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}$  with infinite support and finite moments  $c_k = \int p^k d\mu$ .

Recall that the Hamburger transform of  $\mu$ ,

$$g(z) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{d\mu}{1 + pz}$$

has the asymptotic expansion, in the sense of non-tangential limits,

$$g(z) \simeq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (-z^k).$$

We call this formal power series a Hamburger series.

**Remark 2.2.3.** To simplify the rest of this maybe we redefine?

$$c_k = (-1)^k \int p^k d\mu$$

**Lemma 2.2.4.** The hamburger moments  $c_k$  satisfy the determinantal condition  $H(2n, m) \neq 0$  for  $n, m = 0, 1, \dots$

*Proof.* Consider the quadratic form given by

$$G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) := \mathbf{x}^\top \begin{pmatrix} c_{2n} & \cdots & c_{2n+m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{2n+m} & \cdots & c_{2n+2m} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}$$

If  $\mathbf{x} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m)^\top$  then

$$\begin{aligned} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{i,j=0}^m x_i x_j c_{2n+i+j} \\ &= \sum_{i,j=0}^m x_i x_j \int p^{2n+i+j} d\mu \\ &= \int \sum_{i,j=0}^m x_i x_j p^{2n+i+j} d\mu \\ &= \int p^{2n} \left( \sum_{k=0}^m x_k p^k \right)^2 d\mu \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  is positive semi-definite. Furthermore, equality holds

$$\int p^{2n} \left( \sum_{k=0}^m x_k p^k \right)^2 d\mu = 0$$

if and only if  $\mu$  is supported entirely on the zeros of the polynomial  $p^n \sum_{k=0}^m x_k p^k$ . However by assumption  $\mu$  has infinite support. So in fact  $G$  is strictly positive definite. We conclude, by Sylvester's criterion for example, that associated hankel matrix has positive determinant. That is,  $D(2n, m) > 0$ .  $\square$

The previous lemma guarantees the existence of certain Padé approximants, specifically those with  $L - M + 1$  even.

**Theorem 2.2.5.** If  $J$  is odd then the Padé approximant  $R^{[L/L+J]}(z)$  to the Hamburger series exists in Baker's sense.

With our particular application in mind, we will assume the measure  $\mu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure and denote it  $f(x)dx$  where  $f(x)$  is some non-negative Lebesgue measurable function of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $R_M(z)$  be the "offdiagonal" approximant  $R^{[M/M+1]}(z)$  to the Hamburger series of  $\mu$ ,

$$R_M(z) = \frac{P_M(z)}{Q_M(z)} \approx \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (-z)^k \simeq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(p)}{1+zp} dp$$

where  $c_k = \int p^k f(p) dp$ . In this section we will prove

**Theorem 2.2.6.** The off-diagonal Padé approximants  $R_M(z)$  to the a determinate Hamburger series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k (-z)^k$  exist and converge to  $g(z)$  uniformly on compact subsets of the upper half plane  $\{\text{Im } z > 0\}$ .

An outline of the proof is as follows: We first justify that the approximants exist in Baker's sense. Then it can be shown that limit of any convergent subsequence of  $R_M$  must have a representation as the Hamburger transform of some Borel measure  $\mu$  which is a solution to our moment problem, and that furthermore such convergent subsequences exist. Thus in order for the sequence  $R_M$  to converge to  $g(z)$  it will be necessary and sufficient that the moment problem be determinate.

**Proposition 2.2.7.** If the sequence  $c_k$  gives a determinate moment problem then the off-diagonal Padé approximants  $R_M(z)$  converge to  $g(z)$  locally uniformly.

*Proof.* The Padé approximant  $R_M(z)$  has a convenient representation as an inner product in terms of a finite Jacobi matrix,

$$R_M(z) = \langle \delta_0, (1 + zA_M)^{-1} \delta_0 \rangle.$$

Now since  $A_M$  is a real matrix and  $\frac{1}{|w|} \geq \frac{1}{|\text{Im}(w)|}$  for any  $w \in \mathbb{C}$ , we see that

$$|zR_M(z)| = |\langle \delta_0, (z^{-1} + A_M)^{-1} \delta_0 \rangle| \leq \frac{1}{|\text{Im}(1/z)|}$$

and thus

$$|R_M(z)| \leq \frac{1}{|z||\text{Im}(1/z)|} = \frac{|z|}{|\text{Im}(z)|}.$$

Since this bound is independent of  $R_M$ , Montel's theorem implies that the off-diagonal Pade approximants form a normal family. It can be shown that the

limit of any convergent subsequence has a representation  $\int (1+xz)d\sigma(x)$  where  $\sigma$  is a solution to the Hamburger moment problem. Since the moment problem is determinate, the sequence  $R_M$  must converge to  $g(z)$  uniformly on compact sets.  $\square$

It remains to discuss the determinacy of the Hamburger moment problem. Here we need to add an additional constraint on the measure  $d\mu = f(p)dp$ , which is that  $f(p)$  is  $L^2$  integrable with respect to the Gaussian weight.

**Proposition 2.2.8.** A function  $f(p) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}, e^{-p^2} dp)$  such that the moments

$$c_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p^k f(p) e^{-p^2} dp, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots \quad (2.2.4)$$

are finite, is uniquely determined by those moments.

*Proof.* It is sufficient to show that if  $c_k = 0$  for all  $k \geq 0$ , then  $f \equiv 0$  a.e. The Hermite moments are just linear combinations of 0,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_k(p) f(p) e^{-p^2} dp = 0, \quad k \geq 0$$

where  $H_k(p)$  is the Hermite polynomial of order  $k$ . Since the Hermite polynomials are complete in the space  $L^2(\mathbb{R}, e^{-p^2} dp)$  then  $f \equiv 0$ .  $\square$

## 2.3 Convergence results for the Gaussian Radon transform

Now we are in the position to assemble all the previous results into an approximation scheme to be used for reconstruction shapes of unbounded domains.

Take a non-negative Lebesgue measurable function  $f(x)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with finite multivariate Gaussian moments

$$c_\alpha^G = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) e^{-\|x\|^2/2} x^\alpha dx$$

We have seen that the multivariate Stieltjes transform of  $f$ ,

$$g(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x) e^{-\|x\|^2/2}}{1 + \langle x, \omega \rangle z} dx,$$

is equal to the Hamburger transform of  $GR_f(\omega, p)$ , whose moments in turn are easily computed from the moments of  $f$ , for fixed  $\omega$ . Thus for  $z$  in the one dimensional subspace spanned by  $\omega$ ,  $g(z)$  can be approximated well by Padé approximants, under the integrability condition  $GR_f(\omega, p) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}, e^{-p^2} dp)$ . On

the other hand as an integral on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we can also approximate  $g(z)$  by cubature formula,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{f(x)e^{-\|x\|^2/2}}{1 + \langle x, \omega \rangle z} dx \approx \sum_{\ell=L} \frac{e^{-\|x_\ell\|^2/2}}{1 + \langle x_\ell, \omega \rangle z} w_\ell f(x_\ell) =: \sum_{\ell=L} C_\ell(z) f(x_\ell).$$

By equating these parallel approximations,

$$\sum_{\ell=L} C_\ell(z) f(x_\ell) \approx R_M(z),$$

with a sufficient quantity of sample points  $z_j$  we have arrived at a linear system

$$\sum_{\ell=L} C_\ell(z_j) f(x_\ell) = R_M(z_j), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, J$$

from which we should be able to recover the value of  $f$  on our cubature nodes  $x_\ell$ .

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## Chapter 3

### Shape reconstruction

#### 3.1 Implementation

While the authors describe forming multivariate “homogeneous” Pade approximants — perhaps first proposed by Cuyt herself in [?Cuyt84] — we opt to bypass this step using univariate approximants instead. Indeed, the only benefit to Cuyt’s approximants explicitly cited by the authors, as compared to other multivariate generalizations of the Pade approximants, is that they are “the only satisfying the following powerful slice theorem” [?Cuyt05]. This slice theorem simply states that the homogeneous approximants when restricted to one dimensional subspaces, are equivalent to univariate Pade approximants. Since we only need a finite number of sample points it seems reasonable to compute a series of univariate approximants at various projection angles.

The decision to drop the homogenous approximants has the following potential consequences: On the one hand, the univariate approximants are simpler to compute, with methods built in to many CASs. On the other, while the authors select sample points from a cubic lattice, it would be inefficient (though potentially less so with careful selection of projection angles via, say, Farey sequences) to do so with one dimensional subspaces. Instead we take a collection of equidistant projection angles forming a radial grid of sample points. This seems acceptable, as it is unclear if there is any benefit to the sample points having a particular geometric structure. We should also acknowledge the potential that forming a single homogeneous approximant is more computationally efficient than many univariate approximants. This requires further investigation, but we note that (anecdotally) in computational tests the formation of approximants is not very intensive compared to the subsequent solving of the high dimensional linear system. Some thought was given to the possibility that sampling from a cubic lattice provides some structure which makes the system easier to solve, but so far we have no hard evidence of this.

A couple of notes on computational details: First we should be explicit about the line of computation. At the outset, the given information is a certain multivariate



moment sequence (up to a finite order with some accuracy assumption) which we assume belongs to a region within some fixed bounding box. In evaluating the computational viability of the method we take note of which steps depend on the moments, and which can be precomputed. In order to form univariate approximants we first compute projection moments. While these of course depend on the moment sequence, the multinomial formula used for this computation only depends on the projection angle. Thus with a predetermined set of projection angles this is partially precomputed. Since the cubature formula itself only depends on the choice of quadrature nodes and sample points, it can be precomputed and applied to any moment sequence. The choice of quadrature formula is somewhat arbitrary. Lacking expertise in the area of numerical integration, we follow the authors, opting for the four-point Gauss-Legendre product formula. This formula takes nodes from a nearly cubic lattice, which is implicitly quantized when forming the pixel image. We have not evaluated the error introduced by this quantization but expect it to be minimal and to approach zero with higher pixel resolution.

We don't expect the linear system to have an exact solution, let alone one that whose computation is tractable for high resolutions. We may try Mathematica's LeastSquares method, but Cuyt et al. specifically mention using a truncated singular value decomposition.

For my own benefit, let's review singular value decompositions. An  $i \times j$  matrix  $A$  of rank  $r$  can be written as

$$A = U\Sigma V^\top,$$

where  $\Sigma$  is the diagonal matrix of singular values  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$ , and  $U$  and  $V$  are unitary matrices. The truncated singular value decomposition gives us a reduced rank approximation to  $A$  by replacing all but the largest (first)  $k$  singular values in  $\Sigma$  with zeros,

$$\tilde{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_k, 0, \dots, 0)$$

The truncated SVD matrix  $\tilde{A} = U\tilde{\Sigma}V^\top$  is optimal in the sense that it is the closest rank- $k$  matrix to  $A$  in the Frobenius norm.

The SVD and truncated SVD are used to solve the linear least squares problem as follows: From  $U\Sigma V^\top f = p$  we get  $f = V\Sigma^{-1}U^\top p$ , and similarly  $f = \tilde{V}\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}U^\top p$ . Note that the psuedoinverse  $\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}$  is a diagonal matrix made up of the reciprocal singular values.

Mathematica offers a few built in functions for this. LeastSquares packages a number of methods to solve a linear least squares based on the sparsity of the System (our system is dense). SingularValueDecomposition can be restricted to a certain number of singular values. PsuedoInverse can specify a "tolerance"

zeroing out singular values less than some proportion of the maximum singular value. While LeastSquares is the simplest option, it does not seem to support truncated solutions. Between SingularValueDecomposition and PsuedoInverse, both can handle truncated problems, but the latter seems — at least superficially — better suited for our application.

On Gaussian shape reconstruction. There remain some minor practical concerns about, for example, the choice of quadrature formula and sample points. An obvious choice would be to continue with the Gauss-Legendre product formula, now applied on a Gaussian-weighted  $f$ . Some consideration should be taken as to the viability of other Gaussian quadrature formulas defined particularly for the Gaussian measure.

Now, a fundamental limitation with the proposed method which we have neglected to mention is the practical one: As a computational method we are necessarily restricted to the finite — finite moments, finite order approximations, and most problematic, bounded domains. In what application would one even be interested in unbounded shape reconstruction, while also having access of Gaussian moments? It would be reasonable to question the use of a computational method in an unbounded context. As with any finite approximation, the unboundedness should be thought of as an idealized limit; perhaps an unbounded approximation is a limit of bounded approximations. But then, the original method applies just as well if all we wanted was a sequence of reconstructions expanding in range. We can only speculate at this point that perhaps this method, being tailored specifically for unbounded reconstruction, could hold some practical advantages over its predecessor; or be satisfied with impracticality.

### 3.2 An example

$$f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned} GR_f(\theta, p) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x(t), y(t)) w(t) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t \sin \theta + p \cos \theta, -t \cos \theta + p \sin \theta) w(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

Let  $H_\alpha(x) = H_{\alpha_1}(x_1)H_{\alpha_2}(x_2) \cdots H_{\alpha_n}(x_n)$  for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$  and when  $n = 2$ ,

$$H_{i,j}(x, y) = H_i(x)H_j(y)$$

Mathematica table:  $\frac{GR_{H_{i,j}}(\theta, p)}{\cos^i \theta \sin^j \theta}$  for  $i, j \leq 4$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & p & p^2 - 1 & p^3 - 3p & p^4 - 6p^2 + 3 \\ p & p^2 - 1 & p^3 - 3p & p^4 - 6p^2 + 3 & p^5 - 10p^3 + 15p \\ p^2 - 1 & p^3 - 3p & p^4 - 6p^2 + 3 & p^5 - 10p^3 + 15p & p^6 - 15p^4 + 45p^2 - 15 \\ p^3 - 3p & p^4 - 6p^2 + 3 & p^5 - 10p^3 + 15p & p^6 - 15p^4 + 45p^2 - 15 & p^7 - 21p^5 + 105p^3 - 105pp^8 - 28p^6 + 210p^4 - 42 \\ p^4 - 6p^2 + 3p^5 - 10p^3 + 15pp^6 - 15p^4 + 45p^2 - 15p^7 - 21p^5 + 105p^3 - 105pp^8 - 28p^6 + 210p^4 - 42 \end{array}$$

**Conjecture:** Based on a Mathematica table (at least up to  $i, j \leq 4$ ) it seems that the following formula holds:

$$GR_{H_{i,j}}(\theta, p) = H_{i+j}(p) \cos^i \theta \sin^j \theta$$

We further expect

$$GR_{H_\alpha}(\omega, p) = H_{|\alpha|}(p) \omega^\alpha$$

for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ .

Bogachev (for example):  $(H_\alpha)_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n}$  is an orthogonal basis in  $L^2(\gamma_n)$

Mathematica table:  $GR_f(a, p)$  for  $f(x, y) = x^i y^i$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & p \sin(a) & \\ p \cos(a) & (p^2 - 1) \sin(a) \cos(a) & p \cos(a) \\ p^2 \cos^2(a) + \sin^2(a) & p \sin(a) ((p^2 - 2) \cos^2(a) + \sin^2(a)) & \frac{1}{8} (- (p^4 - \\ p \cos(a) (p^2 \cos^2(a) + 3 \sin^2(a)) \frac{1}{4} \sin(2a) ((p^4 - 6p^2 + 3) \cos(2a) + p^4 - 3) \frac{1}{8} p \cos(a) (-8 (p^2 - 3) \cos \end{array}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \langle x, \varphi \rangle \leq 1/2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Unit ball in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ? Annulus in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Some assymmetric or off-center examples?

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## Chapter 3

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