### Proof.

Since  $L(h^2) \geq 0$  for all  $h \in \mathbb{R}[X_1, \ldots, X_n] =: \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}]$  and L fulfills the Carleman condition (3.7), Theorem 3.3.2 guarantees that there exists a unique  $\mathbb{R}^n$ -representing measure  $\mu$  for L. We want to show that  $\mu$  is actually supported on  $K_S$ .

### Case s = 1

For notational convenience, let us first consider the case s = 1 and so  $S := \{g\}$ . Define  $\tilde{L}_g : \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}] \to \mathbb{R}$  as  $\tilde{L}_g(p) := L(pg)$  for all  $p \in \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}]$ . Since  $\tilde{L}_g(h^2) = L(gh^2) \ge 0$  for all  $h \in \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}]$  and L satisfies the Carleman condition (3.7), Lemma 3.3.6 (applied for  $q = X_j$  with  $j = 1, \ldots, n$  and f = g) ensures that  $\tilde{L}_g$  also fulfils Carleman's condition. Hence, by applying again Theorem 3.3.2 we get that there exists a unique  $\mathbb{R}^n$ -representing measure  $\eta$  for  $\tilde{L}_g$ . Thus, we obtained that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \underline{X}^{\alpha} d\eta(\underline{X}) = \tilde{L}_g(\underline{X}^{\alpha}) = L(\underline{g}\underline{X}^{\alpha}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \underline{X}^{\alpha} \underbrace{\underline{g}(\underline{X})d\mu(\underline{X})}_{=:d\nu(\underline{X})}, \ \forall \ \alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n. \ (3.17)$$

The measure  $\nu$  is a signed Radon measure on the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and can be written as  $\nu = \nu_+ - \nu_-$ , where

$$d\nu_{+} := \mathbb{1}_{\Gamma^{+}} d\nu \quad \text{with} \quad \Gamma^{+} := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} : g(x) \ge 0 \}$$
  
$$d\nu_{-} := -\mathbb{1}_{\Gamma^{-}} d\nu \quad \text{with} \quad \Gamma^{-} := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} : g(x) < 0 \}$$

and so  $\nu_+$  and  $\nu_-$  are both non-negative Radon measures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

<u>Claim</u>:  $\nu_{-} \equiv 0$ .

### Proof.

Define the following two non-negative Radon measures on  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ 

$$d\mu_+ := 1\!\!1_{\Gamma^+} d\mu \text{ and } d\mu_- := 1\!\!1_{\Gamma^-} d\mu.$$

Then  $\mu = \mu_+ + \mu_-$  and so we have

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} X_j^{2k} d\mu_+(\underline{X}) \le \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} X_j^{2k} d\mu(\underline{X}), \ \forall \ k \in \mathbb{N}_0, \forall j = 1, \dots, n.$$
(3.18)

Consider  $\ell_{\mu_+} : \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}] \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $\ell_{\mu_+}(p) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p d\mu_+$ . Then (3.18) can be rewritten as

$$\ell_{\mu_+}(X_i^{2k}) \le L(X_j^{2k}), \quad \forall \ k \in \mathbb{N}_0, \forall j = 1, \dots, n,$$

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which implies that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[2k]{\ell_{\mu_+}(X_i^{2k})}} \ge \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[2k]{L(X_j^{2k})}} \stackrel{\text{hp}}{=} \infty, \ \forall \ k \in \mathbb{N}_0, \forall j = 1, \dots, n,$$

i.e.  $\ell_{\mu_+}$  fulfills the Carleman condition.

Consider  $\ell_{\nu_+} : \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}] \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $\ell_{\nu_+}(p) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p d\nu_+$ . Then

$$\ell_{\nu_+}(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p \mathbb{1}_{\Gamma^+} g d\mu = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p g d\mu_+ = \ell_{\mu_+}(pg), \ \forall p \in \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}]$$

and

$$\ell_{\nu_+}(h^2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} h^2 d\nu_+ \ge 0 \ \forall h \in \mathbb{R}[\underline{X}]$$

Hence, by Lemma 3.3.6 (applied for  $L = \ell_{\mu_+}$ ,  $q = X_j, f = g$ ), we get that also  $\ell_{\nu_+}$  fulfills the Carleman condition and so that  $\nu_+$  is determinate by Theorem 3.3.9.

Putting all together, we obtain that for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ 

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} d\nu_{+}(\underline{X}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} g(\underline{X}) d\mu_{+}(\underline{X}) \\
\stackrel{\mu=\mu_{+}\mu_{-}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} g(\underline{X}) d\mu(\underline{X}) - \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} g(\underline{X}) d\mu_{-}(\underline{X}) \\
\stackrel{(3.17)}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} d\eta(\underline{X}) - \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} g(\underline{X}) d\mu_{-}(\underline{X}) \\
\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} d\eta(\underline{X}) + \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} d\nu_{-}(\underline{X}) \\
= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n}} \underline{X}^{\alpha} d(\eta + \nu_{-})(\underline{X}),$$

i.e. the non-negative Radon measures  $\nu_+$  and  $\eta + \nu_-$  have the same moments. Since  $\nu_+$  is determinate, they need to coincide, i.e.  $\nu_+ \equiv \eta + \nu_-$ . Hence, for any  $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  we have  $0 = \nu_+(\Gamma^-) \ge \nu_-(\Gamma^-) \ge 0$ , that is,  $\nu_-(\Gamma^-) = 0$ . Since by definition  $\nu_-(\Gamma^+) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n = \Gamma^+ \cup \Gamma^-$ , we get that  $\nu_- \equiv 0$ .  $\Box$ (Claim)

The Claim implies that  $\mu$  is supported on  $\Gamma^+$ , i.e. for any  $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  such that  $B \cap \Gamma^+ = \emptyset$  we have  $\mu(B) = 0$ . In fact, suppose that this is not the case. Then there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\overline{B}_{\varepsilon} \cap \Gamma^+ = \emptyset$  but  $\mu(\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}) > 0$ , where  $\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}$  is some closed ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of radius  $\varepsilon$ . Then for any  $x \in \overline{B}_{\varepsilon}$  we have that  $x \in \Gamma^-$  and so g(x) < 0, i.e. -g(x) > 0. Hence, we get

$$0 \stackrel{\text{Claim}}{=} \nu_{-}(\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}) = \int_{\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}} -\mathbbm{1}_{\Gamma^{-}} d\nu = \int_{\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}} -g(\underline{X}) d\mu(\underline{X}) \ge \left(\min_{x\in\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}} -g(x)\right) \mu(\overline{B}_{\varepsilon}) > 0.$$

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which yields a contradiction.

Thus, we proved that  $\mu$  is supported on  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(x) \ge 0\}$ , which in this case coincides with  $K_S$ .

Case  $s \ge 2$ 

Suppose now that s > 1 and  $S := \{g_1, \ldots, g_s\}$ . By repeating for each  $g_i$  the same proof as above, we get that  $\mu$  is supported on each  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g_i(x) \ge 0\}$  with  $i \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$ . Hence, we get that

$$0 \le \mu \left(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus K_S\right) = \mu \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^s \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g_i(x) \ge 0\}\right)$$
$$\le \sum_{i=1}^s \mu \left(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g_i(x) \ge 0\}\right) = 0,$$

i.e.  $\mu$  is supported on  $K_S$ .

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## Chapter 4

# **Determinacy of the** *K***-Moment Problem**

In this chapter we are going to investigate the so-called *determinacy question*, which is certainly one of the most investigated aspects of the K-moment problem. The determinacy question consists in finding under which conditions a non-negative measure with given support K is completely determined by its moments. In particular, we will see how the concept of quasi-analyticity enters in the study of the determinacy question and give a proof of Theorem 3.3.9 first for n = 1 and then for higher dimensions.

From now on, for  $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  closed, we denote by  $\mathcal{M}^*(K)$  the collection of all the non-negative Radon measures on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  having finite moments of all orders and which are supported in K.

**Definition 4.0.1.** A measure  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^*(K)$  is said to be K-determinate if for any  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}^*(K)$  such that  $\int x^{\alpha} d\mu(x) = \int x^{\alpha} d\nu(x), \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$  we have that  $\mu \equiv \nu$ . Equivalently a sequence of real numbers m (resp. a linear functional L on  $\mathbb{R}[\underline{X}]$ ) is called K-determinate if there exists at most one K-representing measure for m (resp. for L).

Note that if  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are closed subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $K_1 \subset K_2$ , then the  $K_2$ -determinacy always implies the  $K_1$ -determinacy but the converse does not hold in general.

## 4.1 Quasi-analytic classes

Let us recall the basic definitions and state some preliminary results concerning the theory of quasi-analytic functions. In the following, we denote by  $\mathcal{C}^{\infty}(X)$  the space of all infinitely differentiable real valued functions defined on a topological space X.

### Definition 4.1.1.

Given a sequence of positive real numbers  $(s_j)_{j\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  and an open  $I\subseteq\mathbb{R}$ , we define the class  $C\{s_j\}$  as the set of all functions  $f\in\mathcal{C}^{\infty}(I)$  for which there exists  $\gamma_f>0$  (only depending on f) such that  $\|D^k f\|_{\infty} \leq (\gamma_f)^k s_k, \quad \forall k\in\mathbb{N}_0,$  where  $D^k f$  is the k-th derivative of f and  $\|D^k f\|_{\infty} := \sup_{x\in I} |D^k f(x)|.$ 

The class  $C\{s_j\}$  of functions on I is said to be quasi-analytic if the conditions

$$f \in C\{s_j\}, \exists t_0 \in Is.t. \ (D^k f)(t_0) = 0, \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

imply that f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in I$ .

The problem to give necessary and sufficient conditions bearing on the sequence  $(s_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}_0}$  such that the class  $C\{s_j\}$  is quasi-analytic was proposed by Hadamard in [17]. Denjoy was the first to provide sufficient conditions for the quasi-analyticity of a class [10], but the problem was completely solved by Carleman, who generalized Denjoy's theorem and methods giving the first characterization of quasi-analytic classes in [6].

#### **Theorem 4.1.2** (The Denjoy-Carleman Theorem).

Let  $(s_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}_0}$  be a sequence of positive real numbers. The class  $C\{s_k\}$  is quasianalytic if and only if

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\inf_{j \ge k} \sqrt[j]{s_j}} = \infty.$$

*Proof.* see e.g. [8] for a simple but detailed proof.

**Corollary 4.1.3.** If  $(s_j)_{j \in \mathbb{N}_0}$  is a sequence of positive real numbers such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[k]{s_k}} = \infty,$$

then the class  $C\{s_j\}$  is quasi-analytic.

*Proof.* For any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $\inf_{j \ge k} \sqrt[j]{s_j} \le \sqrt[k]{s_k}$  and so

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\inf_{j \ge k} \sqrt[j]{s_j}} \ge \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[k]{s_k}}.$$

Since by assumption the series on right-hand side diverges, so does the series on the left-hand side. Hence, by Theorem 4.1.2, the class  $C\{s_j\}$  is quasi-analytic.