

## The role of boundedness and nonnegativity in characterizing entropies of degree $\alpha$

By GYULA MAKSA (Debrecen)

*Dedicated to Professor Zoltán Daróczy on his 50th birthday*

**1. Introduction.** We denote the set of all complete  $n$ -ary probability distributions by  $\Gamma_n$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ), that is

$$\Gamma_n = \{(p_1, \dots, p_n): p_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, n; \sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1\}.$$

For a fixed real number  $\alpha$ , the entropy of degree  $\alpha$  is a sequence  $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$  of functions where  $H_n^\alpha: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $\mathbf{R}$  denotes the set of all real numbers) is defined by

$$H_n^\alpha(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \begin{cases} (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)^{-1} (\sum_{i=1}^n p_i^\alpha - 1) & \text{if } \alpha \neq 1 \\ - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log p_i & \text{if } \alpha = 1 \end{cases}$$

with the conventions  $0^\alpha = 0$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$ ,  $\log = \log_2$  and  $0 \log 0 = 0$ . The entropy of degree 1 is the Shannon entropy introduced by SHANNON [15]. For  $\alpha > 0$ , the entropy of degree  $\alpha$  was introduced by DARÓCZY [6]. Because of the convention  $0^0 = 0$  none of the functions  $H_n^\alpha$  is constant. For example,  $H_n^0(p_1, \dots, p_n) + 1$  gives how many probabilities in  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$  are different from zero.

The problem of characterization of the entropies of degree  $\alpha$  is the following: What properties have to be imposed upon a sequence of functions  $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ) in order that the equality

$$I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = H_n^\alpha(p_1, \dots, p_n)$$

should hold for some  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$  and for all  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$ ,  $n=2, 3, \dots$ . This problem is raised and extensively discussed in the book of ACZÉL and DARÓCZY [2].

We begin with three usual *axioms for the sequence*  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  ( $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ ,  $n=2, 3, \dots$ )

(A) $_\alpha$   *$\alpha$ -additivity:*

$$\begin{aligned} & I_{nm}(p_1 q_1, \dots, p_1 q_m, \dots, p_n q_1, \dots, p_n q_m) = \\ & = I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) + I_m(q_1, \dots, q_m) + (2^{1-\alpha} - 1) I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) I_m(q_1, \dots, q_m) \end{aligned}$$

for some  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$  and for all  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$ ,  $(q_1, \dots, q_m) \in \Gamma_m$ ;  $n, m=2, 3, \dots$

(B) *Sum property*: There exists a function  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  such that

$$I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i)$$

for all  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$ ,  $n=2, 3, \dots$ . (The function  $f$  is called a generating function of  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$ .)

(C) *Normalization*:

$$I_2\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = 1.$$

These properties do not characterize  $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$  therefore the authors investigating this problem required a further property. Supposing that a sequence of functions  $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ) satisfies (A) $_\alpha$  with some  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$  and (B) we have the following system of functional equations for the generating function  $f$  of  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$ :

$$(1)_\alpha \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m f(p_i q_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i) + \sum_{j=1}^m f(q_j) + (2^{1-\alpha} - 1) \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i) \sum_{j=1}^m f(q_j),$$

$$(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n, \quad (q_1, \dots, q_m) \in \Gamma_m; \quad n, m = 2, 3, \dots$$

In the case  $\alpha=1$  this system of functional equations was first studied by CHAUDY and MCLEOD [5]. They proved that the continuous solutions are of the form

$$(2) \quad f(x) = cx \log x, \quad x \in [0, 1]$$

with some  $c \in \mathbf{R}$  and with the convention  $0 \log 0 = 0$ . ACZÉL and DARÓCZY [1] proved the same supposing only that  $f$  is continuous and the equation (1) $_1$  holds for all  $n=m \geq 2$ . DARÓCZY [7] determined the measurable solutions of (1) $_1$  in the case  $n=3$ ,  $m=2$ ,  $f(1)=0$ . The author [13] proved the following result: If  $n \geq 3$  and  $m \geq 2$  are fixed in (1) $_1$  and  $f$  is a solution of (1) $_1$  which is bounded on a set of positive Lebesgue measure then

$$f(x) = cx \log x + bx + a, \quad x \in [0, 1]$$

with some  $a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}$ . In the case  $\alpha \neq 1$  supposing that (1) $_\alpha$  holds for all  $n \geq 2$ ,  $m \geq 2$  the continuous solutions were determined by BEHARA and NATH [3], KANNAPPAN [10] and MITTAL [14]. For fixed  $n \geq 3$ ,  $m \geq 2$  LOSONCZI [11] found the measurable solutions of (1) $_\alpha$ .

From the results mentioned above such a type of characterization theorems can be obtained for  $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$  in which (A) $_\alpha$ , (B), (C) and a regularity property of the generating function are supposed. Our purpose in this paper is to give characterization theorems for  $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$  in which all conditions concern the sequence  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  itself and we suppose nothing on the generating function. (We suppose its existence only.)

Therefore our *further axioms* for  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  will be the following:

(D) $_1$  *Boundedness*: There exists  $K \in \mathbf{R}$  such that

$$|I_3(p_1, p_2, p_3)| \leq K, \quad (p_1, p_2, p_3) \in \Gamma_3.$$

(D) *Boundedness*: The function  $t \rightarrow I_2(t, 1-t)$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$  is bounded on a subset of positive Lebesgue measure of  $[0, 1]$ .

(F) *Nonnegativity*: The function  $t \rightarrow I_2(t, 1-t)$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$  is nonnegative on a subset of positive Lebesgue measure of  $[0, 1]$ .

**2. The case  $\alpha=1$ .** First, we prove a characterization theorem for the Shannon entropy.

**Theorem 1.** *A sequence  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  of functions  $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ) is the Shannon entropy  $\{H_n^1\}_{n=2}^\infty$  if and only if  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  has the properties (A)<sub>1</sub>, (B), (C) and (D)<sub>1</sub>.*

**PROOF.** It can easily be verified that the Shannon entropy satisfies the axioms (A)<sub>1</sub>, (B), (C) and (D)<sub>1</sub> thus we only deal with the converse. Suppose that  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  satisfies (A)<sub>1</sub>, (B), (C) and (D)<sub>1</sub> and let  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a generating function of  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$ . Then  $f$  satisfies (1)<sub>1</sub> for all  $n \geq 2, m \geq 2$ . With the substitution  $(1, 0, \dots, 0) \in \Gamma_n, (q_1, \dots, q_m) \in \Gamma_m$ , (1)<sub>1</sub> implies that  $(n-1)(m-1)f(0) = f(1)$ . Since this is valid for all  $n \geq 2, m \geq 2$  we have that  $f(0) = f(1) = 0$ .

Let  $F$  be the periodic extension of  $f$  to  $\mathbf{R}$  with the period 1 and define the function  $g$  on  $\mathbf{R}^2$  by

$$(3) \quad g(x, y) = F(x+y) - F(x) - F(y).$$

We shall show that  $g$  is bounded on  $\mathbf{R}^2$ . Since  $g$  is periodic in both variables with the period 1, it is enough to show that  $g$  is bounded on  $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ . Moreover, because of the identity

$$g(x, y) = g(x, 1-x) + g(y, 1-y) - g(1-x, 1-y) - g(2-x-y, x+y-1)$$

it is enough to show that  $g$  is bounded on the set

$$\Delta = \{x, y\}: x, y, x+y \in [0, 1]\}.$$

Let  $(x, y) \in \Delta$ . Then, by (B) and (3), we get

$$I_3(1-x-y, x+y, 0) - I_3(x, y, 1-x-y) = f(x+y) - f(x) - f(y) = g(x, y),$$

therefore (D)<sub>1</sub> implies that  $g$  is bounded on  $\Delta$ . Thus  $g$  is bounded on  $\mathbf{R}^2$ , too.

Applying Theorem 1.2 of DE BRUIJN [4] (or the stability theorem of HYERS [9]) we obtain that  $F$  is the sum of a function bounded on  $\mathbf{R}$  and a function  $a: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  satisfying the Cauchy functional equation  $a(x+y) = a(x) + a(y)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbf{R}$ . It follows that

$$f(x) = f^*(x) + a(x), \quad x \in [0, 1]$$

where  $f^*: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is bounded and we may suppose that  $a(1) = 0$ . Therefore  $f^*$  is a bounded solution of (1)<sub>1</sub>, thus, by [13],  $f^*$  has the form (2) with some  $c \in \mathbf{R}$ . Finally, for  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$  we have

$$I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n f^*(p_i) + a(1) = c \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log p_i = -cH_n^1(p_1, \dots, p_n)$$

where, by (C),  $c = -1$  and the proof is complete.

In this theorem the boundedness  $(D)_1$  cannot be replaced by boundedness from one side or, in particular, by nonnegativity. In connection with this fact we present an *example*.

A function  $d: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is called a real derivation if

$$d(x+y) = d(x) + d(y) \quad \text{and} \quad d(xy) = x d(y) + y d(x)$$

hold for all  $x, y \in \mathbf{R}$ . It is known that there exist nonidentically zero real derivations (see ZARISKI and SAMUEL [16]). Define the function  $f$  on  $[0, 1]$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{d(x)^2}{x} - x \log x & \text{if } x \in ]0, 1[ \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

where  $d$  is a nonidentically zero real derivation, and define  $I_n$  on  $\Gamma_n$  by

$$(4) \quad I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(p_i) \quad (n = 2, 3, \dots).$$

Using the properties of  $d$  we find that

$$(5) \quad f(xy) = x f(y) + y f(x) + 2 d(x) d(y); \quad x, y \in [0, 1].$$

Since  $d(1) = 0$ , (5) and (4) imply that  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$  defined by (4) has the property  $(A)_1$ . (B) and (C) are obviously satisfied by  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$ . It has been proved by DARÓCZY and MAKSA [8] that

$$\frac{d(u+v)^2}{u+v} \cong \frac{d(u)^2}{u} + \frac{d(v)^2}{v}$$

for all positive numbers  $u$  and  $v$ . Since

$$-(u+v) \log(u+v) \cong -u \log u - v \log v \quad (u > 0, v > 0)$$

is also true, we have that  $f(x+y) \cong f(x) + f(y)$  for all  $(x, y) \in \Delta$ . Using this inequality several times, (4) implies that

$$I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) \cong f\left(\sum_{i=1}^n p_i\right) = f(1) = 0$$

for all  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$ ,  $n = 2, 3, \dots$ . Finally, we show that  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$  is different from  $\{H_n^1\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$ . Indeed, suppose that  $I_2(x, 1-x) = H_2^1(x, 1-x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Then

$$0 = \frac{d(x)^2}{x} + \frac{d(1-x)^2}{1-x} = \frac{d(x)^2}{x(1-x)}$$

for all  $x \in ]0, 1[$ , which implies the contradiction that  $d$  is identically zero.

**3. The case  $\alpha \neq 1$ .** In this case the generating functions of  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^{\infty}$  ( $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ ,  $n = 2, 3, \dots$ ) satisfying  $(A)_\alpha$  and (B) have been determined by LOSONCZI and MAKSA [12]. The following theorem is a simple consequence of this result so its proof is omitted.

**Theorem 2.** Let  $\alpha \neq 1$ . The sequence  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  of functions  $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ) satisfies (A) $_\alpha$ , (B) and (C) if and only if there exists a function  $h: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  such that

$$(6) \quad h(xy) = h(x)h(y); \quad x, y \in [0, 1]$$

$$(7) \quad h(0) = 0, \quad h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 2^{-\alpha}$$

and

$$(8) \quad I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n h(p_i) - 1 \right)$$

for all  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$  and  $n=2, 3, \dots$ .

In connection with the solutions  $h: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  of (6) we mention the well-known facts that  $h(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , and if  $h$  is bounded on a subset of  $[0, 1]$  of positive Lebesgue measure and (7) is also satisfied then

$$(9) \quad h(x) = x^\alpha, \quad x \in [0, 1]$$

with the convention  $0^\alpha = 0$ .

Thus we can easily prove the following two theorems.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $\alpha \neq 1$ . A sequence  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  of functions  $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ) is the entropy of degree  $\alpha$   $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$  if and only if  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  has the properties (A) $_\alpha$ , (B), (C) and (D).

PROOF. By Theorem 2,  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  satisfies (A) $_\alpha$ , (B) and (C) if and only if there exists  $h: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  with the properties (6), (7) and (8). If (D) holds too then

$$0 \leq h(t) = (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)I_2(t, 1-t) - h(1-t) + 1 \leq (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)I_2(t, 1-t) + 1, \quad t \in [0, 1]$$

shows that  $h$  is also bounded on a subset of positive Lebesgue measure of  $[0, 1]$ . Thus (9) and (8) imply that  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty = \{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$ . Since  $h(x) = x^\alpha$ ,  $x \in [0, 1]$  satisfies (6) and (7) and Theorem 2 yields the converse.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $\alpha > 1$ . A sequence  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  of functions  $I_n: \Gamma_n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  ( $n=2, 3, \dots$ ) is the entropy of degree  $\alpha$   $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$  if and only if  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  has the properties (A) $_\alpha$ , (B), (C) and (E).

PROOF. Applying again Theorem 2,  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  satisfies (A) $_\alpha$ , (B) and (C) if and only if there exists  $h: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  with the properties (6), (7) and (8). If (E) holds too then

$$0 \leq h(t) = (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)I_2(t, 1-t) - h(1-t) + 1 \leq 1$$

is valid on a subset of positive Lebesgue measure of  $[0, 1]$ . Thus we have again (9) and Theorem 2 implies Theorem 4.

In the case  $\alpha < 1$  Theorem 4 does not work. In what follows we present an example. First, we verify an inequality.

**Lemma.** Let  $a, b, \alpha \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$  and  $\alpha < 1$ . Then

$$(10) \quad b(a+1)^\alpha < b^{a+1} + a^\alpha.$$

PROOF. Let  $a > 0$  be fixed and

$$\varphi(b) = b(a+1)^x - b^{a+1} - a^x, \quad b > 0.$$

Then  $\varphi'(b) = (a+1)^x - (a+1)b^a = (a+1)[(a+1)^{x-1} - b^a]$ . This implies that  $\varphi'(b) \cong 0$  if and only if  $b \in ]0, b_0]$  where  $b_0 = (a+1)^{x-1/a}$ . Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(b) &\cong \varphi(b_0) = (a+1)^{((x-1)/a)+x} - (a+1)^{((x-1)/a)(a+1)} - a^x = \\ &= a[(a+1)^{(x-1)(1+(1/a))} - a^{x-1}] < a[(a+1)^{x-1} - a^{x-1}] < 0 \end{aligned}$$

which proves (10).

Let  $\alpha < 1$  be fixed and define the function  $H$  on  $[0, +\infty[$  by

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} x^\alpha 2^{d(x)/x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

where  $d$  is a nonidentically zero real derivation. An easy calculation shows that

$$(11) \quad H(xy) = H(x)H(y); \quad x, y \in [0, +\infty[$$

and  $H\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 2^{-\alpha}$ ,  $H(0) = 0$ . Let  $x > 0$  and  $a = x$ ,  $b = 2^{-(d(x)/x(x+1))}$ . Then, applying our lemma and using that  $d(x) = d(x+1)$ , (10) implies that

$$(x+1)^\alpha 2^{-(d(x)/x(x+1))} < 2^{-(d(x)/x)} + x^\alpha$$

and

$$(x+1)^\alpha 2^{d(x+1)/(x+1)} < x^\alpha 2^{d(x)/x} + 1,$$

that is  $H(x+1) < H(x) + 1$ .

This inequality and (11) give that

$$(12) \quad H(x+y) \cong H(x) + H(y); \quad x, y \in [0, +\infty[.$$

Let now  $h(x) = H(x)$  if  $x \in [0, 1]$  and

$$I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n h(p_i) - 1 \right); \quad (p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n, \quad n = 2, 3, \dots$$

Then it follows from Theorem 2 that  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  satisfies (A) $_\alpha$ , (B) and (C). Using (12) several times, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} I_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) &= (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n H(p_i) - 1 \right) \cong (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)^{-1} \left( H\left(\sum_{i=1}^n p_i\right) - 1 \right) = \\ &= (2^{1-\alpha} - 1)^{-1} (H(1) - 1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

for all  $(p_1, \dots, p_n) \in \Gamma_n$ ,  $n = 2, 3, \dots$ . Finally, we show that  $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$  is different from  $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$ . Indeed, suppose that  $I_2(x, 1-x) = H_2(x, 1-x)$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Then  $h(x) + h(1-x) = x^\alpha + (1-x)^\alpha$ , whence

$$0 \cong h(x) \cong h(x) + h(1-x) = x^\alpha + (1-x)^\alpha$$

which shows that  $h$  is bounded on a subset of positive Lebesgue measure of  $[0, 1]$  and thus we have (9). This implies that  $d$  is identically zero which is a contradiction.

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS  
LAJOS KOSSUTH UNIVERSITY  
H-4010 DEBRECEN, PF. 12  
HUNGARY

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