

The role of boundedness and nonnegativity in characterizing entropies of degree α

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Dedicated to Professor Zoltán Daróczy on his 50th birthday

1. Introduction. We denote the set of all complete n -ary probability distributions by Γ_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 α , the entropy of degree α 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 α was introduced by DARÓCZY [6]. Because of the convention $0^0 = 0$ none of the functions H_n^α 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 α 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) $_\alpha$ α -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)₁, (B), (C) and (D)₁.*

PROOF. It can easily be verified that the Shannon entropy satisfies the axioms (A)₁, (B), (C) and (D)₁ thus we only deal with the converse. Suppose that $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$ satisfies (A)₁, (B), (C) and (D)₁ and let $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a generating function of $\{I_n\}_{n=2}^\infty$. Then f satisfies (1)₁ 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)₁ 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)₁ implies that g is bounded on Δ . 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)₁, 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 Γ_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

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

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

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

for all positive numbers u and v . Since

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

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

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

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 α $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$ 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 α $\{H_n^\alpha\}_{n=2}^\infty$ 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 $\varphi'(b) \equiv 0$ if and only if $b \in]0, b_0]$ where $b_0 = (a+1)^{x-1/a}$. Thus we have

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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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