# Department of Applied Analysis and Computer Science

Research Report AA-73-05

January 1973

- 1. ON SHANNON'S INEQUALITY, OPTIMAL CODING, AND CHARACTERIZATIONS OF SHANNON'S AND RÉNYI'S ENTROPIES
- 2. DETERMINATION OF ALL ADDITIVE QUASIARITHMETIC MEAN CODEWORD LENGTHS

bу

J. Aczél Univeristy of Waterloo

The first paper was given at the Meeting on Theoretical Information of the Istituto Nazionale di Alta Matematica, Rome. The problem which was still unsolved on pp.31-32 of the first paper is solved in the second paper, to be published in the Zeitschrift für Wahrscheinlichkeitsrechnung und verwandte Gebiete.

1. On Shannon's Inequaltiy, Optimal Coding, and Characterizations of Shannon's and Renyi's Entropies

J. Aczél

- J. ACZÉL: On Shannon's Inequality, Optimal Coding and Characterizations of Shannon's and Rényi's Entropies
  - 1. The classical form of Shannon's inequality is

(1) 
$$-\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log p_k \leq -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log q_k ,$$

for all  $N \geq 2$  if

(2) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k = \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k = 1 ; p_k > 0, q_k > 0; k = 1,2,...,N,$$

with equality in (1) iff

(3) 
$$p_k = q_k \quad (k = 1, 2, ... N).$$

The expression on the left hand side of (1) is the <u>Shannon entropy</u>, if we take 2 as base of the logarithms in (1).

The most important application of Shannon's inequality may be the theorem asserting that the average length of a codeword in a uniquely decipherable code cannot be smaller than the Shannon entropy divided by the logarithm (base 2) of the number of symbols in the code. So, even optimal coding cannot produce shorter average lengths of codewords, but should try to approximate this lower bound as closely as possible.

In this paper, by examining two proofs of Shannon's inequality closer, we will first extend it to situations more general than (2). This, in its turn, will simplify the proof of the optimal coding theorem, mentioned above.

Also, the analysis of the equality cases of this extended inequality will give guidance, how such optimal codes can be selected.

The relevance of Shannon's inequality to Shannon's entropy is a.o. due to the fact that the quantity on the left hand side of (1) is Shannon's

entropy. Conversely, by putting an unknown function in place of log in (1), we can obtain from Shannon's inequality a characterization of Shannon's entropy. We will give two proofs (really shortcuts of previous proofs) for this characterization.

Another way of characterizing Shannon's entropy is the optimal coding theorem itself. A one parameter class of entropies, the so called Renyi entropies, can be similarly characterized. We will give a new version of this characterization, in particular for positive values of the parameter, thus characterizing the Renyi entropies of positive order.

2. One proof of Shannon's inequality (cf. A. Feinstein 1958) is based on the inequality of the geometric and arithmetic means. This asserts that

if

(5) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k = 1, p_k > 0, x_k \ge 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N).$$

Inequality holds in (4) iff

(6) 
$$x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_N$$

In order to prove the Shannon inequality we put into (4)  $x_k = q_k/p_k \ (k=1,2,\ldots,N, \text{ the conditions (5) are satisfied because of (2)),}$  and get

(7) 
$$\prod_{k=1}^{N} \left(\frac{q_{k}}{p_{k}}\right)^{p_{k}} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \frac{q_{k}}{p_{k}} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_{k} = 1$$

and, taking logarithms on both sides of (7), which we can do since  $p_k > 0$ ,  $q_k > 0$  (k = 1,2,...,N), we get

(8) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \left(\log q_k - \log p_k\right) \leq 0$$

from which the desired inequality (1) follows at once. There is equality in (7), cf. (6), iff

(9) 
$$\frac{q_1}{p_1} = \frac{q_2}{p_2} = \dots = \frac{q_N}{p_N} = c,$$

but, because of (2),

(10) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1 = \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_{k} = c \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}$$

thus c = 1 in (9) and we have equality in (1) iff (3) holds.

When we look carefully at this proof, we see that it can be modified so that instead of

(11) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k = 1$$

we may suppose only

(12) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} q_{k} \leq 1.$$

Indeed, then (7) will change into

and (8), (1) can still be derived. There will be <u>equality</u> in (1) iff there is equality in <u>both</u> inequalities of (13), that is, iff (9) <u>and (11)</u> hold, so we get again (10) and (3).

Of course, the inequality of the arithmetic and geometric means expresses the concavity of the logarithm function on  $0,\infty$ . Indeed, if

(14) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1, p_{k} > 0, x_{k} > 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N),$$

then (4) is equivalent to the Jensen inequality (see e.g. G. H. Hardy - J. E. Littlewood - G. Pólya 1934, Section 3.8)

(15) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \psi(x_k) \leq \psi(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k x_k)$$

for the function  $\psi = \log$ , with equality again exactly if (6) holds. (If the function value  $-\infty$  is admissible, then we can take (5) as domain instead of (14), that is, allow some  $x_k$  to be 0.)

3. The Shannon inequality can also be obtained (see e.g. J. Aczel - Z. Daroczy 1975, cf. F. M. Reza 1961) from the concavity on [0,1] of the function L defined by

(16) 
$$L(x) = \begin{cases} -x \log x & \text{if } x \in ]0,1] \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(In information theory one usually takes 2 as basis of logarithms, but this is not important here as long as the basis is greater than 1). The function L is indeed concave on [0,1] since (cf. G. H. Hardy - J. E. Littlewood - G. Polya 1934, Section 3.10 or J. Aczel - Z. Daroczy 1975, Section 1.3)

The Jensen inequality (cf. (15)) for L asserts that

(18) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k L(x_k) \leq L(\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k x_k)$$

holds if

(19) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k = 1; \ q_k > 0, \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N).$$

and if

(20) 
$$x_k \in [0,1] \quad (k = 1,2,...,N).$$

Again, there is equality in (18) iff

(6) 
$$x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_N$$
.

Put  $x_k = p_k/q_k$  into (18) with

(21) 
$$p_k > 0$$
  $(k = 1, 2, ..., N), \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k = 1$ .

By (16) we get

(22) 
$$-\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k \frac{p_k}{q_k} \log \frac{p_k}{q_k} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k L (\frac{p_k}{q_k}) \le L (\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k \frac{p_k}{q_k}) = L (\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k) = L (1) = 0$$

or

(8) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} (\log q_{k} - \log p_{k}) \leq 0,$$

equivalent to (1), with equality again iff (3) holds.

Since (18) is true on the domain (20), we may take, instead of (21),

(23) 
$$p_{k} \ge 0$$
  $(k = 1, 2, ..., N), \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1$ 

and get from (22) at least

(24) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k L \left( \frac{P_k}{q_k} \right) \leq 0$$

and if, in accordance with (16) and (17), we define

$$(25) 0 log 0: = 0$$

then all of (22) and so (8) and (1) hold for all  $p_k$ ,  $q_k$  (k = 1,2,...,N) satisfying (19) and (23). (Cf. for this extension also J. Aczel - J. Pfanzagl 1969.) There is still equality in (1) exactly when (3) holds. (We cannot allow

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \leq 1$$

in (23), because L is decreasing near 1, so (24) would not hold anymore - cf. (22).)

Thus we have extended Shannon's inequality this time in another direction. We may ask whether the two extensions can be combined, that is, whether (1) is true for all  $p_k$ ,  $q_k$  (k = 1, 2, ..., N) satisfying

(26) 
$$\sum_{\substack{k=1\\k=1}}^{N} p_k = 1, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k \le 1 ; \quad p_k \ge 0, \quad q_k > 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N) .$$

The answer is yes. Indeed we have just proved (1) for  $p_k$ ,  $q_k$  (k = 1,2,...,N) satisfying (19) and (23). Suppose now that (26) is satisfied, but (19) is not, that is

(27) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k < 1 \quad (q_k > 0; k = 1, 2, ..., N).$$

Define

(28) 
$$q_{N+1} = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_k > 0 , p_{N+1} = 0 .$$

The new  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N, p_{N+1}, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_N, q_{N+1}$  satisfy both (19) and (23) for N+1 instead of N, so (1) is satisfied under these circumstances, and we have (cf. (25))

(29) 
$$-\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log p_k = -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log p_k - p_{N+1} \log p_{N+1} \le -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log q_k - p_{N+1} \log q_{N+1} =$$

$$= -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log q_k$$

Thus (1) indeed holds for all  $p_k$ ,  $q_k$  (k = 1,2,...,N) satisfying (26). Does (27) generate new equality cases? No, because

(30) 
$$p_{N+1} = q_{N+1}$$

would be necessary (besides  $p_k = q_k$  for k = 1, 2, ..., N) in order to have equality in (29), and (30) contradicts (28). We have proved the following.

#### Theorem 1. The Shannon inequality

(1) 
$$-\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log p_k \leq -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log q_k$$

holds (with the convention (25) where necessary), for all  $N \ge 2$ , if

(26) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_{k} \leq 1; \quad p_{k} \geq 0, \quad q_{k} > 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N).$$

There is equality in (1) if and only if

(3) 
$$p_k = q_k \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N)$$
.

As we will see, the extension (12) is the most important one for applications to optimal coding.

4. Codes are correspondances between messages and sequences of symbols, called codewords. Suppose we have D symbols and N messages  $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_N$  with the respective probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_N$ , for which (23) holds. The number of symbols in the codeword  $C_k$  corresponding to  $M_k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ ) is the length  $n_k$  of its codeword (the number of symbols in the sequence  $C_k$ ). The average length of codewords in this code is

$$\begin{array}{c}
N \\
\sum p_k n_k \\
k=1
\end{array}$$

The messages can be, for instance, letters. We transmit usually sequences of messages (words, in this example) by transmitting the codewords consecutively. If this can be done without spacing, that is, from the union of several codewords all of the original messages can still be uniquely determined, then we have a uniquely decipherable code. (The union of several finite sequences is the sequence obtained by writing the elements of the second sequence after those of the first, the elements of the third after those of the second sequence, and so on.) The very remarkable theorem of L. Kraft and B. McMillan (see e.g. A. Feinstein 1958, F. M. Reza 1961) announces that a code is uniquely decipherable if and only if

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} D^{-n_k} \leq 1 .$$

Often (32) is called the Kraft inequality.

It is quite natural to regard a code economical or efficient, if the average length (31) of codewords is small and optimal the code for which (31) is the smallest (see, however, also Section 9). But how small can (31) get? A partial answer is given in the following (see again A. Feinstein 1958 or F. M. Reza 1961 or J. Aczél - Z. Daróczy 1975, a.o.).

Theorem 2. For every uniquely decipherable code, the average length of codewords satisfies

(33) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} n_{k} \ge \frac{H_{N}(p_{1}, p_{2}, \dots, p_{N})}{\log D}$$
 (\(\Sigma \text{p}\_{k} = 1\), \(\Sigma \text{D} D \\ \k = 1\); \(D \geq 2\), \(n\_{k} \text{ integers}, \\
\left( \Sigma \text{p}\_{k} = 1 \), \(\Sigma \text{D} D \\ \k = 1 \).

$$p_k \ge 0$$
;  $k = 1, 2, ..., N$ ).

Here

$$H_{N}(p_{1},p_{2},\ldots,p_{N}) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} L(p_{k})$$

with the notation (16), or, with the convention (25),

(34) 
$$H_{\mathbf{N}}(p_1, p_2, ..., p_N) = -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \log p_k$$

is the Shannon entropy of the finite probability distribution  $(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N)$ , if the base of the logarithms is 2.

The <u>proof</u> of Theorem 2 is now very simple on basis of (32) and of Theorem 1. Indeed, put into (1)

$$q_k = p^{-n}k,$$

then we get

$$H_{N}(p_{1}, p_{2}, ..., p_{N}) = -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \log p_{k} \le -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \log q_{k} = -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \log p_{k} = \log p_{k} \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{n_{k}}$$

and this is exactly (33). The conditions (26) of Theorem 1 are satisfied, because we have supposed (23) and because (35) and the Kraft inequality (32) give

$$q_{k} > 0, \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} D^{-n_{k}} \le 1.$$

Also, by Theorem 1, we have equality in (33) iff

(36) 
$$p_k = q_k = D^{-n}k \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N)$$

-if this is possible. This is not always possible, because it means

(37) 
$$n_{k} = -\frac{\log p_{k}}{\log p} \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N)$$

and this is possible only if the fractions on the right hand sides of (37) are (positive) integers. In this case, every uniquely decipherable code with codeword lengths given by (37) is an optimal code. Also, in this sense, by (36) and (26), optimal codes are only possible for proper probability distributions with  $p_k \neq 0$  (k = 1,2,...,N) and only if equality holds in the Kraft inequality.

If a fraction on the right hand side of (37) is not an integer, then it seems plausible that we get near to optimal codes when we choose the integers  $\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}$  near to

$$-\frac{\log p_k}{\log D}$$
 (k = 1,2,...,N).

For instance, it is easy to prove (cf. F. M. Reza 1961, J. Aczél - Z. Daróczy 1975, also Section 9 here) that

(38) 
$$\frac{H_{N}(p_{1}, p_{2}, \dots, p_{N})}{\log D} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} n_{k} \leq \frac{H_{N}(p_{1}, p_{2}, \dots, p_{N})}{\log D} + 1 ,$$

if we choose our code so (uniquely decipherable, by the Kraft - McMillan theorem)

that  $n_k$  be the (unique) integer satisfying

(39) 
$$-\frac{\log p_k}{\log D} \le n_k < -\frac{\log p_k}{\log D} + 1 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N).$$

There is no equality in (the first inequality of) (38) except if all

$$-\frac{\log p_k}{\log D} \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N)$$

### are integers, i.e. if there is equality in all inequalities (39).

We can get <u>arbitrarily small</u>  $+\epsilon$ , instead of +1, in (38) if we transmit <u>sequences</u> of independent messages consecutively. The inequalities (33) and (38) characterize the Shannon entropy (34) in a way. We will return to a generalization of this characterization in Section 9. In the next sections we use the Shannon inequality (1), with Shannon's entropy on its left hand side, in another way for a characterization of the Shannon entropy.

5. The Shannon inequality (1) suggests the problem of determiningall functions f: ]0,1[ → R which satisfy the inequalities

(40) 
$$- \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k f(p_k) < -\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k f(q_k)$$

for all N  $\geq$  2 and for all  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_N, q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_N$  satisfying (2). The inequality (40) has also applications to the so called "how to keep the expert honest" problem, see e.g. I. J. Good 1952, J. Aczél - J. Pfanzagl 1966, J. Aczél - A. M. Ostrowski 1973. By Shannon's inequality, log is a function

satisfying (40) on (2). If we multiply (40) by a nonnegative constant  $\underline{a}$  and add an arbitrary constant  $\underline{b}$ , we see that also the functions f given by

(41) 
$$f(q) = a \log q + b \quad (a \ge 0) \text{ for all } q \in [0,1[$$

satisfy (40). (If we take the base of the logarithm arbitrary, then the constant  $\underline{a}$  can be omitted, except for the trivial case a=0.) We will prove the following.

## Theorem 3. The inequality (40) or, equivalently,

(42) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k f(p_k) \ge \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k f(q_k)$$

holds for one N > 2 and for all  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_N$  satisfying

(2) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} q_{k} = 1; p_{k} > 0, q_{k} > 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N),$$

if and only if there exist two constants a, b such that

(41) 
$$f(q) = a \log q + b \quad \text{for all } q \in ]0,1[\quad \text{and } a \geq 0]$$

In this case, the left hand side of (40) is the Shannon entropy up to an additive and a nonnegative multiplicative constant.

Remarks. 1) The supposition, that (42) be satisfied for one N > 2, is weaker than that demanding that (42) be satisfied for all  $N \ge 2$  (but also the latter is always true for (41)). If (42) is supposed only for N = 2 (and for all  $p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2$  satisfying (2)), then there exist solutions different from (41), for instance  $f(q) = 6q - 9q^2 + 8q^3 - 3q^4$  (for detailed

discussions of the case N = 2, see J. Aczel - J. Pfanzagl 1966 and P. Fischer 1972).

2) Supposing (42) for all positive  $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_N$ , satisfying (12) instead of (11), would again be a stronger condition for the "only if" than what we have supposed in Theorem 3. On the other hand, the "if" statement holds then too, as we have shown in Sections 2, 3. In (41), we have got the values of f on the open interval ]0,1[. Indeed, we could not hope for more, since (42) under the restrictions (2) does not say anything about the values of f outside the interval ]0,1[. If we supposed (42) valid on (23) instead of (21) (i.e. if we allowed also 0's among  $p_1,p_2,\ldots,p_N$ ), we would get on the values of f at 1 and 0 only the restriction

f(1) + (N-1) 
$$K \ge \sup_{q \in [0,1[} f(q), \text{ where } 0 \text{ f(0)} : = K \ge 0.$$

- 3) We also do <u>not suppose</u> that there should be equality in (42) only in the case (3) in order to get (41). This, again, is a consequence as we have proved in Sections 2, 3.
- 4) Theorem 3 has been proved under the assumption of differentiability for f by J. Aczel and J. Pfanzagl 1966. P. Fischer 1972
  has proved Theorem 3 in its present form, without any regularity supposition on f. However, his proof was rather difficult to understand, so several mathematicians (A. Rényi, J. Aczel, A. M. Ostrowski) have made new proofs of this remarkable theorem, see J. Aczel A. M. Ostrowski 1973. (A similar theorem was (incorrectly) announced without proof previously by J. McCarthy 1956 with credit given to A. M. Gleason. It seems that Gleason's (unpublished) proof has been longer.) In what follows, we give two proofs of Theorem 3. While it may be difficult to recognize them, the first proof is based upon almost the same ideas as the original proof of P. Fischer 1972, although it

is, we trust, quite a bit easier to understand. The second proof is a modification and complementation of the proofs in J. Aczel - A. M. Ostrowski 1973. It utilizes also remarks made by P. Benvenuti, A. M. Gleason and W. Walter.

6. First proof of Theorem 3. We have proved the "if" part of the Theorem in Section 2. As to the "only if" part, we first show that every solution f of (42) is nondecreasing on ]0,1[. We put into (42)

(43) 
$$p_k = q_k \text{ for all } k > 2, p_1 = p, q_1 = q,$$

(44) 
$$p_1+p_2 = q_1+q_2 = r$$
, i.e.  $p_2 = r-p$ ,  $q_2 = r-q$ 

and (42) goes over into

(45) 
$$p[f(p)-f(q)] \ge (r-p) [f(r-q)-f(r-p)]$$
.

Notice that r in (44) is arbitrary in ]0,1[ (because of (2) and (43)), so (45) holds for all

(46) 
$$p \in ]0,r[, q \in ]0,r[, r \in ]0,1[$$
.

The conditions (46) are symmetric in p and q, so (45) remains true on (46) if we interchange p and q:

(47) 
$$q[f(q)-f(p)] \ge (r-q)[f(r-p)-f(r-q)]$$
.

Now multiply (45) by (r-q) and (47) by (r-p) and add these two inequalities in order to get

$$r(p-q) [f(p)-f(q)] = [p(r-q)-q(r-p)] [f(p)-f(q)] \ge 0$$
.

This shows, that for all p > q we have  $f(p) \ge f(q)$ , that is, f is indeed nondecreasing.

Now we show that whenever f is differentiable at r-p then f is also differentiable at p (p  $\epsilon$  ]0,1[, r-p  $\epsilon$  ]0,1[), and

(48) 
$$pf'(p) = (r-p) f'(r-p)$$

holds. Indeed from (47) and (45), we get

(49) 
$$\frac{r-q}{q} \frac{f(r-p)-f(r-q)}{(r-p)-(r-q)} \leq \frac{f(q)-f(p)}{q-p} \leq \frac{r-p}{p} \frac{f(r-p)-f(r-q)}{(r-p)-(r-q)} ,$$

if q > p, and both inequalities are reversed if q < p. Let now  $q \rightarrow p$ , then  $r - q \rightarrow r - p$  and both extremes of (49) tend to

$$\frac{r-p}{p}$$
 f'(r-p)

(since f is differentiable at (r-p)). Thus f is indeed differentiable at p and (48) holds.

What we have just proved, can also be formulated so that whenever f is not differentiable at p, then f is also not differentiable at r-p for all  $r \in \exists p, l \in I$ . From this it follows that f is everywhere differentiable on  $\exists 0, l \in I$ . Indeed, if there existed a  $p_0 \in \exists 0, l \in I$  such that f were not differentiable at  $p_0$ , then f would be not differentiable at  $p_0$ , either, for all  $p_0$ , letter is, f would not be differentiable at any point of the interval (of positive length,  $1-p_0 > 0$ )  $\exists 0, 1-p_0 \in I$ . But this is impossible, because f, being nondecreasing, is almost everywhere differentiable on  $\exists 0, 1 \in I$ . Thus f is indeed everywhere differentiable on  $\exists 0, 1 \in I$ . Thus f is indeed everywhere differentiable on  $\exists 0, 1 \in I$ . Thus f is indeed everywhere differentiable on  $\exists 0, 1 \in I$ .

(50) 
$$pf'(p) = a (constant)$$

The constant  $\underline{a}$  in (50) is nonnegative

$$a \ge 0 ,$$

because f is increasing. From (50) and (51) we get (41) (with the natural logarithm, but that makes no difference) and this concludes the first proof of Theorem 3.

7. Second proof of Theorem 3. We keep from the first proof the argument leading to the recognition that f is nondecreasing and the inequality (45), which we divide by p-q > 0 again

(52) 
$$p \frac{f(p)-f(q)}{p-q} \geq (r-p) \frac{f(r-q)-f(r-p)}{(r-q)-(r-p)}.$$

Let now q tend to p increasingly:  $q \not p$  (therefore  $r-q \not r-p$ ). We do not know at this stage whether the two sides of (52) have limits under these circumstances, but they have (finite or infinite) lim sup's and lim inf's and the inequality in (52) remains valid between them. So we get

(53) 
$$p D^{-}f(p) \ge (r-p) D^{+}f(r-p)$$

and

(54) 
$$p D_f(p) \ge (r-p) D_f(r-p)$$

respectively.  $(D^-, D^+, D_-, D_+)$  denote the left upper, right upper, left lower, right lower Dini derivatives, respectively.) Similarly, if p q (r-p r-q) in (52), then we get

(55) 
$$q D^{+}f(q) \ge (r-q) D^{-}f(r-q) \text{ and } q D_{+}f(q) \ge (r-q) D_{-}f(r-q).$$

The inequalities (53), (54) and (55) hold, as (45), whenever

(46) 
$$r \in ]0,1[, p \in ]0,r[, q \in ]0,r[$$

is satisfied. In particular, we may choose in (55) q = r-p, and then comparison with (53) and (54) gives

$$p \ D^{-}f(p) = (r-p) \ D^{+}f(r-p)$$
 and  $p \ D_{-}f(p) = (r-p) \ D_{+}f(r-p)$ 

or, taking the arbitrariness of p and r within (46) into consideration, there exist two (finite or infinite) constants A, a such that

(56) 
$$x D^{-}f(x) = A = x D^{+}f(x) \text{ for all } x \in [0,1[$$

and

(57) 
$$x D_f(x) = a = x D_f(x)$$
 for all  $x \in (30,1)$ .

Since f is nondecreasing, A and a must be nonnegative

(58) 
$$A \ge 0$$
,  $a \ge 0$ ,

but we have not yet ruled out the possibilities that  $A = \infty$  or  $a = \infty$ . If we want to use, as in the first proof, the theorem that a nondecreasing function is almost everywhere differentiable or, at least, differentiable at one point  $x_0 \in ]0,1[$  then we get there immediately

$$D^{-}f(x_0) = D^{+}f(x_0) = D_{-}f(x_0) = D_{+}f(x_0) = f'(x_0)$$
,

thus A and a in (56) and (57) are equal and finite. Therefore it follows from (56) and (57) that f is differentiable at every  $x \in [0,1[$  :

$$\frac{a}{x} = D_f(x) = D_+f(x) = D_f(x) = D_f(x) = D_f(x) = f'(x)$$
 for all  $x \in [0,1]$ ,

which is the same as (50) and since, by (58), also (51) holds, we have proved (41) and the Theorem 3 again.

In this proof, however, we will deduce Theorem 3 without appeal to the relatively deep fact that an increasing function is almost everywhere differentiable or of any other result in the theory of (Lebesgue) measure. We will also need only (57) with (58) a  $\geq 0$ .

First we <u>rule out</u>  $a = \infty$ . Indeed, else we would have even for arbitrarily large positive constants B

$$D_{f}(x)-Bx = D_{f}(x) - B = \infty \text{ and } D_{f}(x)-Bx = D_{f}(x) - B = \infty$$

by (57). In particular for all functions g, defined (with different constant B's) by

$$g(x) = f(x) - Bx$$
 (x  $\epsilon$  ]0,1[),

we would have

(59) 
$$D_{+}g(x) > 0$$
,  $D_{-}g(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in ]0,1[$ .

But then g is increasing on ]0,1[ (see Lemma 1 below). Choose, however,

$$B > 3 [f(\frac{2}{3}) - f(\frac{1}{3})]$$
.

Then

$$g(\frac{1}{3}) = f(\frac{1}{3}) - \frac{1}{3}B > f(\frac{2}{3}) - \frac{2}{3}B = g(\frac{2}{3})$$
,

which is impossible if g is increasing. So  $a = \infty$  is impossible,  $\underline{a}$  is a finite (nonnegative) constant.

Now we can write (57) as

(60) 
$$D_{f(x)-a \ln x} = D_{f(x)} - \frac{a}{x} = 0 = D_{f(x)} - \frac{a}{x} = D_{f(x)-a \ln x}$$
 on ]0,1[.

But we will prove in Lemma 2 below that a function is constant on an (open) interval iff both its left and right lower Dini derivatives are 0 on that interval. With this, Theorem 3 will be proved again, because (60) will then imply (41) (see also (58)).

8. We prove now the two lemmas mentioned above.

Lemma 1. If the function g is defined on an (open real) interval I and

(59) 
$$D_{+}g(x) > 0, D_{-}g(x) > 0$$
 for all  $x \in I$ ,

then g is (strictly) increasing on I.

<u>Proof.</u> If, at a point  $x_1 \in I$ ,

$$k = D_{+}g(x_{1}) > 0$$
,

then there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

(61) 
$$\frac{g(x_1+h) - g(x_1)}{h} > \frac{k}{2} > 0 , i.e., g(x_1+h) > g(x_1) \quad if \quad 0 < h < \delta .$$

Similarly,

$$D_g(x_1) > 0$$

(62) 
$$g(x_1-h) < g(x_1) = \frac{if}{0} < h < \delta$$
.

In order to prove that g is strictly increasing we have to show, for arbitrary  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbf{I}$ , that

(63) 
$$g(x) > g(x_0)$$

whenever

$$x > x_0, x \in I$$
.

By (59) and (61), there exist  $\delta(x_0)$  such that (63) holds for all  $x \in ]x_0, x_0 + \delta[$ . Let  $x_1$  be the greatest number such that (63) hold for all  $x \in ]x_0, x_1[ \subseteq I]$ . This  $x_1$  must be the right extremity of I, because else, by (61) and (62), for all sufficiently small h

$$g(x_0) < g(x_1-h) < g(x_1) < g(x_1+h)$$

contrary to the definition of  $\mathbf{x}_1$ . This concludes the proof of Lemma 1.

Lemma 2. A function F is constant on an (open real) interval I, if and only if

$$D_{+}F(x) = D_{-}F(x) = 0 \quad \underline{\text{for all}} \quad x \in I.$$

Proof. The "only if" part is obvious. In order to prove the
"if" part, define first g by

(65) 
$$g(x) = F(x) + \varepsilon x \quad (\varepsilon > 0) \quad \text{for all} \quad x \in I.$$

For this function, by (64) and (65),

$$D_{+}g(x) = D_{-}g(x) = \varepsilon > 0$$
 for all  $x \in I$ .

Thus, by Lemma 1, g is increasing on I. Therefore  $(\varepsilon \to 0$ , cf. (65)), F is nondecreasing on I. We prove now that F, being already monotonic, is also <u>continuous</u> on I. Indeed, all discontinuities of monotonic functions are jumps, and there either D<sub>+</sub>F or D<sub>-</sub>F would be  $\infty$ , contrary to (64).

Thus F is continuous and <u>nondecreasing</u>. We conclude the proof of Lemma 2 by showing that there do not exist

(66) 
$$a \in I, b \in I, a < b \text{ such that } F(a) < F(b),$$

thus showing that F is  $\underline{\text{constant}}$  on I. Indeed, if (66) held, we would define the linear function  $\ell$  by

(67) 
$$\ell(x) = F(a) + \epsilon(x-a) \quad (\epsilon > 0) \text{ for all } x \in I.$$

We have  $\ell(a) = F(a)$  but, if  $\varepsilon$  is small enough, then  $\ell(b) = F(a) + \varepsilon$  (b-a) < F(b), by (66). The function F being continuous, there would exist a greatest  $x_1 \in [a,b[$  for which  $F(x_1) = \ell(x_1)$ , while, for all  $x \in [x_1,b]$ ,  $F(x) > \ell(x)$ . But then

(68) 
$$\frac{F(x) - F(x_1)}{x - x_1} > \frac{\ell(x) - \ell(x_1)}{x - x_1} \quad (x > x_1) \quad \text{and} \quad D_+F(x_1) \ge \ell'(x_1) = \varepsilon > 0$$

would hold, contrary to (64). Thus Lemma 2 is proved.

Remark 5) One has to be careful with plausible sounding things about Dini derivatives. For instance, the statement in Lemma 1 (that g is increasing on I) is not true, if only

(69) 
$$D_{+}g(x) > 0 \text{ on } I$$

is supposed. Counter example: I = ]0,1[

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \in ]0, \frac{1}{2}[\\ x-1, & \text{if } x \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1[ ...]] \end{cases}$$

The function g is increasing, however, if, besides (69), also the continuity of g is supposed on I. The situation is analogous for Lemma 2.

Also, in general it is not true that

$$D_{+}(F+G) = D_{+}F+D_{+}G,$$

only

$$D_{+}(F+G) \geq D_{+}F+D_{+}G$$

but, first, this would be enough for the above proofs and, second,

$$D_{+}(F+G) = D_{+}F+G'$$

if G is differentiable.

9. We return now to the <u>relationships among optimal coding</u>, entropies and Shannon-type inequalities. We have pointed out in Section 4, that Shannon's inequality establishes a connection between Shannon's entropy and optimal coding, if the optimality of coding is measured by minimizing the <u>arithmetic</u> average length (31) of a codeword. We call this average length arithmetic, because (31) is the <u>arithmetic mean</u> of the lengths  $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_N$  of codewords, <u>weighted</u> with the probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_N$ . There exist also other mean values (e.g. the geometric mean in (4)).

L. L. Campbell (1965) has suggested the use of the

(70) 
$$\frac{1}{t} \log_{D} (\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{tn}) \quad (t \neq 0; \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1; p_{k} > 0; k = 1, 2, ..., N)$$

exponential mean lengths of codewords, weighted again with the probabilities  $(\log_D$  is the logarithm with base D, of course). In order to get a result similar to Theorem 2, we use another inequality instead of the (1) Shannon inequality.

Hölder's inequality (G. H. Hardy - J. E. Littlewood - G. Polya 1934, Section 2.8) states that

(71) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} x_k y_k \ge \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} x_k^p \right)^{1/p} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} y_k^q \right)^{1/q}, \underline{if} \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \underline{and} \underline{if} p < 1, p \neq 0.$$

while

(72) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} x_k y_k \leq \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} x_k^p\right)^{1/p} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} y_k^q\right)^{1/q}, \quad \underline{if} \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1 \quad \underline{and} \quad \underline{if} \quad p > 1.$$

Here  $x_k > 0$ ,  $y_k > 0$ ; k = 1,2,...,N (later we will allow zeros among the x's and y's). There is equality in (71) and (72) iff the sequences  $\{x_k\}$ ,  $\{y_k\}$  are proportional, that is, there exists a (positive) number c such that

$$x_k^p = c y_k^q.$$

In (71), put

(74) 
$$x_k = p_k^{-1/t} p^{-n_k}, y_k = p_k^{1/t}, p = -t \text{ (and so } q = \frac{p}{p-1} = \frac{t}{t+1})$$
.

Because of p < 1,  $p \neq 0$ , we have

(75) 
$$t > -1$$
,  $t \neq 0$ .

Thus we get from (71), taking also the (32) Kraft inequality into consideration,

(76) 
$$1 \ge \sum_{k=1}^{N-n} \sum_{k=1}^{N-n} x_k y_k \ge (\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k) \sum_{k=1}^{tn_k} (\sum_{k=1}^{N-1/t} p_k)^{-1/(t+1)} (t+1)/t$$

or

$$(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} D^{k})^{1/t} \ge (\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{1/(t+1)})^{(t+1)/t}$$

(77) 
$$\frac{1}{t} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \right)^{tn} \geq \frac{t+1}{t} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{1/(t+1)} \right).$$

We have now the expression (70) on the left hand side of (77). As to the right hand side, if we introduce

(78) 
$$\alpha := \frac{1}{t+1},$$

where

$$\alpha > 0, \alpha \neq 1$$

by (75), then (77) goes over into

(80) 
$$\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \right)^{n_{k}(1-\alpha)/\alpha} \geq \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \log \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{\alpha} \right) / \log D.$$

This now is an inequality similar to (33). Indeed, the left hand side is an (exponential) mean length of codewords (cf. (70), (78)) while the quantities

(81) 
$$\alpha^{H_{N}(p_{1},p_{2},...,p_{N})} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \log \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{\alpha}\right) \quad (\alpha \neq 1; \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1; p_{k} \geq 0; k = 1,2,...,N)$$

(log again with base 2) on the right hand side of (80) are the entropies of order  $\alpha$  introduced by A. Rényi in 1960 and called Rényi entropies. We call the left hand side of (80)

(82) 
$$\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{k}} (1-\alpha)/\alpha \right), (\alpha \neq 1, \alpha \neq 0)$$

an  $\alpha$ -average length of codewords. With (81), we can write (80) as

(83) 
$$\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \right)^{n_{k}(1-\alpha)/\alpha} \ge \frac{\alpha^{H_{N}(p_{1},p_{2},\ldots,p_{N})}}{\log D}$$
,  $(\alpha > 0, \alpha \neq 1;$ 

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k = 1; p_k > 0; k = 1,2,...,N),$$

where the similarity to (33) is even easier to recognize. As a matter of fact, the following is also easy to prove. If  $\alpha \to 1$ , then (82) ((70) if  $t \to 0$ ) tends to (31), while the (81) Renyi entropy of order  $\alpha$  tends to the Shannon entropy (34). So, we have just given a new proof of Theorem 2. We had till now  $p_k > 0$ ; k = 1, 2, ..., N; but, by (79) and (80) the same remains true also if some  $p_k$ 's are zero.

We may thus call the Shannon entropy a Renyi entropy of order 1, and (31) a 1-average length of codewords. Summarizing we have proved the following.

Theorem 4. For every uniquely decipherable code, the  $\alpha$ -average length of codewords satisfies

(84) 
$$\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} D^{k} \right) \geq \frac{\alpha^{H_{N}(p_{1},p_{2},\ldots,p_{N})}}{\log_{2} D} \quad \underline{\text{whenever}} \quad \alpha > 0 ;$$

$$D \ge 2$$
,  $n_k$  integers,  $p_k \ge 0$   $(k = 1, 2, ..., N)$ ;  $\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k = 1$ ,  $\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k = 1$ ,

where  $\alpha^H_N(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N)$  is the (81) Renyi entropy if  $\alpha \neq 1$  and the (34) Shannon entropy if  $\alpha = 1$ , while the left hand side of (84) is replaced by

$$\begin{array}{c}
N \\ \Sigma \\ k=1
\end{array},$$

if  $\alpha = 1$ .

Let us see, when is equality possible in (83). Only if there is equality in both inequalities of (76). The first equality means

(85) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N-n} k = 1,$$

the second can, by (73), (74), and (78), hold iff

$$p_{k}^{n_{k}(1-\alpha)/\alpha} = c p_{k}^{\alpha-1} (k = 1, 2, ..., N),$$

i.e.,

(86) 
$$p^{-n_k} = c^{\alpha/(\alpha-1)} p_k^{\alpha} \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N) .$$

Combined with (85), we would have

$$c^{\alpha/(\alpha-1)} = 1/\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k^{\alpha}$$

and, from (86)

(87) 
$$n_{k} = -\log_{D} (p_{k}^{\alpha} / \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_{j}^{\alpha}) (k = 1, 2, ..., N; \alpha > 0).$$

This is possible only if the quantities on the right hand side of (87) are (positive) integers. In this case, every uniquely decipherable code with codeword lengths given by (87) is an optimal code in the sense that it minimizes the  $\alpha$ -average lengths of codewords. In particular, as we have seen, such optimal codes are only possible if equality holds in the Kraft inequality.

Here too, if some of the right sides of (87) are not integers, then it seems plausible that we get near to optimal codes when we choose the integers  $\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{k}}$  near to

$$-\log_{D} (p_{k}^{\alpha} / \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_{j}^{\alpha}) \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., N) .$$

In particular, we have the following (cf. L. L. Campbell 1965, J. Aczel - Z. Daroczy 1975).

Theorem 5. There exist uniquely decipherable codes for which the inequalities

(88) 
$$\frac{\alpha^{H_{N}(p_{1},p_{2},\ldots,p_{N})}}{\log_{2} D} \leq \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} D^{n_{k}(1-\alpha)/\alpha}\right) < \frac{\alpha^{H_{N}(p_{1},p_{2},\ldots,p_{N})}}{\log_{D}} + 1 \quad (\alpha > 1)$$

 $\frac{\text{hold (in the case }\alpha=1, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{N}p_{k}n_{k}}{\text{k=1}} \text{ stands in the middle).} \quad \underline{\text{We get such codes if}}$   $\underline{\text{we choose the codeword lengths }} \quad n_{k} \quad \underline{\text{as the (unique) integers satisfying}}$ 

There is equality in (the first inequality of) (88) exactly when all quantities

$$-\log_{D} (p_{k}^{\alpha} / \sum_{j=1}^{N} p_{j}^{\alpha})$$
 (k = 1,2,...,N)

## are integers, that is when there is equality in all (left) inequalities (89).

This time we <u>prove</u> (88), which is analogous to, and contains as (limiting) case  $\alpha = 1$ , the inequalities (38).

From the left inequalities of (89)

$$D^{-n}_{k} \leq \frac{p_{k}^{\alpha}}{N} \qquad (k = 1, 2, ..., N)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{p_{j}^{\alpha}} p_{j}^{\alpha}$$

follows. If we take the sums of both sides from k = 1 to k = N, we get that the

(32) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{-n} \frac{1}{k} \leq 1$$

Kraft inequality is satisfied, that is, there indeed exist uniquely decipherable codes with the codeword lengths determined by (89). We have seen in Theorems 2 and 4 that these satisfy the first inequality of (88). In order to prove that they satisfy also the second inequality (88), we introduce the notation

(90) 
$$\alpha^{M(\lbrace x_k \rbrace)} = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k \right)^{x_k (1-\alpha)/\alpha} (\alpha(\alpha-1) \neq 0)$$

 $(\alpha > 0; x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$  is arbitrary real but

$$\begin{array}{cc} N & -x_k \\ \Sigma & D & \leq 1 ; \\ k=1 \end{array}$$

in particular, (82) is  $\alpha^{M(\{n_k\})}$ . We note that the exponential mean (90)  $\alpha^{M}$  is increasing with each  $x_k$  (k = 1,2,...,N) and translatory, i.e.

Then the right inequalities in (89) imply

as asserted. It seems that we have excluded in (92) case  $\alpha$  = 1 (Shannon entropies, average lengths (31) of codewords). But, evidently, also the arithmetic mean 1<sup>M</sup> defined by

(93) 
$$1^{M(\lbrace x_k \rbrace)} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_k x_k$$

is increasing and satisfies the translativity (91). The quantity (31) is again  $1^{M(\{n_k\})}$ . Now (92) remains valid, with the appropriate changes. for  $\alpha = 1$ . The rest of Theorem 5 is obvious.

We can again get arbitrarily small  $+\epsilon$ , instead of +1, in (88) if we transmit sequences of independent messages.

10. The inequalities (84) and (83) characterize the Shannon and Renyi entropies of order α(>0). But what characterizes the α-average lengths (31) and (82) which figure in these inequalities or the arithmetic and exponential means (93) and (90)? We try to answer this question in this last Section.

We recall the proof of Theorem 5. Both (90) and (93) are quasiarithmetic means, which means that they are of the form

(94) 
$$\psi_{\mathbf{M}}(\{x_{k}\}, \{p_{k}\}) = \psi^{-1}(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \psi(x_{k})) (\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1; p_{k} > 0; k = 1, 2, ..., N; \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N-x_{k}} p_{k} = 1; p_{k} > 0; k = 1, 2, ..., N; \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1; p_{k} > 0$$

where  $\psi$  is a continuous and strictly monotonic function. For (93) and (90),

(95) 
$$\psi(x) = x$$
 or  $\psi(x) = D^{x(1-\alpha)/\alpha}$   $(\alpha \neq 0, \alpha \neq 1),$ 

respectively. Mean values of the form (94) are evidently always <u>increasing</u> in the  $x_k$ 's (k = 1, 2, ..., N). But when are they also

(96) 
$${}^{\psi}M(\{x_k+t\}, \{p_k\}) = {}^{\psi}M(\{x_k\}, \{p_k\}) + t$$

translatory (cf. (91), a property which we also needed in (92)). It is known (see e.g. J. Aczel 1966, cf. also G. H. Hardy - J. E. Littlewood - G. Pólya 1934, Section 3.3) that the only translatory (96) quasiarithmetic means are the arithmetic and exponential means (93) and (90) with  $\alpha \neq 0$ .

We have still to motivate (96) from the information theoretic point of view and also exclude  $\alpha < 0$  in (90).

Remember, that we have introduced (93) and (90) as generalizations of the  $\alpha$ -average lengths (31) and (82) of codewords. Take two independent sets of messages  $K_1, K_2, \ldots, K_L$  and  $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_N$  with the respective probabilities

 $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_L, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_N$  and codeword lengths  $l_1, l_2, \dots, l_L, n_1, n_2, \dots, n_N$  in their respective uniquely decipherable codes (same number D of symbols in both). Then there exist uniquely decipherable codes with codeword lengths  $l_k + n_m$  for coding pairs of messages  $(K_k, M_m)$   $(k = 1, 2, \dots, L; m = 1, 2, \dots, N)$ . Indeed from the Kraft inequalities (cf. (32))

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
L & -\ell_k & & N & -n \\
\Sigma & D & \leq 1 & \text{and} & \Sigma & D & \leq 1, \\
k=1 & & m=1 & & \end{array}$$

also the Kraft inequality

$$(L,N) \qquad -l_k + n \qquad \leq 1$$

$$(k,m) = (1,1)$$

follows, by multiplication. Since the messages  $K_k$ ,  $M_m$  (k = 1, 2, ..., L; m = 1, 2, ..., N) were supposed independent, the probability of the pair  $(K_k, M_m)$  will be  $p_k q_m$  (k = 1, 2, ..., L; m = 1, 2, ..., N). In analogy to (31), (82) and (94), we can introduce quasiarithmetic mean lengths of codewords by

(97) 
$$\psi_{M}(\{\ell_{k}\}, \{p_{k}\}) = \psi^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} L \\ \Sigma p_{k} & \psi(\ell_{k}) \end{bmatrix},$$

and it is quite natural to ask which of these are additive, i.e.,

(98) 
$$\psi_{M}(\{\ell_{k}+n_{m}\}, \{p_{k}q_{m}\}) = \psi_{M}(\{\ell_{k}\}, \{p_{k}\}) + \psi_{M}(\{n_{m}\}, \{q_{m}\}).$$

This means that the mean length of codewords in the code for pairs of messages should be equal to the sum of mean lengths of codeword in the codes for individual messages.

It is easy to check that the arithmetic and exponential mean codeword lengths (31) and (82) have this additive property (98), but the problem of

determining all quasiarithmetic mean lengths (97) of codewords, which are (98) additive, is still unsolved.  $\binom{*}{*}$ 

However, L. L. Campbell (1966, see also J. Aczél - Z. Daróczy 1975) has introduced noninteger codeword lengths and stated that they can be motivated also from the point of view of coding theory. (One advantage is that the lower bounds in (33) and (84) can then be actually attained.) Then (97) is defined (cf. (94)) and (98) postulated for all real (or all positive)  $k_k$ ,  $n_m$  with (32), and  $p_k > 0$ ,  $q_m > 0$  (k = 1, 2, ..., L; m = 1, 2, ..., N) with  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p_k = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} q_m = 1$ . For these, the above question is now easily solved since, under these circumstances, (96) follows from (98) if we take  $n_m = t$  (m = 1, 2, ..., N), and we have just seen that the expressions (93) and (90) (with  $\alpha \neq 0$ ) are the only quasiarithmetic means which satisfy (96). It still remains to motivate the restriction  $\alpha > 0$ .

Remember, that the inequality (84) was our primary reason for introducing  $\alpha$ -average codeword lengths. Both sides (cf. also (81)) make sense also if  $\alpha < 0$ . But the inequality does <u>not</u> hold in general, if  $\alpha < 0$ . Take, for instance,  $\alpha = -1$ ,  $p_1 = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $p_2 = \frac{2}{3}$ , D = 2,  $n_1 = n_2 = 1$  (the (32) Kraft inequality is satisfied). Then

$$\frac{-1^{\text{H}_2(\frac{1}{3},\frac{2}{3})}}{\log_2^2} = \frac{1}{2}\log_2\left[\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{-1} + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{-1}\right] = \frac{1}{2}\log_24.5 > \frac{1}{2}\log_24 = 1 =$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{3} 2^{-2} + \frac{2}{3} 2^{-2} \right) = -1^{M(\{1\})},$$

i.e., there is < instead of  $\geq$  in (84).

As a matter of fact, we have seen in (76) that the proof of (84) is based upon the (32) Kraft inequality and the (71) Hölder inequality. If there is equality in (32) and if the Hölder inequality is reversed with strict < instead of  $\geq$ , then we have in (84) < instead of  $\geq$ . The former condition is satisfied, for instance, if

 $<sup>\</sup>binom{*}{*}$  Since completion of this paper, I have solved this problem. The solutions are (31) and (82).

(99) 
$$N = D^n, n_k = n \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., D).$$

The latter condition is satisfied, see (72), if p > 1 and  $\{x_k^p\}$  is not proportional to  $\{y_k^q\}$ . That means, see (74), (78) and (99),

$$p_k \ D^{-np} = x_k^p \neq c \ y_k^q = c \ p_k^{1/(1-p)} \quad \text{i.e.} \ p_k \neq c^{(p-1)/p} \ D^{n(p-1)} \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, N) \ \text{and}$$
 that is

(100) 
$$\alpha < 0 \text{ and } (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N) \neq (\frac{1}{N}, \frac{1}{N}, \dots, \frac{1}{N})$$

So we have proved that <u>in (84)</u> < <u>stands instead of  $\geq$  if (99) and (100) hold.</u>

With aid of the functions given in (95), the Shannon and Rényi entropies (34) and (81), when divided by  $\log_2 D$  as in (33) and (83), can be written as

(101) 
$$\psi_{N}^{D}(\{p_{k}\}) = (\log_{D} \psi(1) + 1) \psi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \psi(-\log_{D} p_{k}) \right]^{1/(\log_{D} \psi(1) + 1)}$$

Summarizing, we have proved the following.

Theorem 6. The a-average generalized codeword lengths (90) and (93)

(102) 
$$\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \log_{D} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{X} D^{k} \left(\alpha-1\right)/\alpha\right) \quad (\alpha \neq 0, \alpha \neq 1), \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k}^{X} k \quad (\alpha = 1)$$

and only these are quasiarithmetic

$$\psi_{N}(\{x_{k}\}, \{p_{k}\}) = \psi^{-1}(\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} \psi(x_{k})) \quad (\sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{k} = 1, \sum_{k=1}^{N} D^{-x_{k}} \le 1;$$

$$p_k > 0, x_k = 1, 2, ..., N$$

( $\psi$  continuous and strictly monotonic) and (98) additive

$${}^{\psi}M_{LN}(\{x_k + y_m\}, \{p_k q_m\}) = {}^{\psi}M_L(\{x_k\}, \{p_k\}) + {}^{\psi}M_N(\{y_m\}, \{q_m\})$$
.

If these quasiarithmetic mean generalized codeword lengths are also bounded from below by the respective entropies (101)

$${}^{\psi}M_{N}(\{x_{k}\}, \{p_{k}\}) \geq {}^{\psi}H_{N}^{N}(\{p_{k}\})$$

for at least one  $N \geq 2$ , one (finite) probability distribution with

$$(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N) \neq (\frac{1}{N}, \frac{1}{N}, \dots, \frac{1}{N})$$

and with  $n_k = 1$  (k = 1,2,...,N), then  $\alpha > 0$  in (102).

#### References

- J. Aczel 1966, Lectures on Functional Equations and Their Applications. Academic Press, New York - London, Section 3.1.
- J. Aczel Z. Daróczy 1975. On Information Measures and Their Characterizations.
  Academic Press, New York (in press).
- J. Aczel A. M. Ostrowski 1973, On the Characterization of Shannon's Entropy by Shannon's Inequality. J. Austral. Math. Soc. 16, 368-374.
- J. Aczel J. Pfanzagl 1966, Remarks on the Measurement of Subjective Probability and Information. Metrika 11, 91-105.
- L. L. Campbell 1965, A Coding Theorem and Renyi's Entropy, Information and Control 8, 423-429.
- L. L. Campbell 1966, Definition of Entropy by Means of a Coding Problem.
  Z. Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie und Verw. Gebiete 6, 113-118.

- A. Feinstein 1958, Foundations of Information Theory. McGraw-Hill, New York Toronto London, Chapter 2.
- P. Fischer 1972, On the Inequality  $\Sigma p_i f(p_i) \ge \Sigma p_i f(q_i)$ . Metrika 18, 199-208.
- I. J. Good 1952, Rational Decisions. J. Roy. Statist. Soc. Ser. B 14, 107-114.
- G. H. Hardy J. E. Littlewood G. Pólya 1934, Inequalities. University Press, Cambridge (2nd ed. 1952).
- J. McCarthy 1956, Measures of the Value of Information. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 42, 654-655.
- A. Rényi 1960, On Measures of Entropy and Information. Proc. 4th Berkeley Sympos. Math. Statist. and Prob. 1960, Vol. I. University of California Press, Berkeley, Calif. 1961, pp.547-561.
- F. M. Reza 1961, An Introduction to Information Theory. McGraw-Hill, New York - Toronto - London, Chapter 4.

2. Determination of All Additive Quasiarithmetic

Mean Codeword Lengths

J. Aczél

## Determination of All Additive Quasiarithmetic

## Mean Codeword Lengths

## J. Aczel

1. L. L. Campbell 1966 has introduced quasiarithmetic mean codeword lengths in the following manner.

Let  $Y = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_K\}$  be a finite set of messages and let  $Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_K\}$  be an associated distribution of probabilities, so that the probability of  $n_k$  is  $q_k$   $(k = 1, 2, \dots, K)$  and

(1) 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k = 1; \ q_k \ge 0 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., K) .$$

Suppose that we wish to represent the messages in Y by <u>codewords</u>, i.e. by finite sequences of elements of the set  $\{0,1,\ldots,D-1\}$  where D>1. There is a uniquely decipherable code (see e.g. F. M. Reza 1961) which represents  $n_k$  by a codeword of length (number of elements)  $n_k$  ( $k=1,2,\ldots,K$ ) if and only if the set of <u>positive integer codeword lengths</u>  $N=\{n_1,n_2,\ldots,n_K\}$  satisfies the Kraft inequality

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} D^{-n_k} \leq 1.$$

Let now  $\phi \colon [1,\infty[ \to R] \to R]$  be a continuous strictly increasing function. It has an inverse  $\phi^{-1}$  which is also continuous and strictly increasing. This defines a quasiarithmetic mean codeword length

(3) 
$$L(Q,N;\phi) = \phi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k) \right]$$

for all N satisfying (2). The reason for calling L a mean length is that, for N =  $\{n,n,\ldots,n\}$ , i.e. when all codewords are of equal length n, then  $L(Q,N;\phi) = n$ . Moreover, if  $\phi(x) = \phi_0(x) = x$  ( $x \in [1,\infty[$ ), then

(4) 
$$L(Q,N;\phi) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k n_k$$
,

the ordinary or <u>arithmetic mean codeword length</u>. L. L. Campbell 1965, 1966 has also introduced the <u>exponential mean codeword length</u>, for which  $\phi(x) = \phi_t(x) = D^{tx}$  ( $x \in [1,\infty[; t \neq 0)$ ,

(5) 
$$L(Q,N;\phi_t) = \frac{1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k^{tn_k}$$
.

It is easy to see that  $\lim_{t\to 0} L(Q,N;\phi_t) = L(Q,N;\phi_0)$ .

Important inequalities are known for the mean codeword lengths (4) and (5) (see, e.g., F. M. Reza 1961, L. L. Campbell 1965, J. Aczél 1973 and section 4 of the present paper). These give essentially the Shannon and Rényi entropies as lower bounds of (4) and (5), respectively, and show also that there exist uniquely decipherable codes for which these mean codeword lengths come within a unit (bit) from their lower bounds. The proof of the latter facts use a translativity property of (4) and (5), the generalizations of which we will examine in section 3. The inequalities, mentioned above, can also be translated into optimal coding statements with respect to certain cost functions, related to \$\phi\$ in (3). This we will see in section 4, in modification of results by L. L. Campbell, partly published (L. L. Campbell 1965, 1966) and partly unpublished.

The question arises, why the mean codeword lengths (4) and (5) have been chosen, say, among the quasiarithmetic mean codeword lengths (3). In our main result, in section 2, we will show that the following rather natural additivity condition characterizes them.

Condider two independent sets of messages  $X = \{\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_J\}$  and  $Y = \{\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_K\}$  with associated probability distributions  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_J\}$  and  $Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_K\}$ . Since X and Y are independent, the probability of the pair  $(\xi_j, \eta_k)$  is  $p_j q_k$   $(j = 1, 2, \dots, J)$ ;  $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ ). We denote by PQ the probability distribution  $\{p_1 q_1, p_1 q_2, \dots, p_1 q_K, p_2 q_1, p_2 q_2, \dots, p_2 q_K, \dots, p_J q_1, p_J q_2, \dots, p_J q_K\}.$  Let  $\xi_j$  be represented by a codeword of length  $m_j$   $(j = 1, 2, \dots, J)$  and let  $\eta_k$  be represented by a codeword of length  $n_k$   $(k = 1, 2, \dots, K)$ . Moreover, suppose that we use the same symbols  $\{0, 1, \dots, D-1\}$  in all these representations. The pair  $(\xi_j, \eta_k)$  may be represented by a codeword of length  $m_j + n_k$   $(j = 1, 2, \dots, J; k = 1, 2, \dots, K)$ . Let us denote these three distributions of lengths by  $M = \{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_J\}$ ,  $N = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_K\}$  and

 $\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{N} = \{\mathbf{m}_1 + \mathbf{n}_1, \mathbf{m}_1 + \mathbf{n}_2, \dots, \mathbf{m}_1 + \mathbf{n}_K, \mathbf{m}_2 + \mathbf{n}_1, \mathbf{m}_2 + \mathbf{n}_2, \dots, \mathbf{m}_2 + \mathbf{n}_K, \dots, \mathbf{m}_J + \mathbf{n}_1, \mathbf{m}_J + \mathbf{n}_2, \dots, \mathbf{m}_J + \mathbf{n}_K \}$  respectively. If M and N satisfy the Kraft inequality (2) then so does  $\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{N}$  because

(6) 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{J-m} j \leq 1 \text{ and } \sum_{k=1}^{K-n} k \leq 1$$

imply

$$\sum_{j=1}^{J} \sum_{k=1}^{K} D^{-(m_{j}+n_{k})} \leq 1.$$

Thus there exists indeed a uniquely decipherable code with M + N as set of codeword lengths for XY =  $\{\xi_1^{\eta_1}, \xi_1^{\eta_2}, \dots, \xi_1^{\eta_K}, \xi_2^{\eta_K}, \xi_2^{\eta_2}, \dots, \xi_J^{\eta_K}, \dots, \xi_J^{\eta_1}, \xi_J^{\eta_2}, \dots, \xi_J^{\eta_K}\}$ .

If L is to be a measure of mean <u>lengths</u>, it is natural to require that

(7) 
$$L(PQ,M+N;\phi) = L(P,M;\phi) + L(Q,N;\phi)$$
,

i.e.,

(8) 
$$\phi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{J} \sum_{k=1}^{K} p_{j} q_{k} \phi(m_{j} + n_{k}) \right] = \phi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{J} p_{j} \phi(m_{j}) \right] + \phi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{k} \phi(n_{k}) \right].$$

We call the properties (7) or (8) additivity. They are supposed for all positive integers  $m_j$  and  $n_k$  satisfying (6) and for all  $p_j, q_k$  (j = 1,2,...,J; k = 1,2,...,K) satisfying (1) and

(9) 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{J} p_{j} = 1; p_{j} \ge 0 \quad (j = 1, 2, ..., J).$$

The problem of finding all additive (7), quasiarithmetic (3) mean codeword lengths has not been solved before (cf. L. L. Campbell 1966, J. Aczél 1973). Instead, L. L. Campbell 1966, has generalized the codeword lengths  $n_k$  (k = 1, 2, ..., K) so that they become arbitrary <u>real</u> numbers satisfying (2), and has solved (8) in this case. In this paper <u>we solve</u> the original problem, with positive integer codeword lengths. We restrict ourselves to J = K = 2, thus making the result more general. This has also the advantage that, because of  $D \ge 2$ ,  $m_1 \ge 1$ ,  $m_2 \ge 1$ ,  $m_1 \ge 1$ ,  $m_2 \ge 1$ , (6) is always satisfied.

2. Theorem 1. The arithmetic and the exponential mean codeword lengths (4) and (5) are the only quasiarithmetic mean codeword lengths (3) which are additive (7) with J = K = 2 (for two-place distributions).

Proof. For J = K = 2, (7) or (8) can be written as

$$\begin{array}{lll} & \phi^{-1}[p_1q_1\phi(m_1+n_1) + p_1q_2\phi(m_1+n_2) + p_2q_1\phi(m_2+n_1) + p_2q_2\phi(m_2+n_2)] = \\ \\ & = \phi^{-1}[p_1\phi(m_1) + p_2\phi(m_2)] + \phi^{-1}[q_1\phi(n_1) + q_2\phi(n_2)] \end{array}$$

where

(11) 
$$p_1 \ge 0$$
,  $p_2 \ge 0$ ,  $p_1 + p_2 = 1$ ,  $q_1 \ge 0$ ,  $q_2 \ge 0$ ,  $q_1 + q_2 = 1$ ,  $m_1, m_2, m_1, m_2$  are positive integers.

Put into (10)  $m_1 = m_2 = m$ ,  $q_1 = 1-q$ ,  $q_2 = q$ , in order to get

(12) 
$$\phi^{-1}[(1-q)\phi(n_1+m) + q\phi(n_2+m)] = \phi^{-1}[(1-q)\phi(n_1) + q\phi(n_2)] + m$$
for all

(13) 
$$q \in [0,1]; n_1, n_2, m$$
 positive integers.

We need the following

Lemma. Let  $\phi$ ,  $\psi$  be continuous, strictly increasing functions defined on [1, $\infty$ [. The equation

(14) 
$$\phi^{-1}[(1-q)\phi(n_1) + q\phi(n_2)] = \psi^{-1}[(1-q)\psi(n_1) + q\psi(n_2)]$$

holds for

(15) 
$$n_1 = 1, n_2 \text{ arbitrary integer greater than 1,}$$
  $q \in [0,1]$  arbitrary, if and only if there exist constants  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $\beta$  such that

(16) 
$$\psi(x) = \alpha \phi(x) + \beta \quad \underline{\text{for all}} \quad x \in [1, \infty[.$$

Proof of the Lemma. The "if" part is obvious. In order to prove the "only if" part, put into (14)  $n_1 = 1$ ,  $n_2 > 1$ . Denote  $a_1 = \phi(n_1) = \phi(1), \ a_2 = \phi(n_2) - \phi(n_1) > 0, \ b_1 = \psi(n_1) = \psi(1), \ b_2 = \psi(n_2) - \psi(n_1) > 0$ 

Then (14) goes over into

(17) 
$$\phi^{-1}(a_2q+a_1) = \psi^{-1}(b_2q+b_1) \quad (q \in [0,1]).$$

Now denote

$$y = b_2 q + b_1$$

and notice (cf. (15)) that y runs through  $[\psi(1), \lim_{n\to\infty} \psi(n)]$  when  $q \in [0,1]$ ,  $n\to\infty$   $n_2 = 2,3,\dots \quad (\psi, \text{ being increasing, has a finite or infinite limit as } n\to\infty).$ So (17) goes over into

$$\psi^{-1}(y) = \phi^{-1}(A_2y + A_1) (A_2 > 0)$$

or

(16) 
$$\psi(x) = \alpha \phi(x) + \beta \quad \text{for all} \quad x \in [1, \infty[$$

where  $\alpha = 1/A_2 = b_2/a_2 > 0$ , q.e.d.

Continuation of the proof of Theorem 1. Denote

$$\psi_{m}(x) = \phi(x+m)$$
 (x \in [1,\in [; m = 1,2,...).

Then (12) goes over into

$$\phi^{-1}[(1-q)\phi(n_1) + q\phi(n_2)] = \psi_m^{-1}[(1-q)\psi_m(n_1) + q\psi_m(n_2)]$$

for all

 $q \in [0,1]; n_1, n_2$  arbitrary integers.

Thus, by the Lemma (the "constants"  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  in (16) will now depend upon m)

(18) 
$$\phi(x+m) = \psi_m(x) = \alpha(m)\phi(x) + \beta(m) \quad (x \in [1,\infty[; m = 1,2,...)].$$

We distinguish two cases:

(i)  $\alpha(m) \neq 1$ . Put then into (18)  $x = n \ (n = 1, 2, ...)$ , in order to get

(19) 
$$\phi(m+n) = \phi(n) + \beta(m)$$
 for all  $m, n = 1, 2, ...$ 

Since the left hand side of (19) is symmetric in m and n, the right hand side has to be symmetric too.

$$\phi(n) + \beta(m) = \phi(m) + \beta(n)$$

and thus (put a constant for n) we have

$$\beta(m) = \phi(m) + c$$
 for all  $m = 1, 2, ...$ 

This transforms (18) into

(20) 
$$\phi(x+m) = \phi(x) + \phi(m) + c \quad (x \in [1,\infty[, m = 1,2,...)].$$

(ii) If there exists an  $\,n_0^{}\,$  such that  $\,\alpha(n_0^{})\,\neq 1,$  then we derive from (18)

$$\phi(x+m+n) = \alpha(n)\phi(x+m) + \beta(n) = \alpha(m)\alpha(n)\phi(x) + \alpha(n)\beta(m) + \beta(n).$$

The left hand side is again symmetric in  $\, m \,$  and  $\, n \,$ , so the right hand side has to be symmetric too,

$$\alpha(n)\beta(m) + \beta(n) = \alpha(m)\beta(n) + \beta(m)$$

or, with  $n = n_0$  ( $\alpha(n_0) \neq 1$ ), we have

$$\beta(m) = B[\alpha(m) - 1].$$

Putting this into (18) we get

$$\phi(x+m) = \alpha(m)[\phi(x) + B] - B$$

or, with x = n (n = 1, 2, ...) and again by symmetry,

(22) 
$$\phi(m+n) + B = \alpha(m)[\phi(n) + B] = \alpha(n)[\phi(m) + B].$$

By supposition,  $\phi$  is strictly increasing, thus  $\phi(n) \not\equiv -B$  and therefore (substitute into (22)  $n = n_1$  with  $\phi(n_1) \not\equiv -B$ )

$$\alpha(m) = a[\phi(m) + B].$$

Putting this into (21), we finally get

(23) 
$$\phi(x+m) = a\phi(x)\phi(m) + aB\phi(x) + aB\phi(m) + aB^2 - B.$$

Both (20) and (23) are of the form

(24) 
$$\phi(x+m) = a\phi(x)\phi(m) + b\phi(x) + b\phi(m) + c$$

with

(25) 
$$a = 0, b = 1$$
 in the case (i),

and (since  $\phi$  is not constant on  $[2,\infty[)$ 

(26) 
$$a \neq 0, b = aB, c = aB^2 - B$$
 in the case (ii).

So (10) goes over into

(27) 
$$\phi^{-1}(a[p_1\phi(m_1) + p_2\phi(m_2)][q_1\phi(n_1) + q_2\phi(n_2)] + b[p_1\phi(m_1) + p_2\phi(m_2)] +$$

$$+ b[q_1\phi(n_1) + q_2\phi(n_2)] + c) = \phi^{-1}[p_1\phi(m_1) + p_2\phi(m_2)] + \phi^{-1}[q_1\phi(n_1) + q_2\phi(n_2)]$$

with the variables restricted only by (11). If  $m_1 = n_1 = 1$  and  $m_2, n_2 = 2, 3, ...$ , then, as  $p_2$  and  $q_2$  run through [0,1],

$$u = p_1 \phi(m_1) + p_2 \phi(m_2), \quad v = q_1 \phi(n_1) + q_2 \phi(n_2)$$

assume all values in  $\left[\phi(1)\,,\,\, \mbox{lim}\,\, \phi(n)\right[$  ( $\phi$  being increasing, the finite or  $n\!\!\to\!\!\infty$ 

infinite limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \phi(n)$  exists). Therefore (27) goes over into

 $\phi^{-1}(auv+bu+bv+c) = \phi^{-1}(u) + \phi^{-1}(v) \quad \text{for all} \quad u, \ v \in [\phi(1), \ \lim_{n \to \infty} \phi(n)[$  and, with  $x = \phi^{-1}(u), \ y = \phi^{-1}(v),$ 

(28) 
$$\phi(x+y) = a\phi(x)\phi(y) + b\phi(x) + b\phi(y) + c \text{ for all } x, y \in [1,\infty[$$

For the constants in (28) we have one of the two cases (25) or (26). In the case (25), we get that f defined by

(29) 
$$f(x) = \phi(x) + c \quad (x \in [1, \infty[)$$

satisfies the functional equation

(30) 
$$f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y)$$
 for all  $x, y \in [1,\infty[$ .

With  $\phi$  also f is increasing, and so, by J. Aczel 1966 and J. Aczel - J. A. Baker - D. Ž. Djoković - Pl. Kannappan - F. Rado' 1971,  $f(x) = \gamma x$  ( $\gamma > 0$ ) and

(31) 
$$\phi(x) = \gamma x + \delta \quad (\gamma > 0) \quad \text{for all} \quad x \in [1, \infty[$$

In the case (26), we get that g defined by

(32) 
$$g(x) = a[\phi(x) + B] \quad (x \in [1,\infty[; a \neq 0)$$

 $[g(m) = \alpha(m); m = 1,2,...]$  satisfies

(33) 
$$g(x+y) = g(x)g(y) \text{ for all } x, y \in [1,\infty[$$

From (32) we see that g is strictly monotonic. On the other hand, as (33) shows, if there were an  $\mathbf{x}_0$  for which  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_0) = 0$  then  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{y}) = 0$  for all  $\mathbf{y} \in [1,\infty[$  which would contradict the strict monotonicity of g. Thus g is (strictly monotonic and) nowhere zero and, according to the above references,

$$g(x) = D^{tx}$$
 (t \neq 0) for all  $x \in [1,\infty[$ 

and

(34) 
$$\phi(x) = \gamma D^{tx} + \delta \quad (\gamma t > 0) \quad \text{for all } x \in [1, \infty[$$

Putting (31) or (34) into (3) we get (4) and (5), respectively, and this concludes the proof of our Theorem 1.

On the other hand, the functions given by (31) and (34) satisfy (8) for all J > 1, K > 1 [and all  $m_j, n_k, p_j, q_k$  (j = 1, 2, ..., J; k = 1, 2, ..., K) satisfying (6), (9) and (1)], thus the arithmetic and exponential means (4) and (5) are always additive (7).

3. The property (12) or its generalization, both called translativity,

(35) 
$$\phi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k + m) \right] = \phi^{-1} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k) \right] + m$$

whenever (1) and (2) are satisfied, is quite important in itself. It serves (cf. J. Aczél 1973) to prove certain uniqueness properties of the so called Shannon and Rényi entropies which are the lower bounds of our mean codeword lengths (4) and (5). We will come back to this later briefly. On the other hand, after allowing non-integer codeword lengths, L. L. Campbell 1966 has deduced (31) and (34) from the (12) translativity alone. Thus,

in the case of those generalized codeword lengths, the (12) translativity and the (8) additivity are equivalent. This is not so anymore for the proper positive integer codeword lengths, not even (35) implies (8) or (10) [of course, (8) does imply (35)]. We will give, however, the general solution of the (12) translativity equation and we will show that (35) and (12) are equivalent.

If we have (12) for (13), then we can proceed, as in the proof of Theorem 1, till (24) with (25) or (26). From (24) we get then

(36) 
$$\phi^{-1}(auv_m + bu + bv_m + c) = \phi^{-1}(u) + \phi^{-1}(v_m)$$
 for all  $u \in [\phi(1), \lim_{n \to \infty} \phi(n)]$ ,

but only for all  $v_m = \phi(m)$ , m = 1,2,...

However, (24) and (36) imply (35):

$$\phi^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k + m) \end{bmatrix} = \phi^{-1} [a\phi(m) \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k) + b \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k) + b \phi(m) + c] =$$

$$= \phi^{-1} [\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k)] + m .$$

Thus (12) indeed implies (35) and, since (12) is the special case K = 2 of (35), the equivalence of these two equations is established.

In order to solve (35) or (12) or, equivalently, (24) in the cases (25) and (26), introduce again the functions f and g defined by (29) and (32), respectively. They will satisfy now the functional equations

(37) 
$$f(x+m) = f(x) + f(m) \quad (x \in [1,\infty[; m = 1,2,...)$$

and

(38) 
$$g(x+m) = g(x)g(m) \quad (x \in [1,\infty[; m = 1,2,...)],$$

respectively. Again  $\phi$  and thus g can be strictly monotonic only if g is nowhere 0 [g(x<sub>0</sub>) = 0 would imply g(x<sub>0</sub>+m) = 0 for all m = 1,2,...].

It is easy to construct the general continuous strictly increasing solution of (37):

(39) 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \text{arbitrary continuous increasing on [1,2] but with } f(2) = 2f(1), \\ \\ f(x-k) + kf(1) \text{ for } x \in ]k+1, k+2] \text{ } (k = 1,2,...) \end{cases}$$

and the general continuous strictly monotonic (increasing, if a > 0, decreasing if a < 0) solution of (38)

(40) 
$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \text{arbitrary strictly monotonic continuous on [1,2] but with} \\ g(2) = g(1)^2, \\ g(x-k)g(1)^k \text{ for } x \in ]k+1, k+2] \quad (k = 1,2,...) \end{cases}$$

So we have proved the following (the "if" part is easily checked).

Theorem 2. The translativity equations (12) and (35) are equivalent.

A function  $\phi$  is continuous, strictly increasing and satisfies (12) or (35)

if and only if

$$\phi(x) = f(x) - c \qquad (x \in [1,\infty[)$$

or

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{a} g(x) - B \quad (x \in [1,\infty[)$$

where  $a \neq 0$ , B, c are constants and f and g are given by (39) and (40) (g increasing if a > 0 and decreasing if a < 0).

4. It is well known (F. M. Reza 1961, L. L. Campbell 1965, 1966, J. Aczél 1973) that for all Q and N satisfying (1) and (2), respectively,

(41) 
$$L(Q,N;\phi_0) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k n_k \ge -\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \log_D q_k, \quad (0 \log 0 : = 0)$$

and, for t > -1,  $t \neq 0$ ,

(42) 
$$L(Q,N;\phi_t) = \frac{1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^K q_k D^{tn_k} \ge \frac{t+1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^K q_k^{1/(t+1)}, \quad (0^{\alpha} : = 0).$$

The right hand side of (41) is the <u>Shannon entropy</u> while on the right hand side of (42) <u>Renyi</u> entropies [of order 1/(t+1)] stand.

One advantage of allowing non-integer codeword lengths is (L. L. Campbell 1966), that the lower bounds at the right hand sides of (41) and (42) are actually attained. But even if we restrict ourselves to integer codeword lengths, it is easy to prove (F. M. Reza 1961, L. L. Campbell 1965, J. Aczel 1973) that

(43) 
$$L(Q,N^*;\phi_0) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k n_k^* < -\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \log_D q_k + 1$$

if

(44) 
$$- \log_{D} q_{k} \leq n_{k}^{*} < -\log_{D} q_{k} + 1 \quad (k = 1, 2, ..., K)$$

and, for all  $t \neq -1$ ,  $t \neq 0$ ,

(45) 
$$L(Q,N^*;\phi_t) = \frac{1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^K q_k^{D} \sum_{k=1}^{t} q_k^{D} + \frac{t+1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^K q_k^{1/(t+1)} + 1,$$

if

$$(46) - \log_{D}(q_{k}^{1/(t+1)} / \sum_{i=1}^{K} q_{i}^{1/(t+1)}) \leq n_{k}^{*} < -\log_{D}(q_{k}^{1/(t+1)} / \sum_{i=1}^{K} q_{i}^{1/(t+1)}) + 1$$

$$(k = 1, 2, ..., K).$$

We can get these from the transitivity of (4) and (5).

As to t = -1, it is easy to show that

(47) 
$$\lim_{t \to -1} \left( \frac{t+1}{t} \log_{D} \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{k}^{1/(t+1)} \right) = -\log_{D} \max \left( q_{1}, q_{2}, \dots, q_{K} \right).$$

(Thus the right hand side of (47) is the <u>Rényi entropy of order</u>  $\infty$ .) So, by going over to the limit  $t \rightarrow -1$  in (42), we get

$$L(Q,N;\phi_{-1}) = -\log_{D} \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{k}^{-n} \geq -\log_{D} \max (q_{1},q_{2},...,q_{K}).$$

More generally, L. L. Campbell has recently proved (communication by correspondence) that for all  $t \le -1$ 

(48) 
$$L(Q,N;\phi_t) = \frac{1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^K q_k D^{tn_k} \ge \frac{1}{t} \log_D \max (q_1,q_2,...,q_K)$$

while (again for  $t \le -1$ )

(49) 
$$L(Q,N^*;\phi_t) = \frac{1}{t} \log_D \sum_{k=1}^K q_k^{D}^{tn^*} < \frac{1}{t} \log_D \max (q_1,q_2,...,q_K) + 1$$

if

(50) 
$$n_{k_0}^* = 1, n_k^* \ge \log_D \frac{D-1}{D(K-1)} (k \ne k_0) \text{ where } q_{k_0} = \max (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_K)$$
.

(All these  $\{n_1^*, n_2^*, \dots, n_k^*\}$  do also satisfy (2).)

On the right hand sides of (43), (45) and (49), + 1 can be replaced by <u>arbitrarily small</u> +  $\varepsilon$  > 0 if we encode <u>sequences of</u> independent messages consecutively.

The minimum or lower bound properties (41), (42) and (48) give interest to the following interpretation of quasiarithmetic mean codeword lengths, cf. L. L. Campbell 1966. The function  $\phi$  in (3) can be understood as cost function,  $\phi$ (n) being the cost of using a codeword

of length n. It is reasonable to suppose that  $\phi$  is (strictly) increasing on the set of positive integers and then it can always be extended to a function strictly increasing and continuous on  $[1,\infty[$ . This is suitable because then  $\phi^{-1}$  can be applied on more than a denumerable set.

Now the <u>average cost</u> of encoding the messages  $Y = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k\}$  (probability distribution  $Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k\}$ ) by a distribution  $N = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k\}$  of codeword lengths is

$$C = \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \phi(n_k) .$$

A coding problem of some interest is to minimize the cost C by an appropriate choice of the distribution N, subject to the costraint (2). Since  $L(Q,N;\phi)=\phi^{-1}(C)$  and  $\phi^{-1}$  is (continuous and) strictly increasing, an equivalent problem is to minimize the mean codeword length  $L(Q,N;\phi)$ .

There are multiplicative and additive constants contained in the cost functions as given by (31) and (34). (They do not influence the mean codeword lengths (4) and (5).) For calculating the average costs it may be advisable to <u>normalize</u> them. A possible normalization would assign unit cost to encoding a codeword of length 1 and zero cost in the (idealized) case of a codeword of length 0. Then we still have

(51) 
$$\phi_0(n) = n \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, ...)$$

but, instead of  $\phi_{\uparrow}$ , we have

(52) 
$$\phi_{t}^{(n)} = \frac{D^{tn} - 1}{D^{t} - 1} \quad (t \neq 0; n = 0, 1, 2, ...)$$

(One of the advantages is that  $\phi_0 = \lim_{t\to 0} \phi_t$  while  $\phi_0 \neq \lim_{t\to 0} \phi_t$ .) The inequalities (41), (42) and (48) show that the average costs cannot be less than

(53) 
$$-\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_k \log_{D} q_k$$
 (0 log 0: = 0) for t = 0,

and

(55) 
$$\frac{1 - \max (q_1, q_2, ..., q_K)}{1 - D^t} \quad \text{for} \quad t \le -1,$$

whenever the cost functions are  $\boldsymbol{\varphi}$  , given by

$$\phi_0(x) = x \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_t(x) = \frac{D^{tx} - 1}{D^t - 1} \quad \text{for} \quad t \neq 0 \quad (x \in [1, \infty[)$$

[cf. (51), (52)] which, by Theorem 1 and the above, are the normalized forms of the cost functions in all cases of additive mean codeword lengths (8).

The inequalities (44), (46) and (50) show with what N we get near to the lower bounds (53), (54), and (55) of the average costs, respectively.

## References

- Aczél, J. 1966: Lectures on Functional Equations and Their Applications.

  Academic Press, New York London.
- Aczél, J. 1973: On Shannon's Inequality, Optimal Coding, and Characterizations of Shannon's and Rényi's Entropies. To be published in Symposia Mathematica, Ist. Naz. Alta Mat., Roma, Academic Press, New York.
- Aczél, J., Baker, J. A., Djoković, D. Z., Kannappan, Pl., Radó, F. 1971:

  Extensions of Certain Homomorphisms of Subsemigroups to

  Homomorphisms of Groups. Aequationes Math. 6, 263-271.
- Campbell, L. L. 1965: A Coding Theorem and Rényi's Entropy. Information and Control 8, 423-429.
- Campbell, L. L. 1966: Definition of Entropy by Means of a Coding Problem.

  Z. Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie und Verw. Gebiete 6, 113-118.
- Reza, F. M. 1961: An Introduction to Information Theory. New York Toronto London: McGraw-Hill.