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What Is a Natural Probability Distribution on the Class of All Continuous Functions: Maximum Entropy Approach Leads to Wiener Measure

Vladik Kreinovich and Saeid Tizpaz-Niari

Abstract While many data processing techniques assume that we know the probability distributions, in practice, we often only have a partial information about these probabilities – so that several different distributions are consistent with our knowledge. Thus, to apply these data processing techniques, we need to select one of the possible probability distributions. There is a reasonable approach for such selection – the Maximum Entropy approach. This approach selects a uniform distribution if all we know is that the random variable if located in an interval; it selects a normal distribution if all we know is the mean and the variance. In this paper, we show that the Maximum Entropy approach can also be applied if what we do not know is a continuous function. It turns out that among all probability distributions on the class of such functions, this approach selects the Wiener measure – the probability distribution corresponding to Brownian motion.

1 Formulation of the Problem

Need to select a probability distribution under uncertainty. Usually, we do not have full knowledge of the situation, we only have a partial knowledge – so that several different states of the studied system are possible.

Usual data processing techniques assume that we know the probabilities of different states – i.e., in mathematical terms, that we know the probability distribution of the set of possible states; see, e.g., [6, 7]. However, in practice, we often do not have full knowledge of these probabilities – i.e., there are several probability distributions consistent with our knowledge. For example, often, for some quantities \( x \), we only know the interval of possible values \([x, \bar{x}]\) – but we do not have any information about the probabilities of different values from this interval; see, e.g., [1, 3, 4, 6]. To
apply the usual data processing technique to such situations, we need to select one of the possible probability distributions.

**How can we make such a selection: Maximum Entropy approach.** If all we know is the interval of possible values, then, since there is no reason to assume that some values are more probable than other, it is reasonable to select a distribution in which all these values are equally probable – i.e., the uniform distribution on this interval. This idea goes back to Laplace and is therefore known as *Laplace Indeterminacy Principle*; see, e.g., [2].

More generally, a natural idea is not to introduce certainty where there is none. For example, if all we know is that the actual value of the quantity $x$ is located on the interval $[\bar{x}, \tilde{x}]$, then one of the possible probability distributions is when $x$ is equal to $\bar{x}$ with probability 1. However, if we select this distribution as a representation of the original interval uncertainty, we would thus introduce certainty where there is none.

To describe this idea in precise terms, we need to formally describe what we mean by certainty. A natural measure of uncertainty is the number of binary (“yes”-“no”) questions that we need to ask to determine the exact value of the desired quantity – or, alternatively, to determine this value with some given accuracy $\varepsilon > 0$. It is known that this number of questions can be gauged by Shannon’s entropy

$$S = - \int \rho(x) \cdot \ln(\rho(x)) \, dx,$$

where $\rho(x)$ is the probability density; see, e.g., [2, 5]. In these terms, the requirement not to add certainty – i.e., equivalently, not to decrease uncertainty – means that we should not select a distribution if there is another possible distribution with higher uncertainty. In other words, out of all possible distributions, we should select the one for which the entropy attains its maximal value. This idea is known as the *Maximum Entropy approach*; see, e.g., [2].

**Successes of the Maximum Entropy approach.** The Maximum Entropy approach has many successful applications. Let us give a few examples:

- If all we know about a quantity $x$ is that its value is located somewhere in the interval $[\bar{x}, \tilde{x}]$, and we have no information about the probabilities of different values within this interval, then the Maximum Entropy approach leads to the uniform distribution on this interval – in full accordance with the Laplace Indeterminacy Principle.

- If we know the probability distributions of two quantities $x$ and $y$, but we do not have any information about the possible correlation between these two quantity – could be positive, could be negative – the Maximum Entropy approach leads to the conclusion that the variables $x$ and $y$ are independent. This is also in good accordance with common sense: if we have no information about the dependence between the two quantities, it makes sense to assume that they are independent.

- Finally, if all we know is the mean and standard deviation of a random variable, then out of all possible distributions with these two values, the Maximum Entropy approach selects the Gaussian (normal) distribution. This selection also makes
perfect sense: indeed, in most practical situations, there are many different factors contributing to randomness, and it is known that under reasonable conditions, the joint effect of many factors leads to the normal distribution; the corresponding mathematical result is known as the Central Limit Theorem; see, e.g., [7].

**Remaining challenge.** Usually, the Maximum Entropy approach is applied to situations when the state of the system is described by finitely many quantities $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(n)}$, and the question is to select a probability distribution on the set of all possible tuples $x = (x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots, x^{(n)})$.

In some practical situations, however, what is not fully known is also a function – e.g., the function that describes how the system’s output is related to the system’s input. In most cases, this dependence is continuous – small changes in $x$ cause small changes in $y = f(x)$. In such situations, often, we know a class of possible functions $f(x)$, but we do not have a full information about the probabilities of different functions from this class (and in many cases, we have no information at all about these probabilities). In such cases, several different probability distributions on the class of all continuous functions are consistent with our knowledge. It is desirable to select a single probability distribution from this class.

How can we do it?

**What we do in this paper.** In this paper, we show that the Maximum Entropy approach can help to solve this challenge: namely, this approach leads to the selection of the Wiener measure, a probability distribution that describes the Brownian motion. In this distribution:

- the joint distribution of any combination of values $f(x), f(y), \ldots$, is Gaussian, and
- for some constant $C > 0$, we have $E[f(x)] = 0$ and $E[(f(x) - f(y))^2] = C \cdot |x - y|$ for all $x$ and $y$ (where $E[\cdot]$, as usual, means the expected value).

## 2 Main Result

**From the practical viewpoint, all the values are discrete.** From the purely mathematical viewpoint, there are infinitely many real numbers and thus, there are infinitely many possible values of the input quantity $x$. However, from the practical viewpoint, if we take into account that at each moment of time, there is a limit $\varepsilon > 0$ on the accuracy with which we can measures $x$. As a result, we have a discrete set of distinguishable values of the quantity $x$: e.g., the values $x_0 = 0, x_1 = x_0 + \varepsilon = \varepsilon, x_2 = x_1 + \varepsilon = 2\varepsilon$, and, in general, $x_k = k \cdot \varepsilon$.

In this description, to describe a function $y = f(x)$ means to describe its values $y_k = f(x_k)$ on these values $x_k$.

**Comment.** The actual values of $x$ correspond to the limit when our measurements become more and more accurate, i.e., when $\varepsilon$ tends to 0.
**In these terms, what does continuity mean?** In the discretized description, the continuity of the dependence \( y = f(x) \) means that, in effect, that the values \( y_{k-1} \) and \( y_k \) corresponding to close values of \( x \) cannot differ by more than some small constant \( \delta \), i.e., \( |\Delta_k| \leq \delta \), where we denoted \( \Delta_k \equiv y_k - y_{k-1} \). Thus, to describe a probability distribution on the class of all continuous functions means describing a probability distribution on the set of all the tuples \( y = (y_0, y_1, \ldots) \).

**Now, we are ready to apply the Maximum Entropy approach.** Once know the value \( y_0 \)-e.g., we know that \( y_0 = 0 \)— and we know the differences \( \Delta_k \), we can easily reconstruct the values \( y_k \):

\[
y_k = y_0 + \Delta_1 + \Delta_2 + \ldots + \Delta_k.
\]

(1)

So, to describe the probability distribution on the set of all possible tuples, it is sufficient to describe the distribution on the set of all possible tuples of differences \( \Delta = (\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \ldots) \).

To find this distribution, let us apply the Maximum Entropy approach. In our description, the only thing that we know about the values \( \Delta_k \) is that each of these values is located somewhere in the interval \([-\delta, \delta]\). Thus, as we have mentioned earlier, the Maximum Entropy approach implies:

- that each difference \( \Delta_k \) is uniformly distributed on this interval, and
- that the differences \( \Delta_k \) and \( \Delta_\ell \) corresponding to \( k \neq \ell \) are independent.

**This indeed leads to the Wiener measure.** For each variable \( \Delta_k \), its mean is 0, and its variance is equal to \( \delta^2 / 3 \). For the sum of independent random variables, the mean is equal to the sum of the means, and the variance is equal to the sum of the variances. Thus, we conclude that for each quantity \( y_k \), its mean and variance \( V[y_k] \) are equal to:

\[
E[y_k] = 0, \quad V[y_k] = k \cdot \frac{\delta^2}{3}.
\]

(2)

Let us reformulate this expression in terms of the values \( f(x) \). The value \( y_k \) denotes \( f(x) \) for \( x = k \cdot \varepsilon \), so

\[
k = \frac{x}{\varepsilon}
\]

and thus, the formula (2) implies that

\[
E[f(x)] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad V[f(x)] = C \cdot x,
\]

(3)

where we denoted

\[
C \equiv \delta^2 \cdot \frac{3}{\varepsilon^2}.
\]

Similarly, for the difference

\[
y_k - y_\ell = \Delta_{k+1} + \Delta_{k+2} + \ldots + \Delta_\ell,
\]

we conclude that
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\[ E[(y_k - y_\ell)^2] = |\ell - k| \cdot \frac{\delta^2}{3}, \]

and thus, that for every two values \( x \) and \( y \), we have

\[ E[(f(x) - f(y))^2] = C \cdot |x - y|. \tag{4} \]

The formulas (3) and (4) are exactly the formulas for the Wiener measure. To complete our conclusion, we need to show that the probability distribution of each value \( f(x) \) – as well as a joint distribution of values \( f(x), f(y) \), etc. – is Gaussian.

Indeed, according to the formula (1), each value \( f(x) = y_k \) is the sum of \( k = x/\varepsilon \) independent random variables \( \Delta_k \). As our measurements become more and more accurate, i.e., as \( \varepsilon \) tends to 0, the number of such terms tends to infinity, and thus, according to the above-mentioned Central Limit Theorem, the distribution of \( f(x) \) tends to Gaussian. Similarly, we can show that the joint distribution of several values \( f(x), f(y), \ldots \), is also Gaussian.

So, we can indeed conclude that the selected probability distribution on the set of all continuous functions is the Wiener measure.

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