# 03. Boltzmann Entropy, Gibbs Entropy, Shannon Information.

# I. Entropy in Statistical Mechanics.

- <u>Goal</u>: To explain the behavior of macroscopic systems in terms of the dynamical laws governing their microscopic consituents.
  - <u>In particular</u>: To provide a micro-dynamical explanation of the 2nd Law.
- 1. Boltzmann's Approach.
- Consider different "macrostates" of a gas:









• Why does the gas prefer to be in the equilibrium macrostate (last one)?





Ludwig Boltzmann (1844-1906)

• Suppose the gas consists of *N identical* particles governed by Hamilton's equations of motion (the micro-dynamics).

**Def. 1.** A microstate X of a gas is a specification of the position (3 values) and momentum (3 values) for each of its N particles.

Let  $\Omega = phase \ space = 6N$ -dim space of all possible microstates.

Let  $\Omega_E$  = region of  $\Omega$  that consists of all microstates with constant energy E.

Hamiltonian dynamics maps initial microstate  $X_i$  to final microstate  $X_f$ .

Can 2nd Law be explained by recourse to this dynamics?



- **Def. 2.** A macrostate  $\Gamma$  of a gas is a specification of the gas in terms of macroscopic properties (pressure, temperature, volume, *etc.*).
- <u>Relation between microstates and macrostates:</u>

Macrostates supervene on microstates!



- To each microstate there corresponds exactly one macrostate.
- Many distinct microstates can correspond to the same macrostate.
- <u>So</u>:  $\Omega_E$  is partitioned into a finite number of regions corresponding to macrostates, with each microstate X belonging to one macrostate  $\Gamma(X)$ .



<u>Boltzmann's Claim</u>: The equilibrium macrostate  $\Gamma_{eq}$  is vastly larger than any other macrostate (so it contains the vast majority of possible microstates).



• <u>Thus</u>:  $S_B$  increases over time because, for any initial microstate  $X_i$ , the dynamics will map  $X_i$  into  $\Gamma_{eq}$  very quickly, and then keep it there for an extremely long time.

#### Two Ways to Explain the Approach to Equilibrium:

## (a) <u>Appeal to Typicality (Goldstein 2001)</u>

<u>*Claim*</u>: A system approaches equilibrium because equilibrium microstates are *typical* and nonequilibrium microstates are *atypical*.

- <u>Why?</u> For large N,  $\Omega_E$  is almost entirely filled up with equilibrium microstates. Hence they are "typical".
  - <u>But</u>: What is it about the *dynamics* that evolves atypical states to typical states?
    - "If a system is in an atypical microstate, it does not evolve into an equilibrium microstate *just because* the latter is typical." (Frigg 2009)
  - Need to identify properties of the dynamics that guarantee atypical states evolve into typical states.
  - $\underline{And}$ : Need to show that these properties are typical.
    - <u>Ex</u>: If the dynamics is *chaotic* (in an appropriate sense), then (under certain conditions), any initial microstate  $X_i$  will quickly be mapped into  $\Gamma_{eq}$  and remain there for long periods of time. (Frigg 2009)

## (b) <u>Appeal to Probabilities</u>

<u>*Claim*</u>: A system approaches equilibrium because it evolves from states of lower toward states of higher probability, and the equilibrium state is the state of highest probability.  $\checkmark$ 

• Associate probabilities with macrostates: the larger the macrostate, the greater the probability of finding a microstate in it.

"In most cases, the initial state will be a very unlikely state. From this state the system will steadily evolve towards more likely states until it has finally reached the most likely state, i.e., the state of thermal equilibrium."



<u>Task</u>: Make this a bit more precise (Boltzmann's combinatorial argument)...



<u>Arrangement #1:</u> state of  $P_6$  in  $w_1$ , state of  $P_{89}$  in  $w_3$ , etc.

- Start with the 6-dim phase space  $\Omega_{\mu}$  of a single particle.
- Partition  $\Omega_{\mu}$  into  $\ell$  cells  $w_1, w_2, ..., w_{\ell}$  of size  $\delta w$ .
- A state of an N-particle system is given by N points in  $\Omega_{\mu}$ .



**Def. 4.** An *arrangement* is a specification of *which* points lie in which cells.



**Def. 5.** A *distribution* is a specification of *how many* points (regardless of *which* ones) lie in each cell.

• <u>Note</u>: More than one arrangement can correspond to the same distribution.

• How many arrangements  $G(D_i)$  are compatible with a given distribution  $D_i = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_\ell)?$  $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 1$ = # of ways to arrange n distinguishable objects \_\_\_\_\_  $G(D_i) = \frac{N!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_\ell!}$ 

Number of ways to arrange N distinguishable objects into  $\ell$  bins with capacities  $n_1, n_2, ..., n_{\ell}$ .

<u>Check</u>: Let  $D_1 = (N, 0, ..., 0)$  and  $D_2 = (N - 1, 1, 0, ..., 0)$ . -  $G(D_1) = N!/N! = 1$ . (Only one way for all N particles to be in  $w_1$ .)  $-G(D_2) = N!/(N-1)! = N(N-1)(N-2)\cdots 1/(N-1)(N-2)\cdots 1 = N.$ (There are N different ways  $w_2$  could have one point in it; namely, if  $P_1$ was in it, or if  $P_2$  was in it, or if  $P_3$  was in it, etc...)

Answer:

"The probability of this distribution  $[D_i]$  is then given by the number of permutations of which the elements of this distribution are capable, that is by the number  $[G(D_i)]$ . As the most probable distribution, i.e., as the one corresponding to thermal equilibrium, we again regard that distribution for which this expression is maximal..."



<u>Again</u>: The probability of a distribution  $D_i$  is given by  $G(D_i)$ .

• <u>And</u>: Each distribution  $D_i$  corresponds to a macrostate  $\Gamma_{D_i}$ .

<u>Why</u>? Because a system's macroscopic properties (volume, pressure, temp, *etc*) only depend on *how many* particles are in particular microstates, and not on *which* particles are in which microstates.

- What is the size of this macrostate?
  - A point in  $\Omega_E$  corresponds to an arrangement of  $\Omega_{\mu}$ .
  - The size of a macrostate  $\Gamma_{D_i}$  in  $\Omega_E$  is given by the number of points it contains (the number of arrangements compatible with  $D_i$ ) multiplied by a *volume element* of  $\Omega_E$ .
  - A volume element of  $\Omega_E$  is given by N copies of a volume element  $\delta w$  of  $\Omega_{\mu}$ .

• So: The size of 
$$\Gamma_{D_i}$$
 is  $|\Gamma_{D_i}| = \begin{pmatrix} number \ of \\ arrangements \\ compatible \ with \ D_i \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} volume \ element \\ of \ \Omega_E \end{bmatrix}$ 
$$= G(D_i) \ \delta w^N$$

<u>In other words</u>: The probability  $G(D_i)$  of a distribution  $D_i$  is proportional to the size of its corresponding macrostate  $\Gamma_{D_i}$ .

- The equilibrium macrostate, being the largest, is the most probable; and a system evolves from states of low probability to states of high probability.

• <u>And</u>: Each distribution  $D_i$  corresponds to a macrostate  $\Gamma_{D_i}$ .

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• The Boltzmann entropy of  $\Gamma_{D_i}$  is given by:

$$S_B(\Gamma_{D_i}) = k \log(G(D_i) \,\delta w^N)$$
  
=  $k \log(G(D_i)) + Nk \log(\delta w)$   
=  $k \log(G(D_i)) + const.$ 

 $S_B$  is a measure of how large a macrostate is, and thus how probable the corresponding distribution of microstates is.

## <u>Other formulations of $S_B$ </u>

$$\begin{split} S_{B}(\Gamma_{D_{l}}) &= k \log(G(D_{l})) + const. \\ &= k \log \left( \frac{N!}{n_{1}!n_{2}!\cdots n_{\ell}!} \right) + const. \\ &= k \log \left( N! \right) - k \log (n_{1}!) - \ldots - k \log (n_{\ell}!) + const. \\ &= k \log (N!) - k \log (n_{1}!) - \ldots - k \log (n_{\ell}!) + const. \\ &\approx (Nk \log N - N) - (n_{1}k \log n_{1} - n_{1}) - \ldots - (n_{\ell}k \log n_{\ell} - n_{\ell}) + const. \\ &= \left[ -k \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} n_{j} \log n_{j} + const. \right] \\ \bullet \underline{Let}: \quad p_{j} = n_{j}/N = \left( \begin{array}{c} probability of finding \\ a randomly chosen \\ microstate in cell w_{j} \end{array} \right) \\ \bullet \underline{Then}: \quad S_{B}(\Gamma_{D_{l}}) = -Nk \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} p_{j} \log p_{j} + const. \\ \bullet \underline{Then}: \end{array} \\ \end{split}$$

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• <u>Now</u>:  $S_B$  takes its maximum value for the values  $n_j^*$  that solve:  $dS_B = -k \sum_{i} \log n_j^* dn_j = 0 \quad \longleftarrow \quad \begin{array}{c} Small \ changes \ to \ S_B \ due \ only \ to \ small \ changes \ dn_j. \end{array}$ 

subject to the constraints on the small changes  $dn_i$ :

$$dN = \sum_{j} dn_{j} = 0$$
  $dU = \sum_{j} \varepsilon_{j} dn_{j} = 0$ 

• <u>Note</u>: Can add arbitrary multiples of the constraints to our equation and still get zero result:

$$dS_B = \sum_j \left(-k \log n_j^* + \alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j\right) dn_j = 0$$

• Or: 
$$-k \log n_j^* + \alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j = 0$$

• <u>Now solve for  $n_i^*$ :</u>

$$n_j^* = e^{(\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j)/k}$$

Maxwell-Boltzmann equilibrium distribution for weakly interacting, distinguishable particles. (Independently derived by Maxwell in 1860.)



<u>More importantly: What is  $\beta$ ?</u>

• <u>Consider</u>: Small changes in internal energy of a reversible process:

<u>Macroscopic point of view</u>	Microscopic point of view
$dU = \delta Q - dW$	$dU=d(\sum arepsilon_j n_j)$
$= TdS_T - PdV$	$=\sum arepsilon_j  dn_j  + \sum n_j  darepsilon_j$

• Note: If 
$$PdV = -\sum n_j d\varepsilon_j$$
, then  $dS_T = (1/T)\sum \varepsilon_j dn_j$ 

$$\begin{array}{l} \underline{Two\ ways\ U\ can\ change:}\\ - \varepsilon_i\ changes,\ n_i\ constant\\ (work)\\ - \ n_i\ changes,\ \varepsilon_i\ constant\\ (heat) \end{array}$$

• <u>Recall</u>:  $dS_B(n_j^*) = -k \sum \log n_j^* dn_j$   $= -k \sum [(\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j)/k] dn_j, \quad since \log(e^{(\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j)/k}) = (\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j)/k$  $= -\beta \sum \varepsilon_j dn_j, \quad since -k\alpha \sum dn_j = 0$ 

• <u>So</u>: For the equilibrium distribution  $n_j^*$ ,  $S_B = S_T$  provided  $\beta = -1/T$ .

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• <u>Recap</u>:  $dS_B(n_j^*) = -\beta \sum \varepsilon_j dn_j$ 

• <u>So</u>: For the equilibrium distribution  $n_j^*$ ,  $S_B = S_T$  provided  $\beta = -1/T$ .

- <u>What this shows</u>: For a reversible process involving a large number of distinguishable particles characterized by their positions and velocities, it is consistent to identify the Boltzmann entropy  $S_B$  with the thermodynamic entropy  $S_T$ .
- <u>But</u>: Are we forced to?

- $S_T$ measures absolute changes in heat per temperature of a reverisble process.	- $S_B$ measures how likely a given distribution of states occurs.
- For thermally isolated processes, $S_T$	- No absolute law that requires $S_B$
absolutely increases or remains constant.	to increase or remain constant. $\checkmark$

## 2. Gibbs' Approach.

<u>Boltzmann</u>: Analysis of a *single* multiparticle system.

- Point x in  $\Omega$  = possible microstate of system.
  - Thermodynamic property = function f on  $\Omega$ .
- Boltzmann equilibrium macrostate = largest macrostate in  $\Omega$ .



Willard Gibbs (1839-1903)

 $Thermodynamic \ equilibrium \ state =$ constant thermodynamic properties (temperature, volume, pressure, etc.)

<u>Gibbs</u>: Analysis of an *ensemble* of infinitely many copies of same system.

- Point x in  $\Omega$  = actual state of one member of ensemble.
- State of entire ensemble = distribution  $\rho(x, t)$  on  $\Omega$ .  $\leftarrow$  <u>Not Boltzmann's D!</u>
  - $\int_{S} \rho(x,t) dx$  = probability of finding the state of a system in region S.
  - Ensemble average of  $f = \langle f \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \rho(x,t) dx$
- Statistical equilibrium distribution = stationary  $\rho$  (constant in time).
  - $\langle f \rangle$  is constant just when  $\rho$  is stationary.

<u>So:</u> If thermodynamic properties are represented by ensemble averages, then they don't change in time for an ensemble in statistical equilibrium.

<u>Averaging Principle</u>: The measured value of a thermodynamic property f of a system in thermodynamic equilibrium is the ensemble average  $\langle f \rangle$  of an ensemble in statistical equilibrium.

 $\begin{array}{l} \underline{Justification} : \mbox{A measurement of a property } f \mbox{ takes some amount of time,} \\ \mbox{which is "infinite" compared to molecular processes.} \\ - \underline{So} : \mbox{What gets measured in the lab is the infinite time average } f^*(x_0) : \\ f^*(x_0) = \lim_{\tau \to \infty} \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \tau} f(\phi_t(x_0)) \, dt \\ - \underline{And} : \mbox{For "ergodic" systems, } \langle f \rangle = f^*(x_0). \end{array}$ 

• The **Gibbs Entropy**:  $S_G(\rho) = -k \int_{\Omega} \rho(x,t) \log(\rho(x,t)) dx$ 



- How to choose an appropriate distribution  $\rho$ :
  - Require it be stationary (statistical equilibrium).
  - Require that  $S_G(\rho)$  be maximal.

#### Interpretive Issues:

- (1) Why do low-probability states evolve into high-probability states? (What justifies a given stationary,  $S_G$ -maximizing distribution  $\rho(x, t)$ ?)
  - Characterizations of the dynamics are, again, required to justify this.
- (2) How are the probabilities to be interpreted?
  - (a)  $Ontic \ probabilities =$ properties of physical systems
    - Long run frequencies?
    - Single-case propensities?
  - (b)  $Epistemic \ probabilities =$  measures of degrees of belief
    - Objective (rational) degrees of belief?
    - Subjective degrees of belief?

# **II.** Entropy in Classical Information Theory.

• <u>Goal</u>: To construct a measure for the amount of information associated with a message.

The amount of info gained from the reception of a message depends on how *likely* it is.



Claude Shannon (1916-2001)

- The less likely a message is, the more info gained upon its reception!
- Let  $X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_\ell\} = \text{set of } \ell \text{ messages.}$

**Def. 1.** A probability distribution  $P = (p_1, p_2, ..., p_\ell)$  on X is an assignment of a probability  $p_j = p(x_j)$  to each message  $x_j$ .

• <u>Recall</u>: This means  $p_j \ge 0$  and  $p_1 + p_2 + \dots + p_\ell = 1$ .

**Def. 2.** A measure of information for X is a real-valued function H(X): {prob. distributions on X}  $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that satisfies:

- Continuity.  $H(p_1, ..., p_\ell)$  is continuous.
- Additivity.  $H(p_1q_1, ..., p_\ell q_\ell) = H(P) + H(Q)$ , for probability distributions P, Q.
- Monoticity. Info increases with  $\ell$  for uniform distributions: If  $m > \ell$ , then H(Q) > H(P), for any  $P = (1/\ell, ..., 1/\ell)$  and Q = (1/m, ..., 1/m).
- Branching.  $H(p_1, ..., p_\ell)$  is independent of how the process is divided into parts.
- Bit normalization. The average info gained for two equally likely messages is one bit:  $H(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) = 1$ .

<u>Claim (Shannon 1949)</u>: There is exactly one function that satisfies these criteria; namely, the Shannon Entropy (or Shannon Information):

$$H(X) = -\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} p_j \log_2 p_j \qquad \begin{array}{l} -H(X) \text{ is maximal for } p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_\ell = 1/\ell. \\ -H(X) = 0 \text{ just when one } p_j \text{ is 1 and the rest are 0.} \\ -\text{Logarithm is to base 2: } \log_2 x = y \Rightarrow x = 2^y. \end{array}$$

$$\frac{Bit \text{ normalization requires:}}{1 \text{ If } X = \{x_1, x_2\}, \text{ and } P = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}), \text{ then } H(X) = 1. \\ -Note: H(X) = -(\frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1}{2}) = \log 2. \\ -And: \log 2 = 1 \text{ if and only if log is to base 2.} \end{array}$$

## 1. H(X) as Maximum Amount of Message Compression

- Let  $X = \{x_1, ..., x_\ell\}$  be a set of letters from which we construct the messages.
- Suppose the messages have N letters a piece.
- The probability distribution  $P = (p_1, ..., p_\ell)$  is now over the letter set.



• <u>Thus</u>:

Let's simplify the RHS...

$$\begin{split} \log_2 & \left( \frac{N!}{(p_1 N)! (p_2 N)! \cdots (p_\ell N)!} \right) = \log_2(N!) - \left\{ \log_2((p_1 N)!) + \dots + \log_2((p_\ell N)!) \right\} \\ &\approx (N \log_2 N - N) - \left\{ (p_1 N \log_2 p_1 N - p_1 N) + \dots + (p_\ell N \log_2 p_\ell N - p_\ell N) \right\} \\ &= N \{ \log_2 N - 1 - p_1 \log_2 p_1 - p_1 \log_2 N + p_1 - \dots - p_\ell \log_2 p_\ell - p_\ell \log_2 N + p_\ell \} \\ &= -N \sum_{j=1}^\ell p_j \log_2 p_j \\ &= N H(X) \end{split}$$

• <u>Thus</u>:  $\log_2 \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{The number of distinct} \\ \text{typical messages} \end{array} \right) = NH(X)$ • <u>So</u>:

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{The number of distinct} \\ \text{typical messages} \end{array}\right) = 2^{\text{NH}(X)}$ 

- <u>So</u>: There are only  $2^{NH(X)}$  typical messages with N letters.
- This means, at the message level, we can encode them using only NH(X) bits.



• <u>Now</u>: At the letter level, how many bits are needed to encode a message of N letters drawn from an  $\ell$ -letter alphabet?

<u>First</u> :	How many bits are needed to encode each letter in an $\ell$ -letter alphabet?		
	$\underline{\ell = \#letters}$	x = #bits	s per letter
	2 letters	1 bit:	0, 1
	4 letters	2 bits:	00,01,10,11
	8 letters	3 bits:	000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111
<u>50</u> :	$\ell = 2^x$ , or $x = \log_2$	ε	

- <u>Note</u>:  $\log_2 \ell$  bits per letter entails  $N \log_2 \ell$  bits for a sequence of N letters.
- <u>Thus</u>: If we know how probable each letter is, instead of requiring  $N\log_2 \ell$  bits to encode our messages, we can get by with only NH(X) bits.
- <u>So</u>: H(X) represents the maximum amount that (typical) messages drawn from a given set of letters can be compressed.

<u>Ex</u>: Let  $X = \{A, B, C, D\}$   $(\ell = 4)$ 

- <u>Then</u>: We need  $\log_2 4 = 2$  bits per letter.
- $\frac{For \ instance}{A = 00, \ B = 01, \ C = 10, \ D = 11.}$
- <u>So</u>: We need 2N bits to encode a message with N letters.
- <u>Now</u>: Suppose the probabilities for each letter to occur in a typical *N*-letter message are the following:

$$p_A = 1/2, \quad p_B = 1/4, \quad p_C = p_D = 1/8$$

- <u>Then</u>: The minimum number of bits needed to encode all possible Nletter messages is:  $NH(X) = -N\left(\frac{1}{2}\log_2\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}\log_2\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8}\log_2\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}\log_2\frac{1}{8}\right) = 1.75N$
- <u>Thus</u>: If we know how probable each letter is, instead of requiring 2N bits to encode all possible messages, we can get by with only 1.75N.
- <u>Note</u>: If all letters are equally likely (the equilibrium distribution), then  $p_A = p_B = p_C = p_D = 1/4$ .
- <u>And</u>:  $NH(X) = -N\left(\frac{1}{4}\log_2\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\log_2\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\log_2\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\log_2\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\log_2\frac{1}{4}\right) = 2N.$

### How the message compression interpretation of H relates to $S_B$

#### <u>Shannon</u>

- N = # of letters in message.
- *N*-letter message.
- $\{x_1, ..., x_\ell\} = \ell$ -letter alphabet.
- $(p_1, ..., p_\ell) =$  probability distribution over letters.
- $p_j$  = probability that  $x_j$  occurs in a given message.
- $Np_j = \#$  of  $x_j$ 's in typical message.

 $H(X) = -\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} p_j \log_2 p_j$ 

NH = minimum number of base
 2 numerals ("bits") needed to
 encode a message composed of
 N letters drawn from set X.

## <u>Boltzmann</u>

- N = # of single-particle microstates.
- *N*-microstate arrangement.
- $(n_1, ..., n_\ell) = \ell$ -cell distribution.
- $(p_1, ..., p_\ell)$  = probability distribution over microstates.
- $p_j = n_j/N = \text{prob that a } w_j$ -microstate occurs in a given arrangement.
- $Np_j = \#$  of  $w_j$ -microstates in arrangement.

$$S_{\scriptscriptstyle B}(\Gamma_{\scriptscriptstyle D_i}) = -Nk \sum_{j=1}^\ell p_j \ln p_j + const.$$

•  $S_B \sim NH =$  minimum number of base *e* numerals ("*e*-bits?") needed to encode an arrangement of *N* singleparticle microstates.

#### 2. H(X) as a Measure of Uncertainty

• Suppose  $P = (p_1, ..., p_\ell)$  is a probability distribution over a set of values  $\{x_1, ..., x_\ell\}$  of a random variable X.

**Def. 1.** The expected value E(X) of X is given by  $E(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_j x_j$ .

**Def. 2.** The *information gained* if X is measured to have the value  $x_j$  is given by  $-\log_2 p_j$ .

- <u>Motivation</u>: The greater  $p_j$  is, the more certain  $x_j$  is, and the less information should be associated with it.
- Then the expected value of  $-\log_2 p_j$  is just the Shannon information:  $E(-\log_2 p_j) = -\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} p_j \log_2 p_j = H(X)$
- <u>What this means</u>:

H(X) tells us our expected information gain upon measuring X.

#### <u>Shannon</u>

- X = random variable.
- $\{x_1, ..., x_\ell\} = \ell$  values.
- $(p_1, ..., p_\ell) = \text{probability}$ distribution over values.
- $p_j =$  probability that X has value  $x_j$  upon measurement.
- $-\log_2 p_j = information$  gained upon measurement of X with outcome  $x_j$ .

 $H(X) = -\sum_{j=1}^{\ell} p_j \log_2 p_j$ 

• H(X) = expected information gain upon measurement of X.

## <u>Boltzmann</u>

- X =single-particle microstate.
- $(n_1, ..., n_\ell) = \ell$ -cell distribution.
- $(p_1, ..., p_\ell)$  = probability distribution over microstates.
- $p_j = n_j/N =$  probability that a microstate occurs in cell  $w_j$ .
- $-\ln p_j = information$  gained upon measurement of particle to be in microstate in cell  $w_j$ .

$$S_{\scriptscriptstyle B}(\Gamma_{\scriptscriptstyle D_i}) = -Nk {\displaystyle \sum_{j=1}^\ell p_j \ln p_j + const.}$$

•  $S_B/N$  = expected information gain upon determining the microstate of a particle.

#### Interpretive Issues:

(1) How should the probabilities  $p(x_i)$  be interpreted?

- <u>Emphasis is on uncertainty</u>: The information content of a message  $x_i$  is a function of how uncertain it is, with respect to the receiver.
  - <u>So</u>: Perhaps the probabilities are *epistemic*.
  - <u>In particular</u>:  $p(x_i)$  is a measure of the receiver's degree of belief in the accuracy of message  $x_i$ .
- <u>But</u>: The probabilities are set by the nature of the source.
  - If the source is not probabilistic, then  $p(x_i)$  can be interpreted epistemically.
  - If the source is inherently probabilistic, then  $p(x_i)$  can be interpreted as the *ontic* probability that the source produces message  $x_i$ .

2. How is Shannon Information/Entropy related to other notions of entropy?



- Can statistical mechanics be given an information-theoretic foundation?
- Can the 2nd Law be given an information-theoretic foundation?