

## Non-extensive entropies that depend only of the probability, in Physics and Information

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Boltzman-Gibbs (BG) statistics works perfectly well for classical systems with short range forces and relatively simple dynamics in equilibrium.

SUPERSTATISTICS: Beck and Cohen considered nonequilibrium systems with a long term stationary state that possesses a spatio-temporally fluctuating intensive quantity (temperature, chemical potential, energy dissipation). More general statistics were formulated.

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The macroscopic system is made of many smaller cells that are temporarily in local equilibrium,  $\beta$  is constant. Each cell is large enough to obey statistical mechanics.

But has a different  $\beta$  assigned to it, according to a general distribution  $f(\beta)$ , from it one can get on effective Boltzmann factor

$$B(E) = \int_0^\infty d\beta \ f(\beta) e^{-\beta E},\tag{1}$$

where E is the energy of a microstate associated with each of the considered cells. The ordinary Boltzmann factor is recovered for

$$f(\beta) = \delta \left(\beta - \beta_0\right). \tag{2}$$

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One can, however, consider other distributions. Assume a  $\Gamma$  (or  $\chi^2$ ), distribution depending on a parameter  $p_l$ , to be identified with the probability associated with the macroscopic configuration of the system.

$$f_{p_l}(\beta) = \frac{1}{\beta_0 p_l \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{p_l}\right)} \left(\frac{\beta}{\beta_0} \frac{1}{p_l}\right)^{\frac{1-p_l}{p_l}} e^{-\beta/\beta_0 p_l},\tag{3}$$

integrating over  $\beta$ 

$$B_{p_l}(E) = (1 + p_l \beta_0 E)^{-\frac{1}{p_l}}.$$
(4)



By defining  $S = k \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} s(p_l)$  where  $p_l$  at this moment is an arbitrary parameter, it was shown that it is possible to express s(x) by

$$s(x) = \int_0^\infty dy \frac{\alpha + E(y)}{1 - E(y)/E^*},\tag{5}$$

where E(y) is to be identified with the inverse function  $\frac{B_{p_l(E)}}{\int_0^\infty dE' B_{p_l}(E')}$ .



One selects  $f(\beta) \rightarrow B(E) \rightarrow E(y), S(x)$  is then calculated.

For our distribution  $\Gamma(\chi^2)$ ,

$$S = k \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} \left( 1 - p_l^{p_l} \right)$$

Its expansion gives

$$-\frac{S}{k} = \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} \left[ p_l \ln p_l + \frac{(p_l \ln p_l)^2}{2!} + \frac{(p_l \ln p_l)^3}{3!} + \cdots \right],$$
(7)

where the first term corresponds to the usual Boltzmann-Gibbs (Shannon) entropy.

(6)



Given the functional

$$\Phi = \frac{S}{k} - \gamma \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} p_l - \beta \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} p_l^{p_l+1} E_l, \qquad (8)$$

maximizing  $\Phi$ ,  $p_l$  is obtained for  $S_l$  as

$$1 + \ln p_l + \beta E_l \left( 1 + p_l + p_l \ln p_l \right) = p_l^{-p_l}.$$
(9)

And in a similar way for  $S_{II}$  as

$$1 + \ln p_l + \beta E_l \left( 1 - p_l - p_l \ln p_l \right) = p_l^{p_l}.$$
 (10)

The dominant term in these expressions correspond to the Boltzmann-Gibbs prediction,  $p_I = e^{-\beta_0 E_I}$ . In general, however, we cannot analytically express  $p_I$  as function of  $\beta E_I$ .

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Assume now the equipartition condition  $p_l = \frac{1}{\Omega}$ , remember

$$-\frac{S}{k} = \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} p_l \ln p_l \longrightarrow \frac{S_B}{k} = \ln \Omega.$$
(11)

In our case

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$$S = k\Omega \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\Omega^{\frac{1}{\Omega}}} \right], \tag{12}$$

in terms of  $S_B$  (the Boltzmann entropy), S reads

$$\frac{S}{k} = \frac{S_B}{k} - \frac{1}{2!} e^{-S_B/k} \left(\frac{S_B}{k}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{3!} e^{-2S_B/k} \left(\frac{S_B}{k}\right)^3 \cdots .$$
(13)

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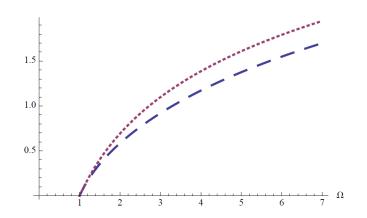


Figure: Entropies as function of (small)  $\Omega$ . Blue dashed and red dotted lines correspond to  $\frac{S}{k}$ , and  $\frac{S_B}{k}$ , respectively ( $p_l = 1/\Omega$  equipartition).

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(14)

$$S_{I,II} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\mp)^{n+1} \frac{\ln^n \Omega}{n! \Omega^{n-1}}$$

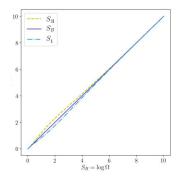


Figure: Entropies  $S_{I,II}$  as a functions of  $S_B$  in a microcanonical ensemble.

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(15)

$$S_q = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(q-1)^n}{(n+1)!} S_B^{n+1}.$$

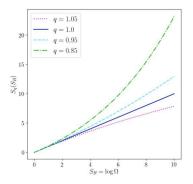


Figure: Tsallis entropy,  $S_q(S_B)$ , maximized for a microcanonical ensemble.

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For the  $f_{p_l}(\beta)$ ,  $\Gamma(\chi^2)$  distribution we have shown that the Boltzmann factor can be expanded for small  $p_l\beta_0E$ , to get

$$B_{\rho_l}(E) = e^{-\beta_0 E} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \rho_l \beta_0^2 E^2 - \frac{1}{3} \rho_l^2 \beta_0^3 E^3 \cdots \right].$$
(16)



The corresponding generalized entanglement entropy to the entropy (6) is given by

$$\frac{S}{k} = Tr\left(I - \rho^{\rho}\right),\tag{17}$$

with  $\rho$  the density matrix, but this exactly corresponds to a "natural" generalization of the Replica trick namely

$$-\frac{S}{k} = \sum_{k \ge 1} \frac{1}{k!} \lim_{n \to k} \frac{\partial^k}{\partial n^k} Tr \rho^n.$$
(18)

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According to Ted Jacobson's (and also E. Verlinde) proposal, we can reobtain gravitation from the entropy, for a modified entropy

$$S = \frac{A}{4l_p^2} + \mathbf{s} \tag{19}$$

one gets a modified Newton's law

$$F = -\frac{GMm}{R^2} \left[ 1 + 4l_{\rho}^2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}}{\partial A} \right]_{A=4\pi R^2}$$
(20)

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Coming back to our entropy and identifying 
$$S_B=rac{A}{4l_{
ho}^2}$$
 we get

$$F = -\frac{GMm}{R^2} + \frac{GMm\pi}{l_p^2} \left[ 1 - \frac{\pi R^2}{2l_p^2} \right] e^{-\frac{\pi R^2}{l_p^2}}.$$
 (21)

Generalized gravitation? From Clausius relation (Jacobson)

$$\frac{\delta Q}{T} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \int T_{ab} k^a k^b (-\lambda) \, d\lambda d^2 A, \tag{22}$$

and

$$\delta S_B = \eta \int R_{ab} k^a k^b (-\lambda) \, d\lambda d^2 A, \tag{23}$$

one gets Einstein's Equations. In our case, approximately one gets

$$\delta S = \delta S_B \left( 1 - S_B \right). \tag{24}$$

A nonlocal gravity?

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### **Quantum Superstatistics**



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The Bose-Einstein (BE), Fermi-Dirac (FD) and Classical (Boltzmann) distributions are given by  $n_{BE} = \frac{1}{e^{(E_j - \mu)/kT} - 1}$ ,  $n_{FD} = \frac{1}{e^{(E_j - \mu)/kT} + 1}$  and  $n_{CL} = e^{-(E_j - \mu)/kT}$  respectively.

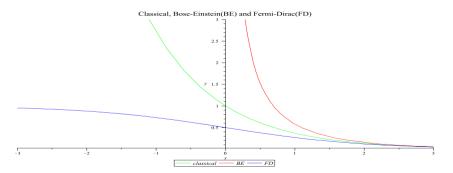


Figure: Comparison of Classic, BE and FD distributions.



In Fig. 5,  $p_l$  is drawn as a function of the reduced energy  $\beta E_l$ . We notice that for relative large values of  $\beta E_l$  the usual values for  $p_l$  coincide with the ones given by Eq. (9) and Eq. (10). As expected, they coincide also for  $p_l \sim 1$ .

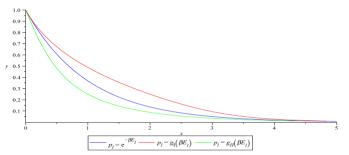


Figure: Comparison of the three probabilities. The blue line corresponds to the standard one  $p_l = e^{-\beta E_l}$ , red line to  $p_l = g_l(\beta E_l)$  Eq. (9), and green line  $p_l = g_{ll}(\beta E_l)$ , Eq. (10).

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Now we will discuss the extension to the nonextensive statistical mechanics whose entropies depend only on the probability; corresponding to Bose-Einstein (BEO) and Fermi-Dirac (FDO) distributions. These entropies are:  $S_l = k \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} (1 - p_l^{p_l}), S_l = k \sum_{l=1}^{\Omega} (p_l^{-p_l} - 1)$ . As stated to them correspond

$$n_{I,II} = \frac{1}{g_{I,II}^{-1} \left(\alpha + \beta E_I\right) \pm 1}.$$
(25)

We will take  $\beta E_l(p_l)$  and invert it and get the values of  $p_{I_{l,II}} \equiv g_{I,II}(\alpha + \beta E_l)$ . In this manner we will be able to calculate the occupancy number  $n_{I,II}$  corresponding to the two entropies and their associated BEO and FDO.



It is shown that in both cases the BEO statistics differs from the usual BE statistics only slightly Fig. 6 and Fig. 7.

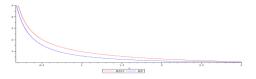


Figure: Comparison of BE y BEO  $(n_l)$ . The red line corresponds to BEO usual , blue line to BE.

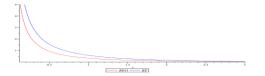


Figure: Comparison of BE y BEO  $(n_{II})$ . The red line corresponds to BEO usual , blue line to BE.

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In the same way we can see that the FDO statistics differs from the FD statistics in a small amount, Fig. 8 and Fig. 9.

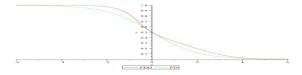


Figure: Comparison of FD with FDO  $(n_I)$ . The red line corresponds to FDO, green line to FD.

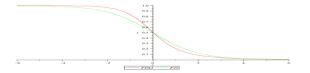


Figure: Comparison of FD with FDO  $(n_{II})$ . The red line corresponds to FDO, green line to FD.

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The work of [Baez,Pollard] formulates the concept of Quantropy, deepening the analogy between Quantum Mechanics (Q.M.) and Statistical Mechanics (S.M.).

# A path with probability in $a(x) = e^{-\frac{A(x)}{i\hbar}}$ Q.M. is mapped to a state with $p_l = e^{-\frac{E_l}{T}}$ probability in S.M.

Energy in S.M. is mapped to the action in Q.M., and the temperature to the Planck constant:  $E \rightarrow A$ ,  $T \rightarrow i\hbar$ 

Statistical fluctuations: T. Quantum fluctuations:  $\hbar$ .

The functional that upon finding its extrema leads to a(x) is given by:

$$\Phi_{BP} = -\int_X a(x) \ln a(x) dx - \mu \int_X a(x) dx - \lambda \int_X a(x) S(x) dx.$$
(26)



Let us discuss an integrated version of the Quantropy. First for the BG entropy, then for  $S_{+(I)}$ ,  $S_{-(II)}$  and  $S_q$ .

The change in distribution probabilities which arise from modified entropies in S.M. maps in Q.M. to modifications of the propagator.

The propagator between points in space-time  $(x_a, t_a)$  and  $(x_b, t_b)$  in Q.M. determine the probability amplitude of particles to travel from certain position to another position in a given time.

Modified entropies in S.M. lead to modified probability distributions, distinct probability amplitudes of propagation over all paths from  $(x_a, t_a)$  to  $(x_b, t_b)$  will arise from a modified Quantropy.

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As we write functionals to maximize and subject to constraints and obtain probability distributions, we can write the corresponding Quantropies to get the propagators  $K_+$  and  $K_-$  and correspondingly the wave functions  $\Psi_+$  and  $\Psi_-$ .

The standard BG statistics gives rise to the Quantropy:

$$Q_0 = -\int K(x) \ln K(x) dx$$

whose constrained extrema are obtained from:

$$\Phi_0 = -\int \mathcal{K}(x) \ln \mathcal{K}(x) dx + \alpha \int \mathcal{K}(x) dx + \lambda \int \mathcal{S}_{cl}(x) \mathcal{K}(x) dx.$$
(27)

The extrema condition gives  $K(x) = e^{-1-\alpha-\lambda S_{cl}(x)}$ . For  $S_+$  statistics the extrema are obtained from:

$$\Phi_{+} = \int \left( 1 - \mathcal{K}(x)^{\mathcal{K}(x)} \right) dx + \alpha \int \mathcal{K}(x) dx + \lambda \int \mathcal{S}_{cl}(x) \mathcal{K}(x)^{\mathcal{K}(x)+1} dx.$$



The extrema condition gives rise to the modified propagator:

$$\mathcal{K}_{+}(x) = \mathcal{N}_{+}e^{-\lambda S_{cl}} \left(1 - e^{-\lambda S_{cl}} \left(\lambda S_{cl}\right)^{2}\right) + e^{-2\lambda S_{cl}} \left(\lambda S_{cl}\right)^{2} \left(-1 - 2\left(\lambda S_{cl}\right) + 3\left(\lambda S_{cl}\right)^{2}\right) + \cdots$$
(29)

We consider also  $S_{-}$  statistics and Tsallis  $S_{q}$  statistics, the same sketched procedure gives rise to the set of modified propagators:

$$\mathcal{K}_{-}(x) = \mathcal{N}_{-}e^{-\lambda S_{cl}} \left(1 + e^{-\lambda S_{cl}} \left(\lambda S_{cl}\right)^{2}\right) - e^{-2\lambda S_{cl}} \left(\lambda S_{cl}\right)^{2} \left(-1 - 2\left(\lambda S_{cl}\right) + 3\left(\lambda S_{cl}\right)^{2}\right) + \cdots$$
(30)

$$K_q(x) = N_q \exp_q(-\lambda S_{cl}(x)) = N_q (1 - (1 - q)\lambda S_{cl})^{\frac{1}{1 - q}}.$$
(31)

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We write a modified propagator up to third order for the free particle in the case of the statistics  $S_+$ ,  $S_-$  and  $S_q$  for q < 1 and q > 1. The values of q are considered in order to compare the different propagators. The classical action is given by:

$$S_{cl} = \frac{mx^2}{2t}.$$
(32)

The standard normalized free particle propagator is given by:

$$\mathcal{K}_0(x) = \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar t}} \exp\left(\frac{imx^2}{2\hbar t}\right).$$
(33)

This is obtained from the extrema of the BG Quantropy.



Consider now  $S_+$  statistics Quantropy extrema to obtain:

$$\mathcal{K}_{+}(x) = \mathcal{N}_{+} \exp\left(\frac{imx^{2}}{2\hbar t}\right) \left(1 + \exp\left(\frac{imx^{2}}{2\hbar t}\right) \left(\frac{imx^{2}}{2\hbar t}\right)^{2} + \cdots\right)$$
(34)

Similarly for  $S_{-}$  and  $S_{q}$  statistics Quantropies extrema we get:

$$K_{-}(x) = N_{-} \exp\left(\frac{imx^{2}}{2\hbar t}\right) \left(1 - \exp\left(\frac{imx^{2}}{2\hbar t}\right) \left(\frac{imx^{2}}{2\hbar t}\right)^{2} + \cdots\right)$$
(35)

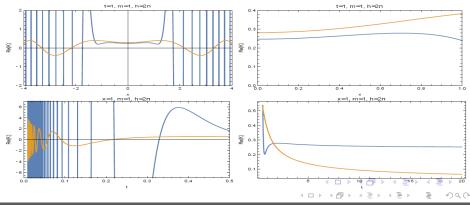
$$K_q(x) = N_q \left( 1 + (q-1) \left( \frac{imx^2}{2\hbar t} \right) \right)^{\frac{1}{1-q}}.$$
(36)

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Real parts of the modified propagator (blue line) vs. standard propagator (yellow line), for the free particle for the modified statistics  $S_+$ . The quantum regime is given by  $S_{cl} \sim \hbar$  and it translates for fixed x = 1 in  $t \ge 1/2$  for fixed t = 1 translates in  $x^2 \le 2$ . We set  $\hbar = m = 1$ .



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Shannon seminal paper (1948); a firm setting of the foundations of Classical Information Theory. Suppose we have *n* input symbols  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$  with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$  which we wish to encode. Suppose further that there is an alphabet of *D* symbols into which the input symbols are to be encoded. Let  $x_i$  be represented by a sequence of  $l_i$  characters from the alphabet. It was shown that there is a uniquely decipherable code with lengths  $l_1, l_2, ..., l_n$  if and only if

$$C = D \sum_{i} D^{-l_i} \le 1.$$
(37)

There are, however many lengths that satisfy (37), called the Kraft inequality.

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For the standard Shannon entropy one optimises

$$J = L + \gamma C = \sum_{i} p_{i} I_{i} + \gamma \sum_{i} D^{-I_{i}}, \qquad \gamma \in \Re,$$
(38)

where  $\gamma$  is a Lagrange multiplier to be selected adequately. One gets  $l_i^* = \log_D p_i$ , this *is the optimal length*, it correspond then to the entropy.



In 1965 L. Campbell generalized *C* and even *L* to obtain on appropriate coding theorem for the Rényi entropy. Then following a similar approach as that of Campbell, in the last two decades several papers appeared that generalized this coding theorem for q-statistics, (for Havrda-Charvát-Tsallis). We show here a proposal to find, generalized coding theorems for  $S_{I,II}$  which we rename as  $H_D^{(\pm)}(X)$ .

Following our approach one can also find appropriate demonstrations for the coding theorems corresponding to the Rényi entropy and the q-statistics entropy. These are not shown here.



We proceed analogously as in Shannon, for  $H_D^{(\pm)}(X)$ . The problem consists of choosing a code that minimises

$$C^{(\pm)} = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{j}^{(\pm)} \Gamma\left[j+1, \log D^{-l_{i}}\right] \le \text{constant},$$
(39)

where the  $a_j^{(\pm)}$  are real coefficients corresponding to generalized exponentials

$$\exp^{(\pm)}(x) \equiv \exp(-x) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j^{(\pm)} x^j, \qquad a_j^{(\pm)} \in \Re$$
 (40)

 $\Gamma(.,.)$  is the incomplete gamma function.



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Solving such optimization problem consist of choosing the mean length defined by

$$L^{(\pm)} = \sum_{i} p_{i}^{(\pm)} l_{i}, \tag{41}$$

the functional to be minimized,

$$J^{(\pm)} = L^{(\pm)} + \gamma C^{(\pm)}, \qquad \gamma \in \Re.$$
(42)

We draw attention to remark that the standard theory is straightforwardly recoverable from our scheme in the limit  $\Omega \to \infty$ , which means that the Shannon quantity  $p_i$  can be obtainable from the transition  $p_i = \lim_{\Omega \to \infty} p_i^{(\pm)}$ , therefore leading to the classical functional (38) as

$$\lim_{\Omega \to \infty} J^{(\pm)} = J. \tag{43}$$



To determine the optimal partial lengths  $I_i^{(\pm)^*}$ , we now differentiate (42) with respect to  $I_i$  and equate to zero to obtain

$$\frac{\partial J^{(\pm)}}{\partial l_i} = \frac{\partial L^{(\pm)}}{\partial l_i} + \gamma \frac{\partial C^{(\pm)}}{\partial l_i} = 0,$$
(44)

the equality is satisfied for all i iff

$$I_{i}^{(\pm)^{*}} = -\log_{D}^{(\pm)}\left(p_{i}^{(\pm)}\right).$$
(45)



The lengths  $L^{(\pm)}$  should be lower and upper bounded by the entropy measures themselves. Thus we are entitled to introduce the following theorems.

#### Theorem (1)

The expected lengths defined by Eq. (41) for a D-ary alphabet regarding the entropies  $H_D^{(\pm)}(X)$ , satisfy  $L^{(\pm)} \ge H_D^{(\pm)}(X)$ , with equality iff  $l_i^{(\pm)^*} = -\log_D^{(\pm)}\left(p_i^{(\pm)}\right)$  for every *i*.



### Theorem (2)

For a D-ary alphabet and a source distribution X let  $l_i^{(\pm)^*}$  be the optimal partial lengths that solve the optimisation problem (42), where the associated mean lengths are defined by Eq. (41). Then

$$H_D^{(\pm)}(X) \le L^{(\pm)} \le H_D^{(\pm)}(X) + 1.$$
(46)



Certainly, the expected lengths  $L^{(\pm)}$  are such that satisfy  $H^{(\pm)}_{
ho}(X) \leq L^{(\pm)} \leq$  $H_{D}^{(\pm)}(X) + 1$ . Nonetheless the optimal code in view of  $H_{D}^{(\pm)}$  can only be better that the prescribed by  $L^{(\pm)}$ , thus one is addressed to the Theorem 2. As an example, we have generated a random process with uncorrelated sources, see Figure 10, to serve as datasets to compute the expected lengths  $L^{(\pm)}$  as well as the usual length, L, in classical information theory. For the process in Fig. 4, as for Shannon entropy,  $H_{D=2}$ , the expected length is  $L^* = 6.64$  bits, whereas the expected lengths as for entropies  $H_{D-2}^{(+)}$  and  $H_{D-2}^{(-)}$  the expected lengths are  $L^{(+)*} = 5.91$  bits and  $L^{(-)*} = 6.39$  bits, in that order. That means that a more efficient transmission process would result from entropy  $H_{D=2}^{(+)}$  in comparison to a code computed through  $H_{D=2}$ . However as the number of random events increases, the lengths  $L^{(\pm)*}$  tend to coincide with  $L^*$ .



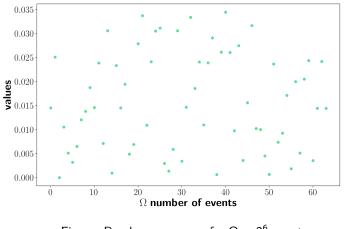


Figure: Random processes for  $\Omega = 2^6$  events.

Image: 1 million of the second sec

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The amount of information that can be obtained about x observing y. It is used to maximize the amount of information showed between sent and received signals. The tight upper bound on the role at which information can be reliably transmitted over a communication channel.

The capacity of a communication channel as obtained by Shannon:

Let  $X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$  be an input to the channel with probabilities  $p(x_1)$ ,  $p(x_2),..., p(x_n)$  and let  $Y = \{y_1, y_2, ..., y_n\}$  be its output. The channel itself is entirely described by a set of conditional probabilities  $\{p(y_j|x_i)\}$ , of receiving  $y_j$  if  $x_i$  was sent. The capacity is defined to be the maximum over all the probability distributions of  $p(x_1)$ ,  $p(x_2),..., p(x_n)$  as the Shannon mutual information between the input X and output Y, I(X; Y)



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$$C = \max_{p(x_i)} I(X : Y) = \max_{p(x_i)} \{ S(Y) - S(Y|X) \},$$
(47)

where S(Y|X) is the conditional entropy

$$S(Y|X) = \sum p(x_i)S(Y|X = x_i) = \sum p(x_i) \left(\sum p(y_j|x_i) \log p(y_j|x_i)\right)$$
(48)

It tell us how much the uncertainty in the input S(X) is reduced by measuring the output S(X|Y) and the maximum of this information (of the uncertainty reduction) is called the capacity C.

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The previous equations (47), (48) tell us how to compute channel capacities for other entropies. This has been done in several works for the Rényi entropy and Tsallis entropy. In particular for the binary symmetric channel.

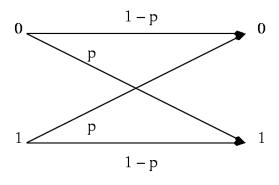


Figure: Binary Symmetric Channel.

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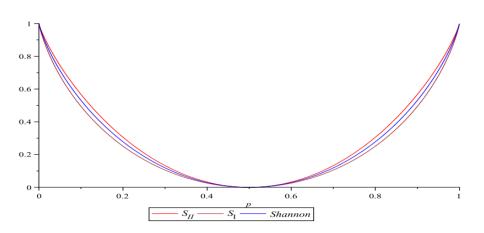


In most of the previous works, one can not compare the results with the Shannon channel capacity for this same case. In some of them it has correctly demanded that this capacities should be zero for p = 1/2, one most however further demand that C = 1 for p = 0 and p = 1.

Under these necessary conditions, we have correctly calculated the channel capacities for the symmetric channel. We do not present the associate expression but only the resulting graphs. As can be observed,  $S_{II}$  gives a slight largest capacity than Shannon.

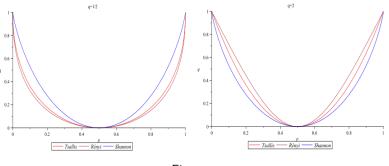
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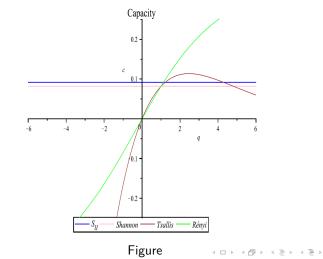


In Figs. 12 one notice that the q-dependent Rényi and Tsallis entropies give for q = 2 better channel capacities than Shannon and for q = 1/2 Shannon channel capacity is larger.

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Fig. 13 is for a fixed probability p = 1/3 and is a function of the parameter q.



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For this reason Shannon and  $S_{II}$  ( $S_I$  is not draw) have unique stable values. A relative small change in q can drastically change the value at the channel capacity. This could probably point out to an old (1981) argument by Berhard Lesche, in connection with the Rényi entropy, in which he claims that a necessary condition for a quantity C(q) to be observable is that its values do not change dramatically if the state of the system in consideration is changed by an unobservable small amount parameterized by  $q \rightarrow q + \delta q$ .

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- The Heisenberg uncertainty principle, is a consequence of the entropic uncertainty principle.
- The uncertainty principle needs to be extended to a Generalized Uncertainty Principle (GUP) to describe the quantum effects of gravity. i.e. string theory, a Gedankenexperiment of black-hole difraction.
- Can a GUP be deduced from the entropic uncertainty when generalized entropies are considered?
- We show that GUP is a consequence of the entropic principle for the statistics of generalized entropies depending only on the probability.
- The corrections to the energy levels for the simple harmonic oscillator with this method match the usual ones founded in GUP.
- The corrections show a universality with respect to several entropy measures.



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