

A Look at the Uncertainty of Measuring the Fundamental Constants and the Maxwell Demon from the Perspective of the Information Approach

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Abstract

This paper proposes a new framework for calculating the discrepancy of a model and the observed technological process or physical phenomenon. It offers powerful tools for all measurement methods applied in technology, engineering and experimental physics. Since the studies that validate and verificate the models of the phenomenon are still complex, they need to be combined into one total measure. Existing methods used in almost all literature up to the present time implicitly suggest that the use of supercomputers and the latest mathematical statistical methods allows achieving high accuracy very close to the boundaries of Heisenberg principle. To compare methodologies for improving models, we propose a new metric called comparative uncertainty. This allows us to prove that there is a limit to the achievable discrepancy between the model and the object under study.

Index terms— bekenstein bound; fundamental physical constants; information theory; landauer limit; mathematical modeling; maxwell demon, similarity theory.

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Abstract—This paper proposes a new framework for calculating the discrepancy of a model and the observed technological process or physical phenomenon. It offers powerful tools for all measurement methods applied in technology, engineering and experimental physics. Since the studies that validate and verificate the models of the phenomenon are still complex, they need to be combined into one total measure. Existing methods used in almost all literature up to the present time implicitly suggest that the use of supercomputers and the latest mathematical statistical methods allows achieving high accuracy very close to the boundaries of Heisenberg principle.

To compare methodologies for improving models, we propose a new metric called comparative uncertainty. This allows us to prove that there is a limit to the achievable discrepancy between the model and the object under study. Our results have wide implications for known climate forecasts, spacecraft missions, measurement of fundamental constants, and other measurements during any technological processes. In this paper, the use of the information approach is illustrated by several examples: measurement of fundamental constants and calculation of the amount of information received by the Maxwell demon during modelling. In addition, we apply the Landauer limit to calculate the amount of information corresponding to the energy contained in the universe, with a known radius.

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2 I. Introduction

Physical laws express in mathematical form a quantitative relationship between different physical quantities. They are based on the generalization of the experimental data obtained and reflect the objective laws that exist

2 I. INTRODUCTION

43 in nature. It is so fundamentally important that all physical laws are an approximation to reality, since the
44 construction of theories is formulated by certain models of phenomena and processes. Beyond these models,
45 laws do not work or work poorly. Therefore, laws have certain limits of applicability. In other words, physical
46 laws give good predictions in a specific area of experimental conditions, and the corresponding theory explains
47 them. A more accurate or more correct theory has a wider range of applications. Scientists believe that physical
48 laws, at least, allow us to predict the results with arbitrary accuracy. For example, classical mechanics, based
49 on the three laws of Newton and the law of universal gravitation, is valid only for the motion of bodies with
50 velocities much less than the speed of light. If the velocities of bodies are comparable with the speed of light,
51 the predictions of classical mechanics are erroneous. The special theory of relativity has successfully coped with
52 these problems. In fact, all physical theories are limited. The principle of correspondence requires that the new
53 theory with a wider scope of applicability be limited to the old theory within its applicability. An appeal to the
54 theory of new concepts creates important prerequisites for further development.

55 Among the various explanations for the admissibility of possible limits of applicability of physical laws, the
56 following are most often used. The first is the assumption that there is a limited destabilization of phenomena
57 for which the Heisenberg inequality gives a quantitative expression. Secondly, the limitations are determined by
58 the real nature of the macroscopic instrument or measuring system. Most of the devices are finally presented
59 as a solid one. In principle, it can be argued that any device has an educational effect only in the realm of
60 reality, what it is. Thus, the results of research should be expressed in terms of macroscopic. In other words,
61 concepts and images can be identified and associated only with ordinary macroscopic representations. The last
62 argument is the point of view of the principle of the electromagnetic nature of all modern means of measurement
63 and their role in determining the limits of experimental and measurement capabilities and harmonizing data
64 with theoretical postulates. Thus, explanations are possible, but any quantitative approaches to quantifying the
65 difference between the model (formulated by the physical law) and the existing reality have not been proposed
66 to date.

67 Concerning the fundamental physical constants, it should be noted that their values are the accuracy of our
68 knowledge of the fundamental properties of matter. On the one hand, very often the verification of physical
69 theories is determined by the accuracy of the measured physical constant. On the other hand, firmly established
70 experimental data form the basis of new physical theories.

71 When studying physical constants, it should be noted that they are measured with very high accuracy, which is
72 steadily increasing. In itself it is evidence of the development and improvement of methods of physical experiment.
73 Nowadays, exact research is carried out to measure and refine the values of physical constants and to work
74 diligently to harmonize data obtained by different methods and different groups of researchers. However, there is
75 an urgent need to further improve the accuracy of measuring fundamental physical constants. This is explained
76 by the desire to improve the axiomatic basis of the International System of Units (SI).

77 To estimate the accuracy achieved in various nature and technological processes, including measurements of
78 fundamental physical constants, the concept of relative uncertainty is used. It should be noted that this method of
79 determining the measurement accuracy does not indicate the direction in which the true value of the fundamental
80 physical constant can be found. In addition, it includes an element of subjective judgment [1].

81 In [2], the authors proposed to simplify the method for estimating the uncertainties of the measurement
82 results: provided that the indirectly measured physical quantity depends only on the directly measured physical
83 quantities directly or indirectly, the evaluation of the measurement accuracy using the maximum uncertainty
84 can be interpreted as having a much a higher informative value than the value provided by a simple orientation
85 estimate.

86 On the contrary, we propose a new method for estimating the reliability of the obtained measurement results
87 by achieving the least relative uncertainty.

88 Taking into account the aforesaid, the use of information theory for the modelling of physical processes takes
89 on a special place. Information-oriented theoretical calculations of models of physical phenomena are based on
90 the analogy between measurement systems and communication systems. In a simple communication system, the
91 message (input) is encoded into a signal at the end of the transmitter, sent to the end of the receiver, and then
92 decoded back (output). The accuracy of the transmission depends on the characteristics of the communication
93 system, as well as on the characteristics of the medium, that is, on the background noise level. Similarly,
94 measuring instruments can be considered as "information machines" [3], which interact with the object in this
95 state (input), code this state into an internal signal and convert this signal into readout (output). The accuracy
96 of the measurement is similarly dependent on the instrument, as well as on the noise level in its environment.
97 Conceived as a special type of information transfer, the dimension is analysed from the point of view of the
98 conceptual apparatus of information theory [4].

99 Bas van Fraassen [5] recently proposed a measurement concept in which information plays a key role. He
100 considers measurements as consisting of two levels: at the physical level, the measuring device interacts with
101 the object and reads, for example, the position of the pointer. At the abstract level, this theory represents the
102 possible states of the object in the parameter space. Measurement finds an object in the sub-region of this space
103 of abstract parameters, thereby reducing the range of possible states. This reduction in capabilities is reduced
104 to collecting information about the measured object.

105 Since the studies that confirm and test the phenomenon models are still complex, they need to be combined

106 into one general measure. The methods used in almost all literature up to the present time implicitly suggest
 107 that the use of supercomputers and the latest mathematical statistical methods makes it possible to achieve a
 108 high arbitrary accuracy very close to the boundaries of the Heisenberg principle. To compare the methodologies
 109 for improving models, we propose a new metric called comparative uncertainty. This metric is a novel one. This
 110 allows us to prove that there is a limit to the achievable discrepancy between the model and the object under
 111 study. In another words, the state of an object cannot be known with arbitrary precision independently of its
 112 measurement [6].

113 Here we investigate the information cost of measurements in the modelling. Starting with the framework set
 114 in ref. [7], we introduce the metric of dignity, the comparative uncertainty of the measurement, which is realized
 115 in a real experiment. We believe in the importance of this work because of the following points. Thanks to the
 116 introduction of this quantitative tool, we obtain the lower limit of the achieved absolute and relative uncertainties
 117 associated with the act of observation, which is characteristic and inherent in measurement. The flexibility of our
 118 experimental setup allows us to calculate the amount of information retrieved from the system. Our method allows
 119 us to determine how much the developed model (before carrying out the experiment or computer calculations) can
 120 extract information in order to achieve the lowest threshold inconsistency in comparison with the object under
 121 study. Moreover, there was showed that the information amount inherent in the model can be calculated and
 122 how it proscribes the required number of quantities which should be taken into account. It was thus concluded
 123 that in most physically relevant cases (micro-and macro-physics), the comparative uncertainty can be realized
 124 by field tests or computer simulations within the prearranged variation of the main recorded quantity.

125 The information-oriented approach was applied for design of thermal energy storage systems [8], technological
 126 processes of slurry ice production [9], climate models and spacecraft heating [10]. Since the information approach
 127 provides a theoretically grounded value of relative uncertainty, with great certainty, one can estimate the
 128 admissibility of a particular measurement result. It can also be easily updated when new measurements come
 129 out. The approach can also be used for the measurements of the fundamental physical constants and will greatly
 130 shorten the duration of the studies and the design stage, thereby reducing the cost of the projects. This moment,
 131 it will be revised for a very controversial, at the current level of understanding nature by scientists, measurements
 132 of Hubble constant and concept of the Maxwell's demon.

133 Our work is organized as follows. In the next section, we introduce an information-oriented approach and
 134 a methodology for calculating relative and comparative uncertainties. In Section III, we use the information
 135 method to analyze the relative uncertainties of the Hubble, Boltzmann, Planck, fine structure, and gravitational
 136 constants. In addition, we analyze the paradox of Maxwell's demon and we apply the Landauer limit to calculate
 137 the amount of information corresponding to energy contained in the universe, with a known radius. We discuss
 138 in Section 4 and conclude in Section 5.

139 3 II.

140 Key Concepts from Information-Oriented Approach ? SI -hypothesis, for calculating the lowest comparative
 141 uncertainty of the researched quantity based on principles of information and similarity theories with the usage
 142 of the International system of units (SI), is formulated. Following it, the certain uncertainty exists before
 143 starting experiment due only the known recorded number of quantities. In turn, the dimensionless comparative
 144 uncertainty ? of the dimensionless quantity u, which varies in a predetermined dimensionless interval S, for a
 145 given number of selected physical dimensional quantities z", and ?" (the number of the recorded base quantities)
 146 can be determined from the relation: ? = Î?"u /S ? [(z' -?")/(? -?) + (z" -?"")/(z' -?"")](1)

147 where Î?"u is the dimensionless uncertainty of physicalmathematical model describing the experiment of
 148 measurement of the dimensionless quantity u; ? is a number of the base quantities with independent dimension;
 149 SI includes the following seven (? =7) base primary quantities: L is the length, M is weight, ? is time, I is electric
 150 current, ? is thermodynamic temperature, J is force of light, F is a number of substances. The dimension of any
 151 derived quantity q can only express a unique combination of dimensions of base quantities in different degrees
 152 [11]: l, m... f are exponents of quantities, the range of each has maximum and minimum value; according to [12],
 153 integers are the following:-3 ? 1 ? +3, -1?m? +1,-4 ?t ?+4,-2 ?i ? +2, (3) -4 ? ?? +4, -1 ? j ? +1,-1 ?f? + 1;

154 The exponents of quantities take only integer values [12], so the number of choices of dimensions for each
 155 quantity ? k , k = {1, m... f} according to (3) is the following: ? l = 7; ? m = 3; ? t = 9; ? i = 5; ? ? = 9; ? j =
 156 3; ? f = 3; (4)

157 where, for example, L -3 is used in a formula of density, and ? 4 in the Stefan-Boltzmann law.

158 The total number of dimension options of physical quantities equals ?* = ? ?? ?? ?? k -1 ?*=? l ? m ? t ? i
 159 ? ? ? j ? f -1=7.3.9.5.9.3.3-1=76,544, (5)

160 where "-1" corresponds to the occasion when all exponents of base quantities in the formula (2) are treated to
 161 zero dimension; ? is a product of ? k ;

162 The value ?* includes both required, and inverse quantities (for example, L¹ -length, L⁻¹ -running length).
 163 The object can be judged knowing only one of its symmetrical parts, while others structurally duplicating this
 164 part may be regarded as information empty [13]. Therefore, the number of options of dimensions may be reduced
 165 in 2 times. It means that the total number of dimensional physical quantities without inverse quantities for SI
 166 equals. ? = ?* /2 = 38,272;(6)

167 z' is a total number of dimensional physical quantities in the chosen class of phenomena (COP); in SI frames,

every researcher selects a particular COP to study material object. COP is a set of physical phenomena and processes described by a finite number of base and derived quantities that characterize certain features of material object from the position with qualitative and quantitative aspects [14]. In studying mechanics, for example, which widely applied for the Newtonian gravitational constant measurements with a torsion balance, the base units of SI are typically used: L, M, s (LMT). In publications relating to the measurement, for example, of the Boltzmann constant, the model corresponds to COP SI s LM??;

?? is the number of base physical quantities in the chosen COP; taking into account ? -theorem [11], a total number of dimensionless criteria ? SI = ?? inherent in SI equals. ? SI = ? -? = 38,265.(7)

Equation (1) quantifies $\hat{I}^n u/S$ caused by the limited number of quantities taken into account in the theoretical or experimental analysis of researched quantity. On the other hand, it also sets a limit on the expedient increasing of the measurement accuracy in conducting experimental studies. In turn, $\hat{I}^n u/S$ is not a purely mathematical abstraction. It has a physical meaning, consisting in the witness that in nature there is a fundamental limit to the accuracy of displaying any observed material object, which cannot be surpassed by any improvement of instruments and methods of measurement. The reality of the environment is the obvious a priori condition for the modeling of the investigated material object. By allocating the interested process or phenomenon, the unknown relationships between the content of object and the environment are "broken". In this context it is obvious that an overall uncertainty of the model including inaccurate input data, physical assumptions, the approximate solution of the integral-differential equations, etc., will be larger than $\hat{I}^n u$. Thus, $\hat{I}^n u$ is only one lowest component of a possible mismatch of real object and its modeling results.

In fact, equation (1) can be regarded as the conformity principle (uncertainty relation) for the process of model development. No model can produce results that contradict the relation (1). That is, any change in the level of the detailed description of the observed object ($z^{n-?}$; $z^{n-?}$) causes a change in the minimum comparative uncertainty value \hat{I}^n pmm /S of the model of a specific COP and in the achieved accuracy of each main quantity, characterizing the internal structure of the object. In other words, the conformity principle fundamentally establishes the accuracy limit (for a given class of phenomena) of simultaneously defining a pair of quantities, observed by a conscious researcher, particularly, the absolute uncertainty in the measurement of the investigated quantity and the interval of its changes.

Equating the derivative of $\hat{I}^n u/S$ (1) with respect to $z^{n-?}$, to zero, we obtain the condition for achieving the minimum comparative uncertainty for a particular COP: $(z^{n-?})^2 / (z^{n-?}) = (z^{n-?})$ (8)

It should be noted that, for example, for the electromagnetism processes (COP SI s LM?I), which are used usually for the Rydberg constant measurements, the lowest comparative uncertainty ? LMTI can be reached at the following conditions: $(z^{n-?}) = (1/m \cdot t \cdot i^{-1})/2-4 = (7?3?9?5-1)/2-4 = 468$ (9) $(z^{n-?}) = (z^{n-?})^2 / (z^{n-?}) = 468^2/38,265?6$ (10)

Then one can calculate an achievable comparative uncertainty ? LMTI ? LMTI = $(\hat{I}^n u/S)$ LMTI = $468/38,265 + 6/468? 0.0244$ (11) Below is Table 1 introducing different class of phenomena and the corresponding achievable comparative uncertainties and recommended number of quantities.

Let to apply the above-mentioned method to determine the minimum possible measurement uncertainty of several fundamental physical constants. For these purposes the reader needs to remember that if the range of observation S is not defined, the information obtained during the observation or measurement cannot be determined, and the entropic price becomes infinitely large [15]. In the framework of the information-oriented approach, it seems that the theoretical limit of the absolute and relative uncertainties depends on the empirical value, that is, possible interval of placing (the observed range of variations) S of the measured physical constant. In other words, the results will be completely different if a larger interval of changes is considered in the measured fundamental physical constant. It is right, however, if S is not declared, the information obtained in the measurement cannot be determined. Any specific measurement requires certain (finite) a priori information about the components of the measurement and interval of observation of the measured quantity. These requirements are so universal that it acts as a postulate of metrology [16]. This, the observed range of variations, depends on the knowledge of the developer before undertaking the study. "If nothing is known about the system studied, then S is determined by the limits of the measuring devices used" [15].

That is why, taking into account Brillouin's suggestions, there are two options of applying the conformity principle to analyze the measurement data of the fundamental physical constants.

First, this principle dictates, factually, analyzing the data of the magnitude of the achievable relative uncertainty at the moment taking into account the latest results of measurements. The extended range of changes in the quantity under study S indicates an imperfection of the measuring devices, which leads to a large value of the relative uncertainty. The development of measuring technology, the increase in the accuracy of measuring instruments, and the improvement in the existing and newly created measurement methods together lead to an increase in the knowledge of the object under study and, consequently, the magnitude of the achievable relative uncertainty decreases. However, this process is not infinite and is limited by the conformity principle. The reader should bear in mind that this conformity principle is not a shortcoming of the measurement equipment or engineering device, but of the way the human brains work. When predicting behavior of any physical process, physicists are, in fact, predicting the perceivable output of instrumentation. It is true that, according to the μ -hypothesis, observation is not a measurement, but a process that creates a unique physical world with respect to each particular observer. Thus, in this case, the range of observation (possible interval of placing) of the

231 fundamental physical constant S is chosen as the difference between the maximum and minimum values of the
232 physical constant measured by different scientific groups during a certain period of recent years. Only in the
233 presence of the results of various experiments one can speak about the possible appearance of a measured value
234 in a certain range. Thus, using the smallest attainable comparative uncertainty inherent in the selected class of
235 phenomena during measuring the fundamental constant, it is possible to calculate the recommended minimum
236 relative uncertainty that is compared with the relative uncertainty of each published study. In what follows, this
237 method is denoted as IARU and includes the following steps:

238 1. From the published data of each experiment, the value z , relative uncertainty r_z and standard uncertainty
239 u_z (possible interval of u placing) of the fundamental physical constant are chosen. 2. The experimental
240 absolute uncertainty \hat{I}^u_z is calculated by multiplying the fundamental physical constant value z and its relative
241 uncertainty r_z attained during the experiment, $\hat{I}^u_z = z \cdot r_z$.

242 3. The maximum z_{\max} and minimum z_{\min} values of the measured physical constant are selected from the
243 list of measured values z_i of the fundamental physical constant mentioned in different studies. 4. As a possible
244 interval for placing the observed fundamental constant S_z , the difference between the maximum and minimum
245 values is calculated, $S_z = z_{\max} - z_{\min}$.

246 5. The selected comparative uncertainty \hat{I}^u_z (Table 1) 1). Second, S is determined by the limits of the
247 measuring devices used [15]. This means that as the observation interval in which the expected true value
248 of the measured fundamental physical constant is located, a standard uncertainty is selected when measuring
249 the physical constant in each particular experiment. Compared with various fields of technology, experimental
250 physics is better for the fact that in all the researches, the experimenters introduce the output data of the
251 measurement with uncertainty bars. At the same time, it should be remembered that the standard uncertainty
252 of a particular measurement is subjective, because the conscious observer probably did not take into account this
253 or that uncertainty. The experimenters calculate the standard uncertainty, taking into account all possibilities,
254 they noticed the measured uncertainties. Then, one calculates ratio between the absolute uncertainty reached
255 in an experiment and standard uncertainty, acting as a possible interval for allocating a fundamental physical
256 constant. So, in the framework of the information approach, the comparative uncertainties achieved in the studies
257 are calculated, which in turn are compared with the theoretically achievable comparative uncertainty inherent in
258 the chosen class of phenomena. Standard uncertainty can be calculated also for quantities that are not normally
259 distributed. 1) inherent in the model, which describes the measurement of the fundamental constant.

260 4 III.

261 5 Applications

262 On the one hand, equation (1) requires the use of an experimental stand with the number of variables
263 corresponding to the chosen class of phenomena. On the other hand, equation (1) clearly indicates the
264 impossibility to develop an experimental device that allows to achieve the exact value of the selected comparative
265 uncertainty for a given measurement result. Its introduction emphasizes the need for the development of new
266 experimental stands suitable for quantifying the quantity under study. The \hat{I}^u_z -hypothesis given in equation
267 (1) makes the lower bound of the change in the entropy of the chosen model inaccessible from theoretical
268 considerations. Our experiment allows us to estimate the comparative uncertainty \hat{I}^u_z / S from the published
269 results, although this is not equivalent to measuring the actual changes in the fundamental constant. This trend
270 is reflected in the spread of the value of comparative uncertainty in comparison with its theoretical-informational
271 lower limit, depending on the chosen class of phenomena.

272 6 a) Hubble constant H_0

273 The current state of Hubble's constant H_0 definitions gives the scale of the length of the universe, connecting
274 the speed of expansion of objects with their distance. There are two broad categories of measurements. In
275 the first case (Λ Cold Dark Matter model - Λ CDM), individual astrophysical objects are used that have some
276 property that allows them to determine their internal brightness or size or allows them to determine their
277 distance geometrically. The second category includes the use of a cosmic microwave background (CMB) in the
278 sky, or the correlation between large samples of galaxies, to determine information about the geometry of the
279 universe and, consequently, the Hubble constant, usually in combination with other cosmological parameters.
280 The current results give a range of the Hubble constant changes from $67 \text{ km} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Mpc}^{-1}$ to $74.3 \text{ km} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Mpc}^{-1}$.
281 Whether there is a discrepancy and whether a new physics is needed to solve it depends on details of
282 the systematic of object-oriented methods, as well as on assumptions about other cosmological parameters and
283 on what data sets are combined in the case of sky methods. Maybe the Hubble constant discrepancy is just due
284 unaccounted uncertainties.

285 Of course, all these measurements have uncertainty. Each research team first produces unprocessed
286 measurements, then attempts to explain the vagaries of individual telescopes, astrophysical unknowns and
287 countless other sources of uncertainty that can hold astronomers all day. Then, all the individual published
288 studies are combined into a single number for the rate of expansion, as well as a measure of how vague this
289 number is.

352 8 c) Maxwell demon

353 Over the past twenty years, both information in the form of a certain substance, and methods of information
354 theory are the subject of special attention of scientists, engineers and philosophers. A great number of studies are
355 devoted not only to clarifying the internal content of the concept of INFORMATION, but also to the application
356 of this unique substance in all fields of human activity: physics, chemistry, biology, psychology, business, etc.
357 The number of theories offered is uncountable. Impressive practical results were obtained using information
358 theory in the field of quantum mechanics, telecommunications, medicine, marketing and the development of
359 non-lethal weapons. At the same time, in theoretical and experimental physics, the number of research papers
360 (with a specific quantitative result) using information theory is catastrophically small; they can be counted on
361 the fingers. The author, being a convinced practitioner, took the liberty and did not delve into the endless and
362 unconvincing theoretical discussions in order to realize the usual calculations (in the sense that all known and
363 generally accepted formulas are used) to quantify the amount of information for several examples.

364 What do the measurements of the fundamental constants and the Maxwell's demon have in common? In fact,
365 a little. Adapting the μ SI -hypothesis, which was used in recent years to test the achievable relative uncertainty
366 in measuring fundamental constants, we are developing a way to better understand specific problems that are
367 closed to the Maxwell problem.

368 In one of his versions, the standard Maxwell's demon is a very small intellectual being endowed with free
369 will, and a fairly subtle tactile and perceptive organization to enable him to observe and influence individual
370 molecules of matter. In Maxwell's thought experiment, two gas chambers, maintained at equal temperatures,
371 are separated by an adiabatic wall with a small hole and a gate that the demon opens and closes. Observing
372 the speed of individual molecules, the demon selectively opens and closes the gate to quickly detach from slow
373 molecules, creating a clean temperature difference between the two chambers. Thus, as the collisions with the
374 shutter are elastic, and moving the shutter is frictionless, no work is performed by the demon. The temperature
375 difference that develops could be exploited by a conventional heat engine to extract work, in violation of second
376 law of thermodynamics.

377 Various researchers suggested different ways by which a demon could select particles in a reversible manner.
378 Leó Szilárd in 1929 [34] argued that the demon must consume energy in the act of measuring the particle speeds
379 and that this consumption will lead to a net increase in the system's entropy. In fact, Szilárd formulated an
380 equivalence between energy and information, and calculated that $k_b \ln 2$ is both the minimum amount of work
381 needed to store one bit of binary information and the maximum that is liberated when this bit is erased, where
382 T is the temperature of the storage medium. Through latest publications [35,36,37,38], one must remember [39],
383 in which there was finally clarified that the demon's role does not contradict the second law of thermodynamics,
384 implying that we can, in principle, convert information to free energy. Toyabe et al in [40] showed that since
385 the energy transformed from the information is compensated by the cost of the demon's energy for manipulating
386 information, the second law of thermodynamics is not violated when a general system involving both a particle
387 and a demon is considered. In the proposed research system, the demon consists of macroscopic devices, such
388 as computers. The microscopic device receives energy due to the energy consumption of the macroscopic device.
389 In other words, using information as an energy transfer medium, this transformation of information into energy
390 can be used to transfer energy to nano machines, even if they cannot be directly controlled. In [41] there was
391 declared that the Maxwell's demon can be converted into free energy by one bit of information obtained by
392 measurement. The authors implemented an electronic Maxwell's demon based on a one-electron unit operating
393 as a Szilard engine, where $k_b \ln 2$ heat is extracted from the reservoir at a temperature T by one bit of
394 generated information. The information was encoded in the position of an additional electron in the box. The
395 authors provided, to their knowledge, the first demonstration of extracting nearly $k_b \ln 2$ of work for one bit
396 of information.

397 After 150 years a satisfactory additional solution of this paradox can be given [7]. In order to prevent the
398 violation of the second law, one must assume that the demon is a conscious observer with knowledge, experience
399 and intuition. Then, before performing any actions, in order to know the velocity of every molecule in the box, he
400 must compose a mental model of the experiment, with no disturbances being brought into the box. In turn, the
401 demon for the development of the model will take advantage of the already well-known International system of
402 units (SI). When modeling a particle movement, the demon may choose quantities, for example, velocity, mass,
403 angle of motion of the particle with respect to the shutter, temperature that may substantially differ from those
404 chosen by another demon, as happened, for example, during the study of electrons that behave like particles or
405 waves. That is why SI can be characterized by equally probable accounting of any quantity chosen by the demon.
406 In this case, the total number of possible dimensionless criteria μ SI of SI with the seven base quantities L, M,
407 T, I, θ , J and F could be calculated (7)

408 9 SI

409 10 38, 265, = ?

410 Then μ SI corresponds to a certain value of entropy and may be calculated by the following formula [7]: $S = H k_b \mu$ (17)

411 where H is entropy of SI including μ SI, equally probable accounted quantities, k_b is the Boltzmann's constant.

413 When a demon chooses the influencing factors (the conscious limitation of the number of quantities that
 414 describe an object, in comparison with the total number μ SI), entropy of the mathematical model changes a
 415 priori. The entropy change is generally measured as follows:

416
$$-pr \text{ ps} = H \text{ H H } \hat{I}'''' \text{ (18)}$$

417 where \hat{I}'''' is the entropy difference between two cases, pr -"a priori" and ps -"a posteriori".

418 "The efficiency Q of the experimental observation method can be defined as the ratio of the information
 419 obtained to the entropy change accompanying the observation" [15]. During a thought demon's experiment, no
 420 distortion is brought into the real system, that is why Q=1. Then one can write it according to [15]:

421
$$? -pr \text{ ps} = = A Q H \text{ H H } \hat{I}'''' \text{ (19)}$$

422 where \hat{I}'''' is the a priori information quantity pertaining to the observed object. Using Equations (???)-(
 423 19) and imposing symbols-where z' is the number of physical dimensional quantities in the selected COP and ?'
 424 is the number of base quantities in the selected COP -lead to the following equation:() ' ? ' -' 1? ? [(ln ? ln)
 425 ' '] pr ps b SI b = = ? ? = A Q H H \hat{I}'''' k μ k z ? ?ln[/ ' ' ()] b SI ? = k μ z ? (20)

426 where \hat{I}'''' is the a priori amount of information pertaining to the observed object due to the choice of the
 427 COP. Following the same reasoning, one can calculate the a priori amount of information \hat{I}'''' , caused by the
 428 number of recorded dimensionless criteria chosen in the model. \hat{I}'''' takes the following form: ?ln[/ ()] (" ' '
 429 " ') ' b ? = ? A k z ? \hat{I}'''' z ? (21)

430 where \hat{I}'''' cannot be defined without declaring the chosen COP (\hat{I}''''); z" is the number of physical
 431 dimensional quantities recorded in a mathematical model and ?" is the number of the base quantities recorded
 432 in a model of box.

433 A minimal amount of information \hat{I}'''' about the observed modeled box is calculated according to the
 434 following: E SI ' ' ln / ' ' [' ()] b = + = ? ? A A A \hat{I}'''' \hat{I}'''' \hat{I}'''' ? μ z ? (22)

435 where \hat{I}'''' is measured in units of entropy [42], z" is the number of physical dimensional quantities recorded
 436 in the mathematical model, ?" is the number of the base dimensional quantities recorded in a model.

437 In order to transform \hat{I}'''' to bits \hat{I}'''' , one should divide it by the following abstract number ? b ?ln2=
 438 9.569926?10 ?24 kg?m 2 ?s ?2 ?K -1 [15,43]. Then Taking into account that ? SI =38,265 and suppose z"-?"=1
 439 (one can choose a larger number of dimensionless criteria, but this does not affect the course of further reasoning
 440 and conclusions, see Table 1), one can calculate the minimum boundary of the motion blur of a particle in the
 441 eyes of a demon b [38, 265] 0.6931472 . ln / / 11(bits) = ? A \hat{I}'''' (24) Thus, equation (??4) contains a very
 442 strong hint that the demon is not able to clearly distinguish the exact state of a large number of particles. There
 443 are no glasses that could correct the sight of the demon. This closes the possibility of developing a device that
 444 could distinguish between fluctuations in individual particle velocities. Hence it is clear that any material physical
 445 device, in comparison with a mental thought experiment (conscious, without a material shell by a demon), will
 446 require much more information and energy for the release of any gate movement.

447 Let us apply \hat{I}'''' (24) corresponding to the insurmountable threshold mismatch ("cloud" of blurring)
 448 between the vision of the demon and the actual situation in the box with the particles, i.e. amount of information
 449 inherent in a particle. As an example, consider that the radius of the particle is determined by the region, in
 450 which it can produce some effect. According to [44], a radius of single photon r p in energy region of Ep =2.1
 451 GeV equals 2.8?10 ?15 metres. In this case, the amount of information contained in one photon is [45]: () bp p
 452 p 2? ?r ?E / ? () ?ln2 270(bit). c ? = ? ? ? (25)

453 where ? bp is the information amount expressed in bits and corresponding to the photon's sphere; r p is the
 454 radius of photon expressed in meters, 2.8?10 -15 m [44]; c is the light speed, c = 299,792,458 m/s, ? is the reduced
 455 Plank constant, ? = 1.054572?10 ?34 m?kg?s ?1 , ln2 = 0.693147, ? = 3.141593.

456 Thus, the minimum boundary of the motion blur of the particle in the eyes of the demon (in bits) is much less
 457 than the information contained in the photon (270 bit » 11 bit). However, this fact does not in any way allow us
 458 to state that the demon, after preliminary modeling, will be able to carry in one direction particles moving at high
 459 speed, and in the other way -particles having a low speed, thereby violating the second law of thermodynamics.
 460 On the contrary, the demon will need information through a measuring device that is comparable in magnitude
 461 to the information inherent in the particle. This, in turn, will require the performance of work, which will lead
 462 to an increase in entropy in the total volume of the casket.

463 The proposed approach provides only a hint of how much information a demon and the observed particle have
 464 before starting any action with a system box-demon or about "uncertainty" in the mind of someone about to
 465 receive a message [46].

466 11 d) Universe information associated with energy

467 In connection with the foregoing, there is an amazing possibility (and for the readers maybe a very controversial
 468 one) of applying the results obtained in analyzing the status of the miniature demon Maxwell to the problems
 469 associated with clarifying the energy of the observed universe.

470 Experiments and theories developed in theoretical physics over the past decades have demonstrated the
 471 significant role of information, the amount of which physicists usually identify with entropy, but which can
 472 be more general when used to explain the emerging complexity of the universe. One of the most attractive
 473 features of the Bekenstein formula [47] is that it allows us to compose an idea of the possible connection between
 474 energy and information contained in the universe.

475 For this purpose, let us recall [47], in which it was proved that the amount of information of any physical
 476 system must be finite if the space of object and its energy are finite. In informational terms, this bound is given
 477 by $b = (2^{R^3 E} / (k_B \ln 2)) \ln 2$, (26)

478 where b is the information expressed in the number of bits contained in the quantum states of the chosen
 479 object sphere. The $\ln 2$ factor (approximately 0.693149) comes from defining the information as the natural
 480 logarithm of the number of quantum states, R is the radius of an object sphere that can enclose the given system,
 481 E is the total mass-energy, including rest masses, k_B is the reduced Planck constant, and c is the speed of light.
 482 Further, the Landauer principle [39], which is applicable to all systems in nature, asserts that the minimum
 483 amount of energy required to destroy one bit of information is $k_B T \ln 2$, (27)

484 where T is the temperature in kelvins of environment.
 485 It is important to note that the equivalent bit energy depends on the temperature of the described system.
 486 The average temperature of the universe today is approximately $T = 2.73\text{K}$ [48], based on measurements of cosmic
 487 microwave background radiation. Therefore, with a bit of imagination and an essential assumption, in order to
 488 transform b to terms of the ordinary energy E , one should multiply it by $k_B T \ln 2$.

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490 $E = b k_B T \ln 2 = (2^{R^3 E} / (k_B \ln 2)) k_B T \ln 2$, (28)

491 or $E/E = (2^{R^3 E} / (k_B \ln 2)) / (k_B T \ln 2)$ (29)

492 Using the dimensional analysis, we verify the achieved dimension of equation (29). $\dim R = \text{m}$; $\dim b = \text{kg}^2 \text{m}^2$
 493 $\text{s}^{-2} \text{K}^{-1}$; $\dim k_B = \text{J/K}$; $\dim T = \text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-2} \text{s}^{-2}$; $\dim c = \text{m/s}$; (30) $\dim (E/E) = \text{m}^2 \text{kg}^2 \text{s}^{-2} \text{K}^{-1}$
 494 $\text{K}/(\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-2} \text{s}^{-2}) = 1$

495 So, at least, from the point of view of the dimensional analysis there is not a fatal mistake.

496 Further, the age of universe T_{univ} is about 13.7 ± 0.13 billion years or 4.308595×10^{17} s [49].

497 Then, taking into account $c = 299,792,458$ m/s, the imaginary spherical shell of the Universe has a radius: $R_{\text{univ}} = T_{\text{univ}} c = 1.291684 \times 10^{26}$ (m).

498 (31)

499 It should be noted that there is no known boundary, that is, R_{univ} is an approximate value. When people
 500 talk about the size of observable universe, this means the estimated distance to the most distant objects that we
 501 can see here. This does not mean that there is nothing further; it simply means that we do not see it.

502 In this case, one can get the numerical relationship between energy corresponding to amount of information
 503 and the energy associated with matter, which contained in a universe sphere: Thus, we have shown that the
 504 energy associated with information makes a significant contribution to the total energy of the universe. Of course,
 505 this (32) is a rough estimate. It is interesting to note that 10^{30} is much less than 10^{122} . According to the
 506 holographic principle, the last huge number represents an upper bound on the information content of the universe
 507 [50]. Since information energy can make a significant contribution to the dark energy and dark matter of the
 508 universe, scientists need to study it more closely. Maybe this value (10^{30}) can also be a signal of some kind of
 509 new interaction of matter and information. $E/E = (2^{R^3 E} / (k_B \ln 2)) / (k_B T \ln 2)$

510 Therefore, more is unknown than known. Besides this, it is a complete secret. But this is an important secret.
 511 The rest is everything on the Earth, everything that has ever been observed with all our instruments, all normal
 512 energy, is a meager part of the universe. Think about it, perhaps it is not a "normal" at all, since it is such a small
 513 part of the universe. But what kind of information is this? Perhaps information itself is a fundamental entity
 514 of the physical universe. Is it "ontological" -the real substance from which space, time and matter emerge? Or
 515 is it "epistemic" -something that only represents our state of knowledge about reality? Ultimately, information
 516 can be a key element in the constitution of physical reality and it is a decisive content in physical systems and
 517 technological processes. The explicit relationship between entropy and information, using the concept of objective
 518 quantitative information of Shannon, was formalized in [51], and this can be regarded as irrefutable confirmation
 519 of information as a physical entity.

520 Such a dramatic gap of 10^{30} between the amounts of energy associated with the ordinary matter and the
 521 energy due to information can be conditioned with the assumptions originally assumed: the universe is not a
 522 sphere; the average temperature of the universe can be much lower than the observed temperature; for the giant
 523 distance scale, the Landauer's limit is not satisfied.

524 The presented results (31), (32), (33) are simply a routine calculation by formulas known in the scientific
 525 literature. At the same time, only experts of quantum electrodynamics or the theory of gravity can "separate
 526 wheat from chaff". However, if the Bekenstein formula and the Landauer's limit have a physical explanation,
 527 perhaps the result (32) can be used to study the universe.

528 Additional explanation of how information acquires energy comes from the quantum theory of matter. In this
 529 theory, "empty space" is actually full of temporal ("virtual") particles that are constantly being formed, possessing
 530 certain information, and then disappear. But when we tried to calculate how much energy this information gives
 531 to the empty space, the answer turned out to be erroneous -wrong by a lot. The number of 10^{30} is too large. It
 532 is difficult to get such an answer. So, the mystery exists.

533 Another explanation of the significant magnitude of the energy corresponding to the information contained in
 534 the universe is that it is a new kind of field energy that fills the whole space. But if the information itself is the
 535

536 answer, we still do not know what it is, what it interacts with or how it exists in the universe. Thus, the mystery
537 continues.

538 More speculatively, a last possibility is that Einstein's theory of gravity is not correct. That would affect the
539 way that normal matter in galaxies behaved. This fact would provide a way to decide if the solution of the
540 amount of information is a possible and inadmissible part of the new gravity theory or not. Thus, there are many
541 questions, no answers. That is why; things are still not so bad as to expect improvement.

542 As an alternative to dark energy and dark matter, the energy due to information contained in the universe
543 can serve as a fundamental component [52][53][54][55]. The giant difference between the two types of energy (32)
544 makes it possible to assert that the universe is isotropic-the same in all directions-and homogeneous, without
545 the regions of the cosmos, which have special, peculiar characteristics. Equation (??2) cannot be an illusion
546 caused by mathematics. It does not just come out by accident. Does this mean that our universe consists of
547 information, and the associated energy is responsible for the inhibition of space and time and the accelerating
548 expansion that we observe? It is difficult for the matter-of-fact physicist to agree with this point of view. Maybe
549 there are better ideas? It is tempting to look for links and analogies, even if they are at first considered bad for
550 discussion. Perhaps in the future these two problems are not as fragmented as they might seem. Formulating
551 a problem that at first glance seems completely extravagant can sometimes, with further reflection, acquire real
552 meaning and become very meaningful for the further development of science.

553 13 IV. Discussion

554 Apparently, the application of information theory to calculate measurement uncertainty will be unnatural for
555 some readers. If you ask why such cases are generally considered, then instead of the answer it is useful to recall
556 the English anecdote about the doctorpathologist. One of his students said that he does not see the benefits of
557 pathological physiology, because it is so unnatural. The doctor called him a fool and added: Only by studying
558 pathology, it is possible to establish true health conditions. At present, the term "comparative uncertainty", as
559 well as "information contained in the model", "change in entropy in a mental experiment," obtained the rights
560 of citizenship. Physical systems, which include such elements, are systems used both in experimental physics
561 and in any technological processes. In this paper, various applications of the information-oriented method are
562 presented. The ? SI hypothesis made it possible to establish the fact that scientists may approach, but never
563 reach, the comparative uncertainty corresponding to the chosen COP. Regardless of the implementation of super
564 power computers, brilliant modern data processing methods and unique test benches, comparative uncertainty,
565 even with the required number of dimensionless criteria, will be unattainable. In addition, the ? SI hypothesis
566 made it possible to judge the appropriate limit of the accuracy of measurements in each individual case.

567 Under the proposed approach, for each mathematical model of physical law there is an uncertainty, which
568 initially, before the full-scale experimental studies, or computer simulations, describes its proximity to the
569 examined physical phenomenon or process. This value is called the comparative uncertainty. It depends only
570 on the number of selected quantities and the observation interval of the selected primary quantity. One of the
571 interesting features of the proposed hypothesis is that the minimum achievable comparative uncertainty is not
572 constant and varies depending on the class of phenomena choice. Moreover, theory can predict its value. In
573 particular, this means that when switching from a mechanistic model (LM?) to COP with a larger number of
574 the base quantities, this uncertainty grows. This change is due to the potential effects of the interaction between
575 the increased number of quantities that can be taken into account or not taken into account by the researcher.

576 On the one hand, well-known physical laws are valid in a certain area and served as a reliable tool in everyday
577 life. At the same time, taking into account the experience of the creation of special relativity theory, we know
578 that the achieved accuracy of the description of the world is not satisfactory. On the other hand, fundamental
579 physical constants currently measured with high accuracy. However, it is not sufficient to be able to modify the
580 International system of units (SI). The proposed approach allows us to estimate the limits of our knowledge and
581 to reveal an insurmountable barrier for identifying compliance of model and the object studied. A clear evidence
582 of this is a possibility to estimate the minimum attainable value of the relative uncertainty for the gravitational
583 constant, Planck's constant, the fine structure constant, Boltzmann's constant, Avogadro's constant, especially
584 considering that the predictions do not contain quantities that can be chosen intuitively or based on statistical
585 methods.

586 14 V. Conclusions

587 In addition to the relative uncertainty analysis, the introduced approach could enable new methodology that
588 will help the additional monitoring the measurement accuracy of fundamental physical constants. The use of the
589 ?-hypothesis only limits the domain of applicability of measurement theory for uncertainties that are much larger
590 than the uncertainty of the physical-mathematical model due to its finiteness. By introducing the comparative
591 uncertainty concept along with known physical laws, we can verify required relative uncertainties values of
592 fundamental physical constants that must be recommended for identifying concrete ways in perfecting SI. The
593 suggested approach is a mathematical tool that allows describing a physical system with the lowest uncertainty,
594 which is a surprisingly simple relation.

595 If the measure of the beauty of the theory is the ratio of the number of things that it explains, how many
596 assumptions it makes for their explanation, then the information-oriented approach seems very promising. ? SI
597 hypothesis does refer to a real place of the surrounding world. It might be applicable to experimental verification.
598 In general, it is available when the researcher has all the information about the uncertainty interval of the main
599 quantity. Moreover, ? SI hypothesis provides new functionalities useful for micro-and macro-physics including
600 engineering, astronomy, and quantum electrodynamics. The comparative uncertainty can be a peculiar metric
601 for the assessing the measurement accuracy of physical laws and fundamental physical constants.

602 The information-oriented approach, in particular, IARU, makes it possible to calculate with high accuracy
603 the relative uncertainty, which is in a good agreement with the recommendations of CODATA. The principal
604 difference of this method, in comparison with the existing statistical and expert methodology of CODATA
605 (actually all statistical methods are unreliable some more and some less [56]), is the fact that the information
606 method is theoretically justified.

607 There is a weak tension between some (but not all) astrophysical measurements and cosmological conclusions.
608 There are several ways to look at it. First, one or more methods are now limited to systematic; in other words,
609 the subject is limited to accuracy, not precision, and that close attention to the underestimated systematic will
610 lead to a convergence of values in the next few years. Secondly, it is possible that the new physics is involved
611 outside the change in the index of dark energy. New physical experiments will require a relative uncertainty of
612 1% or less of the definitions of H_0 , given the current state of play in cosmology.

613 Significant differences in the values of the comparative uncertainties achieved in the experiments of measuring
614 H_0 and calculated in accordance with the IACU can be explained as follows. The very concept of comparative
615 uncertainty, within the framework of the information approach, assumes an equally probable account of various
616 quantities, regardless of their specific choice by scientists when formulating a model for measuring a particular
617 fundamental constant. Based on their experience, intuition and knowledge, the researchers build a model
618 containing a small number of quantities, and which, in their opinion, reflects the fundamental essence of
619 the process under investigation. In this case, many phenomena, perhaps not significant, secondary, which
620 characterized by specific quantities, are not taken into account.

621 For example, when measuring the value of the Hubble constant by CMB (CoP SI ? LMT), some assumptions
622 are advanced: dynamic dark energy is modeled as an ideal fluid; flat universe; a fixed cosmological model. Thus,
623 the developers do not take into account that: the recognition of dark energy in the form of an ideal fluid is
624 physically inconsistent and does not adequately approach the evolution of dark energy; in the real world the
625 universe is not flat; the expected model may differ slightly from the models taken for analysis, etc. In this
626 case, we get a paradoxical situation. On one side, different groups of scientists dealing with the problem of
627 measuring a certain fundamental constant and using the same method of measurement "learn" from each other
628 and improve the test stand to reduce uncertainties known to them. This is clearly seen using the IARU method:
629 when measuring, for example, h , k_B , N_A , γ , G , all the relative uncertainties are very consistent, especially for
630 measurements made in recent years. However, ignoring a large number of secondary factors, which are neglected
631 by experimenters, leads to a significant variance in the comparative uncertainties calculated by the IACU method.

632 Obviously, the coordination of a probabilistic subatomic world with a macroscopic everyday world is one of
633 the greatest unsolved problems in physics. The use of the ? SI hypothesis opens the possibility of combining
634 these two worlds: from Maxwell's demon to cosmology and astrophysics.

635 ? SI hypothesis allows to obtain the entropy cost associated with the acquisition of the demon information.
636 Any demon, no matter how smart it is, must perform measurements. Certainly, when creating a model for the
637 separation of particles, it is necessary to consider in detail the constitution of a rational being. The possession of
638 information can indeed be regarded as a decrease in entropy. However, in the case of mental modeling, obtaining
639 information does not require the dissipation of heat, and there is no threat to the generalized form of the second
640 law.

641 Mental modeling requires us to say something about the demon itself as a physical being. A demon can
642 perform a modelling without energy dissipation. This fully corresponds to the position of the Brillouin. He
643 characterized the information as "connected" if it was embodied in states of the physical device, but he bluntly
644 stated that information contained only in the mind is "free", and not "connected". Now the connection between
645 entropy and information becomes more understandable. When the demon leaves the system, he can be viewed as
646 an agent that has information about the system. Uncertainty in the description of the system can be considered
647 as a lack of knowledge of the demon about the exact state of the system. If the demon has more information, the
648 system's entropy is smaller. However, once the demon can obtain information without dissipation, the system's
649 entropy decreases, and the only compensation appears to be an increase in the uncertainty of the state of the
650 demon itself. ¹

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COP SI	Comparative uncertainty	Number of criteria
LMT	0.0048	0.2 < 1
LMTF	0.0146	? 2
LMTI	0.0244	? 6
LMT?	0.0442	? 19
LMTIF	0.0738	? 52
LMT?F	0.1331	? 169
LMT?I	0.2220	? 471
LMT?FI	0.6665	? 4,249

Figure 1: Table 1 :

inherent in the model describing the measurement of the fundamental constant is multiplied by the possible interval of placement of the observed fundamental constant S selected r IARU = \hat{I} ?"

[Note: z to obtain the absolute experimental uncertainty value \hat{I} ?" IARU in accordance with the IARU, \hat{I} ?" IARU = ? T ? S z . 6. To calculate the relative uncertainty r IARU in accordance with the IARU, this absolute uncertainty \hat{I} ?" IARU is divided by the arithmetic mean of the]

Figure 2:

4. experimental calculation of comparative uncertainty ?

Transformation of different types of uncertainty sources into standard uncertainty is very important. In what

follows, this method is denoted as IACU and includes the following steps: 1. From the published data of each experiment, the value z, relative uncertainty r z and standard uncertainty u z (possible interval of placing) of the fundamental physical constant are chosen.

2. The experimental absolute uncertainty \hat{I} ?" z is calculated by multiplying the fundamental physical

[Note: constant value z and its relative uncertainty r z attained during the experiment, \hat{I} ?" z = z ? r z .3. The achieved experimental comparative uncertainty of each published research ? IACUi is calculated by dividing the experimental absolute uncertainty \hat{I} ?" z on the standard uncertainty u z , ? IACUi = \hat{I} ?" z / u z .]

Figure 3:

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Year	Hubble constant H_0	Achieved relative uncertainty r_H	Absolute uncertainty	H_0 possible interval placing	Calculated comparative uncertainty	Calculated comparative uncertainty	Ref.
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Figure 4: Table 2 :

3

Fundamental constant	Designation	Dimension	Class of phenomena	The analyzed interval of publications	Published, recommended relative uncertainty	Year 2019 7 I Version I Volume XIX Issue () A of Researches in Engineering Global Journal Calculated relative uncertainty (IARU)
Boltzmann constant	k b	$m^2 g^{-2} K^{-1}$	LMT	2015 -2018	$3.7 \cdot 10^{-7}$ [28]	$2.8 \cdot 10^{-7}$
Plank constant	h	$m^2 g^{-2}$	LMT	2007 -2014	$9.1 \cdot 10^{-9}$ [29]	$8.7 \cdot 10^{-9}$
Avogadro constant	N A	mol ⁻¹	LMT	2001 -2015	$2 \cdot 10^{-8}$ [30]	$1.7 \cdot 10^{-8}$
Inverse fine structure constant	α^{-1}		LMT	2006 -2014	$2.9 \cdot 10^{-11}$ [31]	$2.9 \cdot 10^{-11}$
Gravitational constant	G	$m^3 g^{-1} s^{-2}$	LMT	2000-2016	$4.7 \cdot 10^{-5}$ [32]	$1.35 \cdot 10^{-5}$

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Figure 5: Table 3 :

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