

Structural information theory

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A method of defining structural information in Hilbert space is described. Instead of commencing an information theory analysis with a simple signal and progressing to an n -dimensional information space, the procedure can be followed: the signal is defined completely in both real and imaginary spaces, and is represented as a dimensionless number in Hilbert space. Thus, a signal can be analyzed into a Hilbert measure of information. This measure has similarities to the relativity of states of Everett's (1957) reformulation of quantum mechanics involving observer-observed interaction. Whereas Everett's theory deals with the totality of all possible ways in which a state function can be decomposed into the sum of products of functions for subsystems of the overall system, the theory presented here deals with the totality of possible ways in which a Hilbert space measure of signal state can be decomposed by signal definition into reciprocally related measures of the state for subsystems of the overall system. In the overall system presented here, a signal is given a concise representation either as a quadratic form on a Hilbert space, or as a Fourier coefficients in a function space. The total information content of a signal qualified as a dimensionless number in Hilbert space may be given a representation in familiar units by the use of such methods. A primary postulate of quantum mechanics is obeyed in that all physically relevant information about a system is derivable from the knowledge of the state function of the system. Thus, a signal is defined *firstly* as an information measure, and *secondly* in the familiar units of frequency, bandwidth, midperiod, and duration.

Subject Classification: 15.2

INTRODUCTION

The *logon*—an elementary signal or structural "quantum" of information measurement—is defined (Stewart, 1931; Kock, 1935; Gabor, 1946; Kharkevich, 1960; Brillouin, 1962; Pimonow, 1962; Barrett, 1971) as

$$\Delta f \cdot \Delta t = \frac{1}{2}, \quad (1)$$

where Δf is the "effective" signal bandwidth and Δt is the "effective" signal duration. Such a unit can define certain aspects of the oscillatory response of any system of one mechanical or structural degree of freedom, with a second degree of freedom given by the duration of its response considered as a signal. One illustration is that a reed responding to an electrical signal has one mechanical degree of freedom with a response defined by solutions of the homogenous equation (Corliss, 1963):

$$M\ddot{x} + D\dot{x} + kx = 0, \quad (2)$$

where M is inertia, D dissipation, k the coefficient of restitution, and x the mechanical coordinate with one degree of freedom.

More complex systems present problems in relating the elementary signal to the structural system considered, as more structural degrees of freedom are involved. For example, the central nervous system (CNS), viewed as an information conveying system, has more than one degree of freedom. The sensory receptor of the auditory system behaves with continuously varying coefficients (equivalent to M , D , and k in Eq. 2), and has at least four degrees of freedom

(Rink, 1970). Presently, there is an adequate mathematical treatment of the cochlear fluid or endolymph within the cochlear duct (Békésy, 1965). This paper will treat only one degree of freedom case, but another communication (Barrett, 1972b) points out some interesting implications. More than one degree of freedom is treated in specific mathematics required to understand the mechanics will not be provided here, but the theory with which such a system must be treated.

Before commencing a complete signal information theory terms, it is first necessary to emphasize that the information theory approach is concerned with information structure and not with Shannon theory, which is a related but distinct concept (Barrett, 1972d). Secondly, the defining terms of bandwidth, duration, midperiod, and midperiod requires four distinct units of measurement and not two (Barrett, 1972c). The rest of the statement are as follows.

The definition of an information measure in only two parameters—signal bandwidth and duration—casts doubt on the elegance of the usual approach to signal by circular functions in the time domain. For instance, if a signal is defined by a circular function together with statements concerning its duration and bandwidth—one is confined by a method which is adequate enough for most purposes. Other writers (cf. Gabor, 1946) have proposed the Fourier methods require infinite resolution. The *logon* definition has shortcomings, as

relation, but does not reference in one definition: (a) the center frequency of the signal (measured in cycles/second or hertz); (b) the duration of the signal (measured in seconds/cycle), or the variance of energy dispersion in the frequency domain. Thus, neither circular functions nor integrals offer a complete definition of the signal. A set of functions does not define the concept of a signal but merely expresses the values of a signal in specific domains. For signal definition, a set of functions can be a basis, but coefficients are necessary in vector space.

A major argument against the conventional use of circular functions is that Fourier's theorem treats time as infinite (Gabor, 1946, 1947a, 1947b, 1953). The use of circular functions appears based on, for our purposes, extended pragmatism. Their usefulness lies in the possibility of defining a signal in circular function form without a referent to the frequency domain; i.e., if infinite time is presupposed, a circular function has an exact definition in the frequency domain. It is common knowledge that signal redefinition may be accomplished by an integral transform. However, the presupposition of infinite time is questionable and circular functions appear to be too restrictive a language for structural information theory.

It is instructive to consider the nature of integral transforms—especially the nature of the exponential kernel. The exponential kernel may be defined as the solution to the important functional equation (Cauchy, 1939, p. 139):

$$F(e_1 + e_2) = F(e_1)F(e_2), \quad (3)$$

where e is the solution to this equation and ϵ is complex with a finite positive real part. As a kernel of an integral transform, the exponential provides a means for redefining a signal in any domain defined by the exponential function and the integral operation. This is a solution to Eq. 3 is a function of a peculiar nature, a function that defines the addition of a function as equivalent to the multiplication of a function as equivalent to an integral transform provides an entrance into a new domain, which is referenced by the variable ϵ . The exponential function, but which is represented in the integration space. Geometric information is performed on the signal, but the exponential function has a referent to the second domain or domain. Circular functions do have a referent to time and frequency domains, but an integral transform will be defined over a function defined only over one domain. The use of integral transform methods—mathematical correctness exists—may provide a physically impossible signal redefinition. Because cir-

cular functions are popularly used for signal definition, and are assumed to be of infinite duration, the most common domain in which to redefine a signal is the frequency domain using the Fourier transform method. Since information about the duration of the signal is required for logon representation, a structural information theory is, perhaps, more easily approached with other methods.

More concise methods involve a complete signal definition that refers to four observables: the natural or midperiod of the signal (t_0), the duration of the signal (Δt), the center or midfrequency of the signal (f_0), and the signal bandwidth (Δf). Quantification of the signal in these dimensions involves different units: seconds/cycle for the midperiod (t_0), seconds for the duration (Δt), cycles/second or hertz for the midfrequency (f_0), and cycles for the bandwidth (Δf) (Barrett, 1972c). The midperiod (t_0) and the midfrequency (f_0) are defined over both the frequency and time domains and are reciprocal measures of rate or succession involving sequence spaces in the terms of functional analysis. The duration (Δt) and the bandwidth (Δf) are defined separately, do not measure rate or succession, and involve integration spaces (Maddox, 1970).

It may be necessary to defend the usage of different units for signal bandwidth and midfrequency. Bandwidth has no real representation in the time domain—according to our analysis. Bandwidth, a number, refers only to the frequency domain. Association with circular functions, which do refer to both the frequency and time domains, may have obscured the singular nature of signal bandwidth. The use of Fourier methods introduces a circular function redefinition in the frequency domain in which signal bandwidth may also be defined, and thereby may conceal the fact that no temporal referent exists for a bandwidth variable.

An example may be of use: a bandwidth of, say, 20 cycles, is not a rate, i.e., the units should not be hertz, as the upper and lower bounds of the bandwidth may refer to 180 and 200 hertz or 1180–1200 hertz, or any other numbers with a difference of 20. It is, therefore, necessary to know the average or midfrequency (f_0) of the signal before the upper and lower bounds of the bandwidth (measured in hertz) can be given a precise significance. According to this conception, bandwidth is only indirectly equal to the upper signal frequency passed minus the lower signal frequency passed. It may be overemphasizing to point out that the result of such a subtraction is not measured, therefore, in hertz. Bandwidth quantifies a physical occurrence that is neither a rate nor a speed.

I. ARGUMENT

From this separation of units defining a signal, our goal of a more concise, if not "truer," signal analysis may be pursued, to account for the disparate nature of information defined over an integration space and that

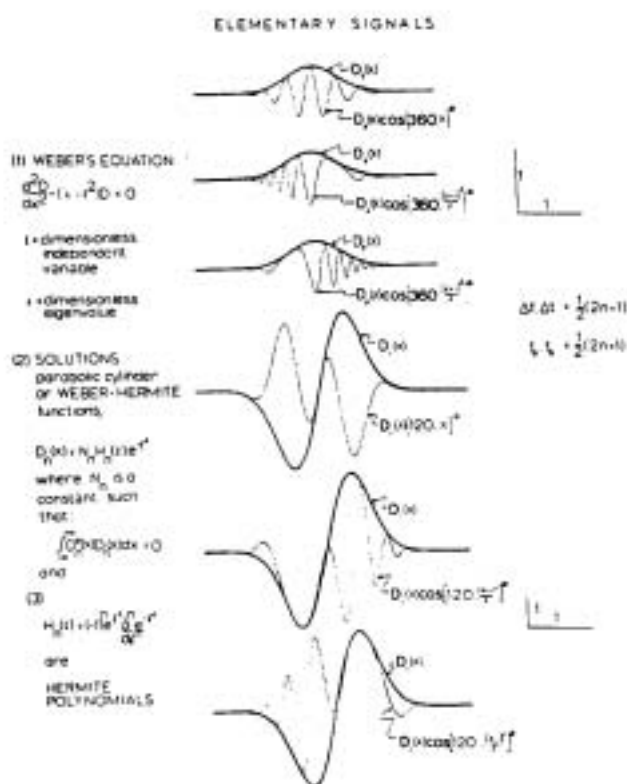


FIG. 1. The elementary signal defined by the conditions— $\Delta f \cdot \Delta t = \frac{1}{2}$ and $f_0 \cdot t_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ — $D_0(x)$ in the notation of this figure—is the first in a series of modulations and may also modulate different functions. Here are shown elementary signals with amplitude modulations $D_1(x)$ and $D_2(x)$. In the first of each three the modulated signal is a sinusoidal function; in the second and third the amplitude modulated signal is also frequency modulated—either ascending or descending. The frequency modulation is such that $\Delta f \cdot f_0 = \frac{1}{2}(2n+1)$ where Δf is change in frequency and f_0 is center frequency. [From Barrett, 1971, p. 133.]

defined over a sequence space. Reconciliation of the two spaces is provided by a Hilbert space representation.

The requirements for Eq. 1 may be obtained in the time and frequency domains by the following definitions (Gabor, 1947):

$$s(t) = e^{-c^2(t-t_0)^2} \cdot e^{i2\pi f_0 t}; \quad s(f) = e^{-(x/c)^2(f-f_0)^2} \cdot e^{-i2\pi x t_0} \quad (4)$$

The c in Eq. 4 is related to the duration and the bandwidth of the signal:

$$\Delta t = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} / c, \quad \Delta f = c / \sqrt{2\pi} \quad (5)$$

The expressions $e^{-c^2(t-t_0)^2}$ and $e^{-(x/c)^2(f-f_0)^2}$ refer to the spread or dispersion of signal energy in the time and frequency domains. But Δt and Δf are only obliquely referenced by these expressions, because Δt does not equal $(t-t_0)^2$ and Δf does not equal $(f-f_0)^2$. This is because—to reiterate our point— f , t , f_0 , and t_0 are variables of a sequence space measuring rates, and Δf and Δt are variables of an integration space *not* measur-

ing rates. The association of $(t-t_0)^2$ and $(f-f_0)^2$ and Δf arises because a measurement in seconds/cycle can be related to a measurement in seconds, and, likewise, a measurement in cycles/seconds (hertz) can be related to a measurement in cycles without direct equalization.

Given four observables of a signal instead of two, reorganizing of informational quanta is called for. Another bounding condition for an elementary signal may be defined relating the logical resolution limit of f_0 and t_0 :

$$f_0 \cdot t_0 = \frac{1}{2}$$

In effect, Eq. 6 amounts to setting the constant in Eq. 4 equal to unity, and an elementary signal becomes a four-dimensional measure in both integration and sequence spaces. Thereby, the variety of elementary logon signal forms obtainable by the Gabor (1947) formulation due to variation in the value of the constant c no longer exists once information is defined and measured.

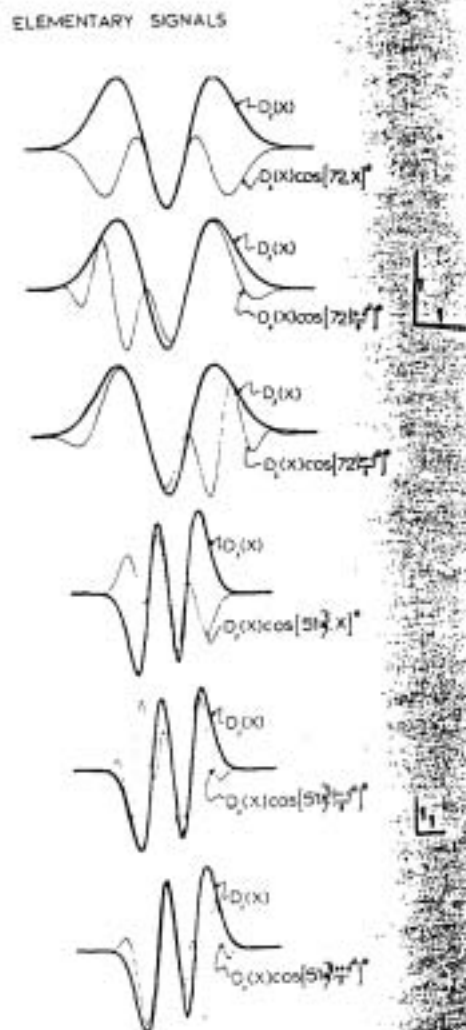


FIG. 2. Elementary signals with amplitude modulation $D_1(x)$ and $D_2(x)$; otherwise as in Fig. 1. [From Barrett, 1971, p. 133.]

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ELEMENTARY SIGNALS

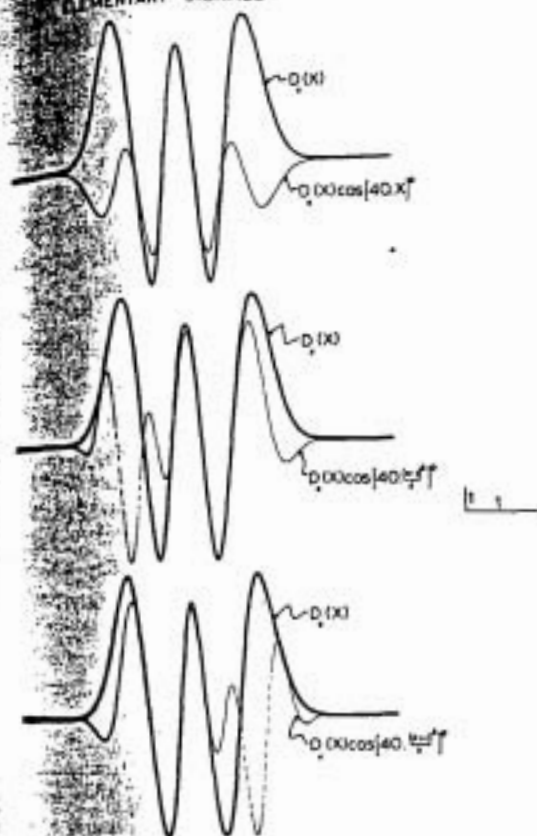


Fig. 3. Elementary signals with amplitude modulation $D_s(x)$; otherwise as in Fig. 1. [From Barrett, 1971, p. 134.]

integration space but also sequence spaces. A four-dimensional informational quantum has a rigidly defined form for every minimum condition, such as those of Fig. 1 and 6 (cf. Figs. 1-4).

The definition of elementary signals in vector form not only expresses values of a signal but provides an explicit definition. Elementary signals can be defined (Barrett, 1972a):

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \Delta f \cdot \Delta t + j f_0 \cdot t_0 \text{ in subspace } \mathfrak{R}_1, \\ \beta &= \Delta f \cdot \Delta t - j f_0 \cdot t_0 \text{ in subspace } \mathfrak{R}_2. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

In this formulation, two pairs of canonically conjugate variables (Courant and Hilbert, 1953, p. 223) are introduced, with

$$\beta = \alpha^*, \quad (8)$$

where $*$ denotes complex conjugation. A signal is defined as the inner product $\alpha\alpha^*$ of two vectors x and y , with invariant components in the subspaces \mathfrak{R}_1 and \mathfrak{R}_2 :

$$\begin{aligned} x &= i\Delta f \cdot \Delta t + j f_0 \cdot t_0 \text{ for } \mathfrak{R}_1, \\ y &= i\Delta f \cdot \Delta t - j f_0 \cdot t_0 \text{ for } \mathfrak{R}_2. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where i and j are orthogonal unit vectors; i has the dimension of cycles-seconds and j (to a stationary reference) is dimensionless.² An inner product or Hilbert

space \mathfrak{R} may be defined as

$$\mathfrak{R} = \mathfrak{R}_1 \cdot \mathfrak{R}_2. \quad (10)$$

The elementary signal definitions of Eq. 7 thus reduce to a real number. With $\Delta f \cdot \Delta t = \frac{1}{2}$ and $f_0 \cdot t_0 = \frac{1}{2}$, $\alpha\alpha^* = \frac{1}{2}$. If an arbitrary signal is redefined as a set of elementary signals, then $\alpha\alpha^*$ is a real number measure of the signal's information structure.

The procedure used in obtaining this simple signal definition is the reverse of that normally used in information theory analyses. Usually, a signal is defined as a simple circular function and the derivation proceeds until a complex information space definition results. Here, a complex signal is defined (exactly), and a simple information structure definition is obtained.

II. PRELIMINARY DISCUSSION

There are certain similarities in the procedure used here to that of the "relative state" formulation of quan-

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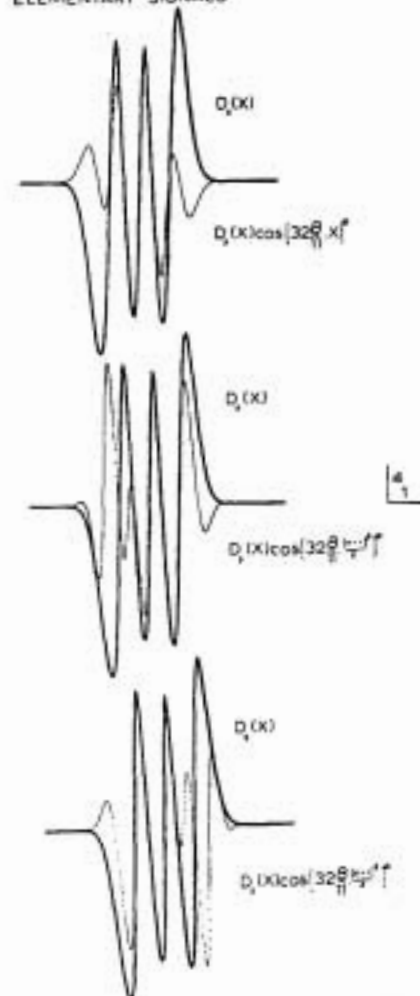


Fig. 4. Elementary signals with amplitude modulation $D_s(x)$; otherwise as in Fig. 1. [From Barrett, 1971, p. 134.]

tum mechanics (Everett, 1957; Wheeler, 1957; DeWitt, 1968), with the difference that the topic addressed here is that of "relative measure" rather than a "relative state." However, it is instructive to notice the similarities.

Everett (1957) proposed a physical system completely describable by a state function ψ , which is an element of Hilbert space and gives information specifying the probabilities of the results of various observations that can be made on the system by "external observers." Everett's concern with the interaction of system and observer is not a primary concern of this paper, and I have also addressed the topic of the results of these observations rather than the means of obtaining them. Everett thus addresses the problem of observer-observed interaction, but the underlying physical processes of his solution are similar.

Our short exposition of Everett's theory continues: a "relativity of states" is postulated, namely, that with any arbitrary chosen state for one subsystem, there will correspond a unique *relative state* for the remainder of the composite system; the states occupied by the subsystems are not independent but *correlated*. Similarly, I have defined signals in subdomains (\mathfrak{M}_i) linked by the reciprocal relations of Eqs. 1 and 6. A signal defined in one subdomain is a "relative measure" for the other subdomain.

In the new or "relative state" formalism, this model associates with an isolated system a state function that obeys a linear wave equation. The theory deals with the totality of all possible ways in which this state function can be decomposed into the sum of products of state functions for subsystems of the overall system—and nothing more [Wheeler, 1957, p. 463].

This paper, on the other hand, addresses the problem of the totality of possible ways in which a measure of state defined by a Hilbert space representation can be decomposed by signal definition into reciprocally related measures, thus defining the state for subsystems of the overall system.

There is a need to conceptualize a "relative measure" definition of information in the CNS. Information is registered in the CNS in an analog fashion and reflects the subdomain definitions presented here. The frequency domain is physically represented at the basilar membrane and other stations of the auditory pathway, where a "tonotopic" arrangement of nerve fibers exists. The time domain is in evidence in the synchronous firing of auditory cells. Taken as a volume, the four observables of information measurement are apparent in the CNS related to the four dimensions used in defining the vectors x and y . The rotations or redefinitions of axes obtained at the various stations in the CNS can be considered as follows: let a vector X , which is not an elementary signal, be defined in elementary signal terms by its expansion of coefficients C_i , where $C_1 = \Delta F \cdot \Delta T$ and $C_2 = F_0 \cdot T_0$ (ΔF , ΔT , F_0 , and T_0 are an arbitrary signal's bandwidth, duration, midfrequency,

and midperiod, respectively). Let a vector D , which is not an elementary signal, be defined by its expansion of coefficients, D_i , where $D_1 = \Delta F \cdot \Delta T$ and $D_2 = F_0 \cdot T_0$. The base vectors for these expansions are defined by Eqs. 9. Define the signal $S = C_i D_i$ in the coordinates a_i and a_2 corresponding to the components $\Delta f \cdot \Delta t$ and $f_0 \cdot t_0$, and the coordinates b_i and b_2 corresponding to the components $\Delta F \cdot \Delta T$ and $F_0 \cdot T_0$ (for simplicity of exposition we use the same notation). Then:

$$C_i = \sum_{k=1}^2 \mu_{ki} D_k, \quad \mu_{ki} = (a_i, b_k) \quad (i=1, 2)$$

$$D_i = \sum_{k=1}^2 \mu_{ki} C_k, \quad \mu_{ki} = (b_i, a_k) \quad (i=1, 2)$$

with the coefficients obeying the conditions

$$\sum_{k=1}^2 \mu_{ki} \mu_{kj} = (a_i, a_j) = \delta_{ij}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^2 \mu_{ki} \mu_{kj} = (b_i, b_j) = \delta_{ij}$$

where δ_{ij} is Kronecker's symbol. The vectors a_i and b_i in the CNS can be described by an orthogonal transformation, one obtained from a complex vector space R , as a mapping L from R to R , such that

$$L(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha Lx + \beta Ly$$

identically, for all complex numbers, α and β , and vectors x and y in H . Furthermore, a linear functional ϵ on a complex vector space H is a complex valued function ϵ on H such that (Halmos, 1951) (1) $\epsilon(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha \epsilon(x) + \beta \epsilon(y)$, i.e.

$$\epsilon(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha \epsilon(x) + \beta \epsilon(y)$$

for every pair of vectors x and y in H , and ϵ is homogeneous, i.e.,

$$\epsilon(\alpha x) = \alpha \epsilon(x)$$

for every complex number α and for every vector x in H . The effect of a linear functional defined signal in the CNS would be a rotation of axes—clearly a necessity in a four-dimensional system conveying information.

III. FURTHER RELATIONS TO QUANTUM MECHANICS

To define a signal in \mathcal{H} space, i.e., the space of both \mathfrak{M}_1 and \mathfrak{M}_2 subspaces, a bilinear functional ϵ defined (Halmos, 1951, p. 12) on the space \mathcal{H} as a complex valued function ϵ on the product of \mathcal{H} with itself, such that

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for every x and y in \mathcal{H} , e_x is a linear functional and e_y is a conjugate linear functional.

To every bilinear functional, there is associated a quadratic form (Lusternik and Sobolev, 1961, p. 259) which has the following form: a bilinear functional ϕ on a complex vector space obtains a function ϕ , the quadratic form on each vector x by which $\phi(x) = \phi(x, x)$. Thus, the Hilbert space-represented signal can be shown to be symmetric (Lusternik, 1951, pp. 12-13):

$$\phi(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} [\phi(x+y) + \phi(x-y)] - \frac{1}{2} [\phi(x+iy) + \phi(x-iy)] \quad (15)$$

from the reciprocal relations of Eqs. 1 and 6 bounding the vectors x and y of Eq. 9, $\phi(x, y) = \phi^*(y, x)$. The bilinear functional defining the signal is, therefore, symmetric over the four signal dimensions.

The representation need not be confined to an inner product space. Consider the functional space whose functions are defined on a finite interval, (a, b) , and for which the Lebesgue integral exists and is finite. Then, the equivalence classes of square integral functions (complex valued) on (a, b) , we can take, as the product between the two classes F and G :

$$(F, G) = \int_a^b F(x) \overline{G(x)} dx, \quad (16)$$

$$\int_a^b |F(x)|^2 dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_a^b |G(x)|^2 dx$$

and where the bar denotes complex conjugation. The space in which these integrals exist is referred to as $L_2(a, b)$ space (Dennery and Krzywicki, 1967; Bachman and Narici, 1966); the L represents the name Lebesgue and the subscript 2 indicates the integrability of the modulus of each function representing a vector belonging to $L_2(a, b)$. In the case we are interested in ($a = 0, b = 1$), the classes will be X , i.e., (X, X) .

Suppose a vector $w \in L_2(a, b)$ approximated as a sequence of a finite sum of base vectors $e_i \in L_2(a, b)$. Let these base vectors correspond to the elements of vectors x and y of Eq. 9; then

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^n w^i e_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \quad (17)$$

where the vectors e_i satisfy the property

$$e_i e_j = \delta_{ij} \quad (18)$$

where the numbers w^i in Eq. 17 are the Fourier coefficients of w with respect to the bases e_1 and e_2 .

These Fourier coefficients satisfy the convergence condition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |w^i|^2 < \infty, \quad (19)$$

and w is a vector in Hilbert space (Dennery

and Krzywicki 1967, p. 197). Also, a vector in Hilbert space whose components are treated as Fourier coefficients determines some vector in $L_2(a, b)$. The one-to-one correspondence between the elements of the Hilbert space and the function space $L_2(a, b)$ means that the two spaces are isomorphic.

It is possible, therefore, to represent a signal by both a quadratic form on the Hilbert space or as Fourier coefficients in isomorphic function space. Each Fourier coefficient would give a measure of the overall system in the subsystems, i.e., in this instance, two subsystems, and would correspond to the absolute value of the vectors x and y . A basic principle of quantum mechanics is thus obeyed; namely, all the physically relevant information about a physical system at a given instant of time is derivable from the knowledge of the state function of the system.

IV. DISCUSSION

The analysis of this paper is based on the notion of the fundamental nature of the distribution of energy to forms of information. The view that the amount of energy transduced by the CNS, equated with the number of action potentials in a given period, will give a measure of (a) the amount of information in the sensory signal, or (b) the amount by which a signal needs to be increased in order to be detected, has found adherents (Fitzhugh, 1957; Barlow, 1962—in visual physiology; McGill, 1967; Green and Swets, 1966, Chap. 8—in audition and signal detection theory). By the methods presented here, this interest is now extended into an analysis of the forms in which the fundamental notion of energy can exist, i.e., how that energy is distributed. The import of this paper indicates further developments¹: the succinct description of the total information content of a signal and its reduction to a set of numbers in Hilbert space implies a description of the Hamiltonian of the system. The resulting Hilbert space representation is related to the overall energy distribution of the system under consideration. Thus a development of this line of reasoning (Barrett, 1971, 1973) follows the path taken by Schrödinger with the important exception that the "Hamiltonian" describes energy distribution, rather than absolute energy amounts. There is, of course, no correspondence between the total energy in a system and the complexity of its distribution. Yet a measure of that complexity is an information measure.

¹I am using the word "association" to imply a relation less strong than equality.

²For a discussion of this property see Barrett (1972c).

³The reviewer of this paper brought to my attention the paper by J. T. Winthrop ["Propagation of Structural Information in Optical Wave Fields," *J. Opt. Soc. Am.* 61, 15-30 (1971)] Winthrop addresses the topic of structural information theory and light.

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