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Schrödinger landscape

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# THE VALLEYS OF SHADOW IN SCHRÖDINGER LANDSCAPE

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ABSTRACT. The probability density function  $|\psi(f)|^2$  is studied for the one-dimensional quantum particle whose motion is defined by the Schrödinger equation

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}, \quad \psi(f; t, x) \Big|_{t=0} = f(x),$$

with the periodic initial data  $f$ ,  $f(x+1) \equiv f(x)$ . For  $f$  of the type  $f_\varepsilon(x) := c(\varepsilon)e^{-\frac{(x-\langle x \rangle)^2}{\varepsilon}}$ ,  $\varepsilon$  – a small positive parameter,  $\langle x \rangle$  – the distance from  $x$  to the nearest integer, Daniel Dix conducted a numerical experiment of 3d-graphing the density  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon; t, x)|^2$ . Visually, the graph resembles a mountain landscape scarred by a peculiar discrete collection of deep rectilinear canyons, or “*the valleys of shadow*”. We prove that this phenomenon is common for a wide set of families of the initial data  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  such that the initial densities  $\{|f_\varepsilon|^2\}$  approximate, as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , the periodic Dirack’s delta-function: the Radon transformations of  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon)|^2$  are indeed small on a definite collection of lines on the plane  $(t, x)$ . A complete description of such collections is established, and applications to Helmholtz equation are discussed.

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**0.1. Free quantum particle with the periodic initial data.** Assume that the motion of the quantum particle is determined by the 0-potential Schrödinger equation with the *periodic* initial data condition:

$$(1) \quad \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}, \quad \psi(f; t, x) \Big|_{t=0} = f(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n x}, \quad \hat{f}_n := \int_0^1 f(x) e^{-2\pi i n x} dx.$$

Via the Fourier method of separation of variables, the solution is given by

$$(2) \quad \psi(f; t, x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i (n^2 t + n x)}.$$

Fig. 1 (Daniel Dix) depicts “one quarter” of the graph of the probability density function  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon; t, x)|^2$ , see also (10) below, of finding the particle at the location  $x$ , at the fixed moment of time  $t$ . The initial data is the periodized (and  $L^2$ -normalized) Gauss bell function

$$f_\varepsilon(x) := c(\varepsilon) \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\frac{\pi(x-n)^2}{\varepsilon}} \left( = c(\varepsilon) \sqrt{\varepsilon} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\pi n^2 \varepsilon} e^{2\pi i n x} \right), \quad \varepsilon = 0.01.$$

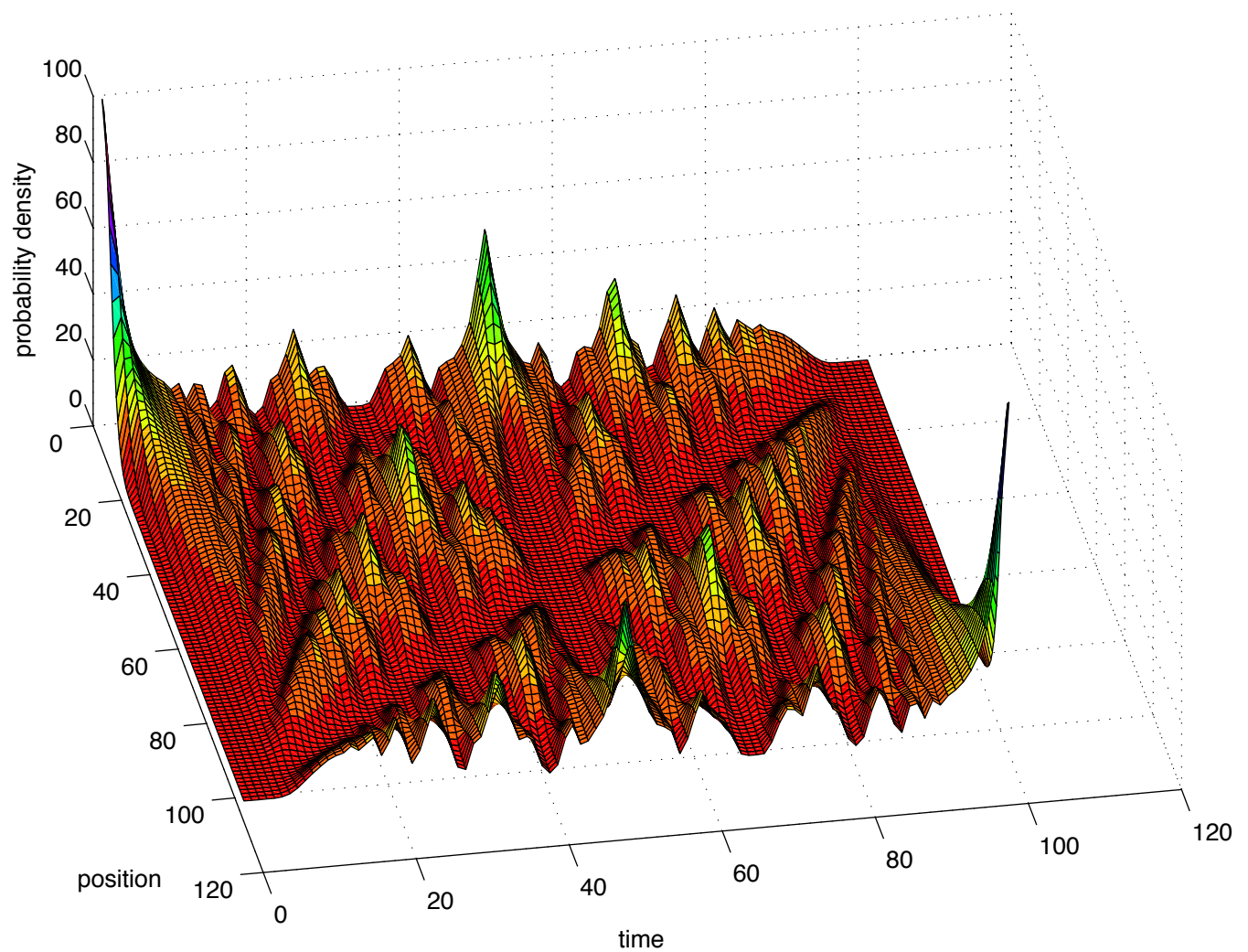


FIGURE 1. The valleys of shadow

Apparently, the graph features a rugged “mountain landscape” scarred by a series of rather well-organized and deep rectilinear canyons, or “the valleys of shadow”<sup>1</sup>. It will be shown that this feature is common for the densities  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon)|^2$  generated by  $\sqrt{\delta}$ -families of initial data  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$ . By the definition, such a family consists of the functions whose moduli *squares* approximate,

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<sup>1</sup>*Even though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil, for you are with me; your rod and your staff, they comfort me.* Psalm 23 of David.

as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , the periodic Dirack's delta-function, i. e.

$$(3) \quad \|f_\varepsilon\|_2^2 := \int_0^1 |f_\varepsilon(x)|^2 dx = 1, \quad \int_0^1 |f_\varepsilon(x)|^2 g(x) dx \rightarrow g(0), \quad \varepsilon \rightarrow 0$$

for every continuous function  $g(x)$  of period 1. We consider the limiting properties of the densities  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon)|^2$  generated by  $\sqrt{\delta}$ -families.

Related literature: P. R. Holland [14], Chapter 6, Section 6.5; D. Bohm [7], Chapter 10, Section 10.10 (p. 207), W. Heisenberg[13].

**0.2. “Schrödinger approximation” of the Helmholtz equation.** We follow here some lines of the paper [16], and the references therein.

Consider the boundary value problem posed for the Helmholtz equation:

$$(4) \quad \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \right)^2 \right) \varphi = 0, \quad \varphi(f; z, x) \Big|_{z=0} = f(x) = \sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{\frac{2\pi i n x}{a}},$$

$$\hat{f}_n = \int_0^a f(x) e^{-\frac{2\pi i n x}{a}} dx,$$

$\lambda$  – the wave length,  $a$  – the period of the optical image on the boundary, which is a flat screen,  $z$  – the distance along the optical axis, i. e. in the direction perpendicular to the screen;  $z_T := \frac{a^2}{\lambda}$  – Talbot [20] distance;  $\gamma := \frac{\lambda}{a}$ . Introduce the dimensionless variables

$$\eta := \frac{x}{a}, \quad \zeta := \frac{z}{z_T} = \frac{z\lambda}{a^2}.$$

Then, using the Fourier method of separation of variables, we obtain the exact solution:

$$\varphi(f; \zeta, \eta) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i (\mu_n \zeta + n \eta)}, \quad \mu_n := \frac{\sqrt{1 - (n\gamma)^2}}{\gamma^2}.$$

[16] suggests the following approximation of the exact solution of the Helmholtz equation by that of Schrödinger equation. Both steps, especially the second of them, require a serious mathematical scrutiny, currently unavailable.

1) For  $n > 1/\gamma$ , the factors  $e^{2\pi i \mu_n \zeta} := e^{-2\pi |\mu_n| \zeta}$ , are exponentially small as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and the appropriate terms of the series can be disregarded.

2) For  $n \leq 1/\gamma$ , the exact values of  $\mu_n$  can be replaced by just two terms of Taylor's expansion which generates an “approximation” of the solution of the problem (4) by that of (1):

$$(5) \quad \mu_n \approx \gamma^{-2} - \frac{n^2}{2}, \quad \tilde{\varphi}(\zeta, \eta) = e^{2\pi i \gamma^{-2} \zeta} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n e^{\pi i (-n^2 \zeta + 2n \eta)}.$$

Related literature: [16], [1] – [6], [8], [15], [19] – [21].

**0.3. The valleys of shadow, and the Wigner function.** Let us establish the following  $(0 \vee 1 \vee 2)$ -alternative for the limits of Radon transformations of the densities:

$$(6) \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_0^1 |\psi(f_\varepsilon; t, -Nt + \xi)|^2 dt = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{(a)} \\ 1 & \text{(b)} \\ 2 & \text{(c)} \end{cases}$$

where an integer  $N$  and a real number  $\xi$  are fixed, and  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  is a  $\sqrt{\delta}$ -family of the initial data for the problem (1). Relations (6,(b),(c)) mean that the average densities  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon)|^2$  are not small, as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , on the line  $L_N(\xi) := \{(t, x) : Nt + x = \xi\}$ . Of a special interest are the lines where (6,(a)) is true, i. e. the densities are small in the mean. These lines represent the “valleys of the shadow”.

**Theorem 1.** *Assume that  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  is a  $\sqrt{\delta}$ -family,  $N$  an integer,  $\xi$  - a real number. Then (6,(b)) is true for each line  $L_N(\xi)$  such that  $2\xi$  is not an integer.*

*If all initial data  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  are even functions, then (6,(a)) is true if and only if  $\xi = 1/2$  and  $N$  is odd; (6,(c)) is true if and only if either  $\xi = 0$ , or  $\xi = 1/2$  and  $N$  is even.*

*If all initial data  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  are odd functions, then (6,(a)) is true if and only if either  $\xi = 0$ , or  $\xi = 1/2$  and  $N$  is even; (6,(c)) is true if and only if  $\xi = 1/2$  and  $N$  is odd.*

**Proof.** For a periodic  $f(x)$ , and an integer  $N$ , let us introduce the  $N$ th Wigner function:

$$W_N(f; \xi) := \int_0^1 f(\xi + x)f^*(\xi - x)e^{-2\pi i N x} dx, \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R},$$

cf. [14], Section 8.4.3 (p. 357).

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $N$  be an integer,  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $\psi(f; t, x)$  - the solution of (1). Then*

$$(7) \quad \int_0^1 |\psi(f; t, -Nt + \xi)|^2 dt = \|f\|_2^2 + W_N(f; \xi).$$

Indeed, we have

$$|\psi(f; t, x)|^2 = \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2} \hat{f}_n \hat{f}_m^* e^{2\pi i((n^2 - m^2)t + (n-m)x)}.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 |\psi(f; t, -Nt + \xi)|^2 dt &= \int_0^1 \left( \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2} \hat{f}_n \hat{f}_m^* e^{2\pi i((n^2 - m^2)t + (n-m)(-Nt + \xi))} \right) dt \\ &= \sum_{(n-m)(n+m-N)=0} \hat{f}_n \hat{f}_m^* e^{2\pi i(n-m)\xi} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |\hat{f}_n|^2 + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left( \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n \xi} \right) \left( \hat{f}_{N-n} e^{2\pi i(N-n)\xi} \right)^*. \end{aligned}$$

From here, the relation (6) follows by the Parseval's identity

$$\int_0^1 f(x)g^*(x) dx = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_n \hat{g}_n^*,$$

and the following correspondence between functions and the Fourier coefficients:

$$\left\{ \hat{f}_n e^{2\pi i n \xi} \right\} \longleftrightarrow \{f(x + \xi)\}, \quad \left\{ \hat{f}_{N-n} e^{2\pi i (N-n)\xi} \right\} \longleftrightarrow \{f(\xi - x) e^{2\pi i N x}\}.$$

Now let us assume that  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  is  $\sqrt{\delta}$ -family. Then it is easy to see (by application of the Cauchy inequality) that if  $2\xi$  is not an integer, then for each fixed integer  $N$

$$|W_N(f_\varepsilon, \xi)| \leq \int_0^1 |f_\varepsilon(\xi + x) f_\varepsilon(\xi - x)| dx \rightarrow 0, \quad \varepsilon \rightarrow 0,$$

and (6,b) follows from (7).

Therefore, it remains to consider the cases  $\xi = 0$  and  $\xi = 1/2$ . We have

$$W_N(f; 0) = \int_0^1 f(x) f^*(-x) e^{-2\pi i N x} dx,$$

$$W_N(f; 1/2) = \int_0^1 f(1/2 + x) f^*(1/2 - x) e^{-2\pi i N x} dx = (-1)^N \int_0^1 f(x) f^*(-x) e^{-2\pi i N x} dx.$$

Therefore, if  $\{f_\varepsilon\}$  is a  $\sqrt{\delta}$ -family, and all  $f_\varepsilon$  are even functions, then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} W_N(f_\varepsilon; 0) = 1, \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} W_N(f_\varepsilon; 1/2) = (-1)^N;$$

on the contrary, if all  $f_\varepsilon$  are odd functions, then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} W_N(f_\varepsilon; 0) = -1, \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} W_N(f_\varepsilon; 1/2) = (-1)^{N+1}.$$

This and the application of (7) complete the proof of the theorem.

Let us briefly consider the following ergodic characteristic of the density  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon)|^2$  on a line  $L_N(\xi)$  with a non integral, slope  $N$ :

$$\mathcal{E}_N(f, \xi) := \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T |\psi(f; t, -Nt + \xi)|^2 dt.$$

We have

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T |\psi(f; t, -Nt + \xi)|^2 dt = \|f\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{T} \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2, m \neq n} \hat{f}_n \hat{f}_m^* \frac{e^{2\pi i (n-m)(n+m-N)T} - 1}{(n-m)(n+m-N)} e^{2\pi i (n-m)\xi}.$$

Since  $N$  is non-integral, there are no “small denominators” in the double sum on the right. Moreover, since

$$\frac{1}{(n-m)(n+m-N)} = \frac{1}{2m-N} \left( \frac{1}{n-m} - \frac{1}{n+m-N} \right),$$

it is *plausible* that this sum can be estimated using the known property of the Hilbert matrix, as follows

$$\left| \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2, m \neq n} \hat{f}_n \hat{f}_m^* \frac{e^{2\pi i (n-m)(n+m-N)T} - 1}{(n-m)(n+m-N)} e^{2\pi i (n-m)\xi} \right| \leq \frac{c \|f\|^2}{\langle N \rangle},$$

so that if the slope  $N$  is non-integral we have  $\mathcal{E}_N(f, \xi) = 1$ . On the other hand, for the lines  $L_N(\xi)$  with the integral slope, the values of  $\mathcal{E}_N(f, \xi)$  are given by the relations (6).

This type of characteristic seems to be promising also in the consideration of the valleys of shadow for the solution  $\varphi$  of the Helmholtz equation (4), avoiding the mathematically dubious “approximation” step (4):

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T |\varphi(f; \zeta, -N\zeta + \xi)|^2 d\zeta = \|f\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{T} \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2, m \neq n} \hat{f}_n \hat{f}_m^* \frac{e^{2\pi i \Delta(n,m,N)T} - 1}{\Delta(n,m,N)} e^{2\pi i(n-m)\xi}$$

where

$$\Delta(n, m, N) := \mu_n - \mu_m - (n - m)N.$$

The author intends to address the elaboration of this idea in the future.

**0.4. Talbot effect, and the Gauss’ sums interpretation.** Let us consider the formal series

$$\Theta_0(t, x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{2\pi i(n^2 t + nx)}$$

as limit for  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0_+$ , of

$$\Theta_\varepsilon(t, x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\pi n^2 \varepsilon} e^{2\pi i(n^2 t + nx)}, \quad \varepsilon > 0.$$

Obviously,  $\Theta_0(t, x)$  represents the formal Green’s function of the problem (1), see (2), i. e.

$$\psi(f; t, x) = \int_0^1 \Theta_0(t, x - y) f(y) dy.$$

G.H. Hardy and J.E. Littlewood [12] (see also [11], pp. 67 – 112) thoroughly studied the summability properties of  $\Theta_0(t, x)$ , and established that *if  $t$  is an irrational number, then  $\Theta_0(t, x)$  is not summable by any of the Cesaro means.*

On the other hand, if  $t$  is a rational number,  $t = \frac{a}{q}$ ,  $(a, q) = 1$ , then the series  $\Theta_0(t, x)$  is summable, say, by the  $(C, 1)$ -means (and consequently, by the Gaussian method, because it is stronger) to the linear combination of shifted Dirack’s periodic  $\delta$ -functions:

$$(8) \quad \begin{aligned} (C, 1)\Theta_0\left(\frac{a}{q}, x\right) &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \Theta_\varepsilon\left(\frac{a}{q}, x\right) = \sum_{k=1}^q G\left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right) \delta\left(x - \frac{k}{q}\right), \\ \psi\left(f; \frac{a}{q}, x\right) &= \sum_{k=1}^q G\left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right) f\left(x - \frac{k}{q}\right). \end{aligned}$$

where  $G\left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right)$  are the discrete Fourier transforms of the factors  $e^{\frac{2\pi i n^2 a}{q}}$ :

$$G\left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right) = \frac{1}{q} \sum_{n=1}^q e^{\frac{2\pi i n^2 a}{q}} e^{\frac{2\pi i n k}{q}}.$$

The complex numbers  $G$  are the complete Gauss' sums. Their moduli are determined by the relations (see e.g. [18]), p. 183, formulas (1.3), and also [17])

$$(9) \quad \sqrt{q} \left| G \left( \frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q} \right) \right| = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } q \equiv 1 \pmod{2}, \\ \frac{1+(-1)^{aQ+k}}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } q \equiv 0 \pmod{2}, \quad Q := \frac{q}{2}, \end{cases}$$

and one has

$$\sum_{k=1}^q \left| G \left( \frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q} \right) \right|^2 = 1.$$

The relation (8) means, that for the rational moments of time parameter  $t = \frac{a}{q}$ , the solution of the problem (1) is a  $q$ -term linear combination of the shifted initial data function  $f$ . This implies that if the “original image”  $f$  is supported “in a narrow interval”, of the length  $l \ll 1$ , and  $q \leq \frac{1}{l}$  then the solution operator reproduces  $q$  scaled non-overlapping copies of this image on the period. This is *presumably* the essence of the *Talbot self-imaging effect*, cf.[20], [16], in the classical and electromagnetic optics.

The following is the interpretation of the “valleys of the shadow” via the Gauss' sums. *Every line  $L_N(1/2) = \{(t, x) : Nt + x = 1/2\}$ , with an odd slope  $N$ , avoids “hitting a delta-function”, i. e. does not pass through any rational point on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with a non-zero factor  $G$  in (8). In the other words, if a rational point  $\left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right)$ ,  $(a, q) = 1$ , belongs to such a line, then*

$$G \left( \frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q} \right) = 0.$$

Indeed, assume that  $(t, x) = \left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right) \in L_N(1/2)$ , and  $N = 2m + 1$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$(2m + 1)t + x = \frac{(2m + 1)a + k}{q} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

It follows that

$$2((2m + 1)a + k) = q.$$

Clearly, this relation is not possible if  $q$  is an odd number. On the other hand, if  $q$  is even,  $q = 2Q$ , then we have

$$(2m + 1)a + k = Q,$$

and  $a$  is an odd number, because  $(a, 2Q) = 1$ . Therefore, if  $Q$  is an even number,  $k$  has to be odd, so that on this case  $aQ + k$  is odd. On the contrary, if  $Q$  is odd, then then  $k$  has to be even, so that the sum  $aQ + k$  is odd in this case, as well, and the equality  $G \left(\frac{a}{q}, \frac{k}{q}\right) = 0$  follows from (9).



0.5. **The Gauss' bell initial data.** Let us consider the periodized Gauss bell function (known also as the *Jacobi's elliptic theta-function*)

$$\vartheta_\varepsilon(x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\pi\varepsilon n^2} e^{2\pi i n x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}} \sum_{\nu \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\frac{\pi(x-\nu)^2}{\varepsilon}}$$

as the initial data in the problem (1), and denote  $\psi(\vartheta_\varepsilon, t, x) := \Theta_\varepsilon(t, x)$ . Note, that  $\vartheta_\varepsilon$  is not normalized in  $L^2$ , but is such in  $L^1$ :

$$\|\vartheta_\varepsilon\|_1 := \int_0^1 |\vartheta_\varepsilon(x)| dx = \int_0^1 \vartheta_\varepsilon(x) dx = 1.$$

To obtain the  $L^2$ -normalized data, as in (3), we take (in the sequel,  $a$  denotes strictly positive absolute constants, whose numerical values can be different on different occasions)

$$f_\varepsilon(x) := c(\varepsilon)\vartheta_\varepsilon(x), \quad c(\varepsilon) = \left( \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-2\pi\varepsilon n^2} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \vartheta_{2\varepsilon}^{-\frac{1}{2}}(0) = (2\varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{4}} + O\left(e^{-\frac{a}{\varepsilon}}\right), \quad \varepsilon \rightarrow 0.$$

The exact initial data functions  $\vartheta_\varepsilon$ ,  $f_\varepsilon$  can be with a very high accuracy substituted by one single term of the series

$$\vartheta_\varepsilon(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}} e^{-\frac{\pi\langle x \rangle^2}{\varepsilon}} + O\left(e^{-\frac{a}{\varepsilon}}\right), \quad f_\varepsilon(x) = \sqrt[4]{\frac{2}{\varepsilon}} e^{-\frac{\pi\langle x \rangle^2}{\varepsilon}} + O\left(e^{-\frac{a}{\varepsilon}}\right), \quad \varepsilon \rightarrow 0,$$

where  $\langle x \rangle$ , as above, denotes the distance from  $x$  to the nearest integer.

Let us establish the following approximate representation of the density  $|\psi(f_\varepsilon)|^2$  as a sum of Gauss-bell ridge functions:

$$(10) \quad |\psi(f_\varepsilon; t, x)|^2 = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-\frac{\pi\varepsilon n^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi(2(nt+x))^2}{2\varepsilon}} - 2 \sum_{n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi\varepsilon n^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{2\pi(nt+x+1/2)^2}{\varepsilon}} + O\left(e^{-\frac{a}{\varepsilon}}\right).$$

By (2) we have

$$|\Theta_\varepsilon(t, x)|^2 = \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2} e^{-\pi\varepsilon(m^2+n^2)} e^{2\pi i((m-n)(m+n)t+(m-n)x)}.$$

Let us introduce the new variables of summation  $m-n \rightarrow m$ ,  $m+n \rightarrow n$  in the double sum on the right. Then we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} |\Theta_\varepsilon(t, x)|^2 &= \sum_{(m,n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2, m \equiv n \pmod{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi\varepsilon}{2}(m^2+n^2)} e^{2\pi i(mnt+mx)} \\ &= \sum_{n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi\varepsilon n^2}{2}} A(nt+x) + \sum_{n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi\varepsilon n^2}{2}} B(nt+x), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
A(x) &:= \sum_{m \equiv 0 \pmod{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi \varepsilon m^2}{2}} e^{2\pi i m x} = \vartheta_{2\varepsilon}(2x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\varepsilon}} e^{-\frac{\pi(2x)^2}{2\varepsilon}} + O\left(e^{-\frac{a}{\varepsilon}}\right); \\
B(x) &:= \sum_{m \equiv 1 \pmod{2}} e^{-\frac{\pi \varepsilon m^2}{2}} e^{2\pi i m x} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \vartheta_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}(x) - \vartheta_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}\left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right) \right) = \vartheta_{2\varepsilon}(2x) - \vartheta_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}\left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right) \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\varepsilon}} e^{-\frac{\pi(2x)^2}{2\varepsilon}} - \sqrt{\frac{2}{\varepsilon}} e^{-\frac{2\pi(x+1/2)^2}{\varepsilon}} + O\left(e^{-\frac{a}{\varepsilon}}\right),
\end{aligned}$$

and the approximate representation (10) follows.

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