An application of the stationary phase method in estimating probability densities of function derivatives

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Abstract

We prove a novel result wherein the density function of the gradients—corresponding to density function of the derivatives in one dimension—of a thrice differentiable function $S$ (obtained via a random variable transformation of a uniformly distributed random variable) defined on a closed, bounded interval $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$ is accurately approximated by the normalized power spectrum of $\phi = \exp \left( \frac{iS}{\tau} \right)$ as the free parameter $\tau \to 0$. The result is shown using the well known stationary phase approximation and standard integration techniques and requires proper ordering of limits. Experimental results provide anecdotal visual evidence corroborating the result.

Keywords: Stationary phase approximation; Density estimation; Fourier transform

1. Introduction

The literature is replete with techniques which attempt to estimate a non-observable probability density function using observed data believed to be sampled from an underlying distribution. Density estimation techniques have a long history and run the gamut of histogramming, Parzen windows [1], vector quantization, wavelets etc. In the present work, we prove a novel mathematical result relating the density function of the
derivatives of a function $S$ [viewed as a random variable transformation $Y = S'(X)$] where $X$ is uniformly distributed] with the normalized power spectrum of $\exp \left( \frac{iS}{\tau} \right)$ as the quantity $\tau \to 0$. We would like to emphasize that our work is fundamentally different from estimating the gradients of a density function [2] and should not semantically confused with it.

We compute the gradient density directly from the function $S$, circumventing the need to compute its derivative $S'$. The approach is based on expressing the function $S$ as the phase of a wave function $\phi$, specifically $\phi(x) = \exp \left( \frac{iS(x)}{\tau} \right)$ for small values of $\tau$ and then considering the normalized power spectrum—magnitude squared of the Fourier transform of $\phi$ [3]. Using the stationary phase approximation—a well known technique in asymptotic analysis [4]—we show that in the limiting case as $\tau \to 0$, the power spectrum of $\phi$ converges to the density of $Y$ and hence can serve as its density estimator at small, non-zero values of $\tau$.

Our new mathematical relationship is motivated by a well known relation in the quantization of classical systems, wherein classical physics is expressed as a limiting case of quantum mechanics [5, 6]. When $S$ is treated as the Hamilton-Jacobi scalar field, the gradient of $S$ corresponds to the classical momentum of a particle [7]. In the parlance of quantum mechanics, the magnitude square of the wave function expressed either in its position or momentum basis corresponds to its position or momentum density respectively. Since these representations (either in the position or momentum basis) are simply the (suitably scaled) Fourier transforms of each other, the magnitude square of the Fourier transform of the wave function expressed in its position basis, is its quantum momentum density [5]. The principal theorem proved in the article [Theorem (2.5)] states that the classical momentum density (denoted by $P$) can be expressed as a limiting case (as $\tau \to 0$) of its corresponding quantum momentum density (denoted by $P_{\tau}$), in complete agreement with the correspondence principle [5]. Our work makes use of this relation to provide a new density estimator for the gradients.
2. Equivalence of the gradient density and the power spectrum

As stated above, the density function for the gradients (derivatives) of $S$ (denoted by $Y$) can be obtained via a random variable transformation of a uniformly distributed random variable $X$ using the derivative $S'$ as the transformation function, namely, $Y = S'(X)$. We assume that $S$ is thrice differentiable on a closed, bounded interval $\Omega = [b_1, b_2]$ (with length $L = b_2 - b_1$) and has a non-vanishing second derivative almost everywhere on $\Omega$, i.e.

$$\mu \{ \{ x : S''(x) = 0 \} \} = 0,$$

where $\mu$ denotes the Lebesgue measure. The assumption in (2.1) is made in order to ensure that the density function of $Y$ exists almost everywhere. This is further clarified in Lemma 2.2 below.

Define the following sets:

$$B \equiv \{ x : S''(x) = 0 \},$$
$$C \equiv \{ S'(x) : x \in B \} \cup \{ S'(b_1), S'(b_2) \},$$
$$A_u \equiv \{ x : S'(x) = u \}.$$

Here, $S'(b_1) = \lim_{x \to b_1^+} S'(x)$ and $S'(b_2) = \lim_{x \to b_2^-} S'(x)$. The higher derivatives of $S$ at the end points $b_1, b_2$ are also defined along similar lines using one-sided limits.

The main purpose of defining these one-sided limits is to exactly determine the set $C$ where the density of $Y$ is not defined. Since $\mu(B) = 0$, we also have $\mu(C) = 0$.

**Lemma 2.1.** [Finiteness Lemma] $A_u$ is finite for every $u \notin C$.

**Lemma 2.2.** [Density Lemma] The probability density of $Y$ on $\mathbb{R} - C$ exists and is given by

$$P(u_0) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \frac{1}{|S''(x_k)|},$$

where the summation is over $A_{u_0}$ (which is the finite set of locations $x_k \in \Omega$ where $S'(x_k) = u_0$ as per Lemma 2.1), with $|A_{u_0}| = N(u_0)$. 

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Since the density is based on the transformation \( Y = S'(X) \), the probability density function in (2.3) assumes the existence of the inverse of the transformation function \( S' \) [8]. This is made explicit in the following lemma which is required by the main theorem.

**Lemma 2.3.** [Interval Lemma] For every \( u \notin \mathbb{C} \), \( \exists \eta > 0 \) and a closed interval \( \mathcal{J}_\eta = [u - \eta, u + \eta] \) such that \( \mathcal{J}_\eta \cap \mathbb{C} \) is empty.

The proofs of the lemmas are available in Appendix A.

We now prove the main result which relates the normalized power spectrum of \( \exp \left( \frac{iS(x)}{\tau} \right) \) (in the limit as \( \tau \to 0 \)) with the probability density of the random variable \( Y = S'(X) \) (denoted by \( P \)).

Define a function \( F : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \) as

\[
F(u, \tau) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \tau L}} \int_{b_1}^{b_2} \exp \left( \frac{iS(x)}{\tau} \right) \exp \left( -\frac{-iux}{\tau} \right) dx. \tag{2.4}
\]

For a fixed value of \( \tau \), define a function \( F_\tau : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \) as

\[
F_\tau(u) \equiv F(u, \tau). \tag{2.5}
\]

Observe that \( F_\tau \) is closely related to the Fourier transform of \( \exp \left( \frac{iS(x)}{\tau} \right) \). The scale factor \( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \tau L}} \) is the normalizing term such that the \( L^2 \) norm of \( F_\tau \) is one as seen in the following lemma (whose proof is straightforward and omitted for lack of space).

**Lemma 2.4.** With \( F_\tau \) defined as above, \( F_\tau \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \) and \( \|F_\tau\| = 1 \).

Define a function \( P_\tau : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \) as

\[
P_\tau(u) \equiv |F_\tau(u)|^2 = F_\tau(u)\overline{F_\tau(u)}. \tag{2.6}
\]

By definition, \( P_\tau \geq 0 \). Since \( \mu(\mathbb{C}) = 0 \), from Lemma (2.4), \( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_\tau(u)du = 1 \).

Hence, treating \( P_\tau(u) \) as a density function, we have the following theorem statement.

**Theorem 2.5.** If \( P \) and \( P_\tau \) are defined as above, then the

\[
\lim_{\alpha \to 0} \frac{1}{\alpha} \lim_{\tau \to 0} \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} P_\tau(u)du = P(u_0), \quad \forall u_0 \notin \mathbb{C}. \tag{2.7}
\]
Before embarking on the proof, we would like to emphasize that the ordering of the limits and the integral as given in the theorem statement is crucial and cannot be arbitrarily interchanged. To press this point home, we show below that after solving for \( P_\tau \), the \( \lim_{\tau \to 0} P_\tau \) does not exist. Hence, the order of the integral followed by the limit \( \tau \to 0 \) cannot be interchanged. Furthermore, when we swap the limits between \( \alpha \) and \( \tau \), we get

\[
\lim_{\tau \to 0} \lim_{\alpha \to 0} \frac{1}{\alpha} \int_{u_0}^{u_0+\alpha} P_\tau(u) du = \lim_{\tau \to 0} P_\tau(u_0)
\]

(2.8)

which does not exist. Hence, the theorem statement can be valid only for the specified sequence of limits and the integral.

2.1. Brief exposition of the result

To understand the result in simpler terms, let us reconsider the definition of the scaled Fourier transform given in (2.4). The first exponential \( \exp \left( \frac{iS}{\tau} \right) \) is a varying complex “sinusoid”, whereas the second exponential \( \exp \left( \frac{-iu_0}{\tau} \right) \) is a fixed complex sinusoid at frequency \( \frac{u_0}{\tau} \). When we multiply these two complex exponentials, at low values of \( \tau \), the two sinusoids are usually not “in sync” and tend to cancel each other out. However, around the locations where \( S'(x) = u \), the two sinusoids are in perfect sync (as the combined exponent is stationary) with the approximate duration of this resonance depending on \( S'(x) \). The value of the integral in (2.4) can be approximated via the stationary phase approximation [4] as

\[
F_\tau(u) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \exp \left( \pm i \frac{\pi}{4} \right) \sum_{k=1}^{N(u)} \exp \left\{ \frac{i}{\tau} \left( S(x_k) - ux_k \right) \right\} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sqrt{\theta(x_k)}}} \tag{2.9}
\]

where \( N(u) = \lfloor A_u \rfloor \). The approximation is increasingly tight as \( \tau \to 0 \). The squared Fourier transform \( (P_\tau) \) gives us the required result \( \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\theta(x_k)}} \) except for the cross phase factors \( S(x_k) - S(x_l) - u(x_k - x_l) \) obtained as a byproduct of two or more remote locations \( x_k \) and \( x_l \) indexing into the same frequency bin \( u \), i.e., \( x_k \neq x_l \), but \( S'(x_k) = S'(x_l) = u \). Integrating the squared Fourier transform over a small frequency range \([u, u + \alpha]\) removes these cross phase factors and we obtain the desired result.
2.2. Formal proof

We shall now provide the proof by considering different cases.

**case (i):** Let us consider the case in which no stationary points exist for the given \( u_0 \), i.e., there is no \( x \) for which \( S(x) = u_0 \). Let \( t(x) = S(x) - u_0 x \). Then, \( t'(x) \) is of constant sign in \([b_1, b_2]\) and hence \( t(x) \) is strictly monotonic. Defining \( v = t(x) \), we have from (2.4),

\[
F_\tau(u_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau L}} \int_{t(b_1)}^{t(b_2)} \exp \left( \frac{iv}{\tau} \right) g(v) dv. \tag{2.10}
\]

Here, \( g(v) = \frac{1}{t'(x)} \) where \( x = t^{-1}(v) \). Integrating by parts, we get

\[
F_\tau(u_0) \sqrt{2\pi\tau L} = \tau \left[ \exp \left( \frac{it(b_2)}{\tau} \right) g(t(b_2)) - \exp \left( \frac{it(b_1)}{\tau} \right) g(t(b_1)) \right] - \tau \int_{t(b_1)}^{t(b_2)} \exp \left( \frac{iv}{\tau} \right) g'(v) dv. \tag{2.11}
\]

Then

\[
|F_\tau(u_0)| \sqrt{2\pi\tau L} \leq \tau \left( \frac{1}{|S(b_2) - u_0|} + \frac{1}{|S(b_1) - u_0|} + \int_{t(b_1)}^{t(b_2)} |g'(v)| dv \right). \tag{2.12}
\]

Hence, \( |F_\tau(u_0)| \leq \gamma_1(u_0) \sqrt{\tau} \), where \( \gamma_1(u_0) > 0 \) is a continuous function of \( u_0 \). Then \( P_\tau(u_0) \leq \gamma_1^2(u_0) \tau \). Since \( S'(x) \) is continuous and \( u_0 \notin C \), we can find a \( \rho > 0 \) such that for every \( u \in [u_0 - \rho, u_0 + \rho] \), no stationary points exist. The value \( \rho \) can also be chosen appropriately such that \( [u_0 - \rho, u_0 + \rho] \cap C = \emptyset \). If \( |\alpha| < \rho \), then

\[
\lim_{\tau \to 0} \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} P_\tau(u) du = 0. \tag{2.13}
\]

Furthermore, from (2.3) we have \( P(u_0) = 0 \). The result immediately follows.

**case (ii):** We now consider the case where stationary points exist. Since we are interested only in the situation as \( \tau \to 0 \), the stationary phase method in [4, 9] can be used to obtain a good approximation for \( F_\tau(u_0) \) defined in (2.4) and (2.5). The phase term in this function, \( \frac{S(x) - u_0 x}{\tau} \), is stationary only when \( S'(x) = u_0 \). Consider the set \( \mathcal{A}_{u_0} \) defined in (2.2). Since it is finite by Lemma (2.1), let \( \mathcal{A}_{u_0} = \{ x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{N(u_0)} \} \) with \( x_k < x_{k+1}, \forall k \). We break \( \Omega \) into disjoint intervals such that each interval has
utmost one stationary point. To this end, consider numbers \( \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_{N(u_0)+1}\} \) such that \( b_1 < c_1 < x_1, x_k < c_{k+1} < x_{k+1} \) and \( x_{N(u_0)} < c_{N(u_0)+1} < b_2 \). Let \( t(x) = S(x) - u_0x \). Then,

\[
F_{\tau}(u_0)\sqrt{2\pi\tau L} = G_1 + G_2 + \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} (K_k + \tilde{K}_k) \tag{2.14}
\]

where

\[
G_1 = \int_{b_1}^{c_1} \exp\left(\frac{it(x)}{\tau}\right) dx,
\]

\[
G_2 = \int_{c_{N(u_0)+1}}^{b_2} \exp\left(\frac{it(x)}{\tau}\right) dx,
\]

\[
K_k = \int_{c_k}^{x_k} \exp\left(\frac{it(x)}{\tau}\right) dx, \text{ and}
\]

\[
\tilde{K}_k = \int_{x_k}^{c_{k+1}} \exp\left(\frac{it(x)}{\tau}\right) dx. \tag{2.15}
\]

Note that the integrals \( G_1 \) and \( G_2 \) do not have any stationary points. From case (i) above, we get

\[
G_1 + G_2 = \epsilon_1(u_0, \tau) = O(\tau) \tag{2.16}
\]

as \( \tau \to 0 \). Furthermore, \( \epsilon_1(u_0, \tau) \leq \gamma_2(u_0)\tau \), where \( \gamma_2(u_0) > 0 \) is a continuous function of \( u_0 \). In order to evaluate \( K_k \) and \( \tilde{K}_k \), observe that when we expand the phase term up to second order, \( t(x) - t(x_k) \to Q(x_k)(x - x_k)^2 \) as \( x \to x_k \), where \( Q(x_k) = \frac{S''(x_k)}{2} \). Furthermore, in the open intervals \( (c_k, x_k) \) and \( (x_k, c_{k+1}) \), \( t'(x) = S'(x) - u_0 \) is continuous and is of constant sign. From Theorem 13.1 in [4], we get

\[
\tilde{K}_k = K_k = \frac{1}{2} \exp\left(\pm \frac{i\pi}{4}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \exp\left(\frac{it(x_k)}{\tau}\right) \sqrt{\frac{2\tau}{|S''(x_k)|}} + \epsilon_2(u_0, \tau). \tag{2.17}
\]

From Lemma 12.3 in [4], it can be verified that \( \epsilon_2(u_0, \tau) = o(\sqrt{\tau}) \) as \( \tau \to 0 \) and can also be uniformly bounded by a function of \( u_0 \) (independent of \( \tau \)) for small values of \( \tau \). In (2.17), \( \Gamma \) is the Gamma function and the sign in the phase term depends on whether \( S''(x_k) > 0 \) or \( S''(x_k) < 0 \). Plugging the values of these integrals in (2.14) and noting that \( \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi} \), we get

\[
F_{\tau}(u_0)\sqrt{2\pi\tau L} = \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \exp\left(\frac{i}{\tau} [S(x_k) - u_0x_k]\right) \sqrt{\frac{2\pi\tau}{|S''(x_k)|}} \exp\left(\pm \frac{i\pi}{4}\right) + \epsilon_1(u_0, \tau) + \epsilon_2(u_0, \tau). \tag{2.18}
\]
Hence,

\[
F_\tau(u_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \frac{\exp \left( \frac{i}{\tau} [S(x_k) - u_0 x_k] \right)}{\sqrt{|S''(x_k)|}} \exp \left( \pm \frac{i \pi}{4} \right) \quad (2.19)
\]

\[
+ \epsilon_3(u_0, \tau), \quad (2.20)
\]

where \( \epsilon_3(u_0, \tau) = \frac{\epsilon_1(u_0, \tau) + \epsilon_2(u_0, \tau)}{\sqrt{2\pi L}} = o(1) \) as \( \tau \to 0 \).

From the definition of \( P_\tau(u) \) in (2.6), we have

\[
P_\tau(u_0) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \frac{1}{|S''(x_k)|}
+ \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \frac{N(u_0)}{1 \neq k} \cos \left( \frac{i}{\tau} [S(x_k) - S(x_l) - u_0(x_k - x_l)] + \theta(x_k, x_l) \right)
+ \epsilon_4(u_0, \tau), \quad (2.21)
\]

where \( \epsilon_4(u_0, \tau) \) includes both the magnitude square of \( \epsilon_3(u_0, \tau) \) and the cross terms involving the main (first) term in (2.19) and \( \epsilon_3(u_0, \tau) \). Notice that the main term in (2.19) can be bounded by a function of \( u_0 \) independent of \( \tau \) as

\[
\left| \exp \left( \frac{i}{\tau} [S(x_k) - u_0 x_k] \right) \right| = 1, \forall \tau
\]

(2.22)

and \( S''(x_k) \neq 0, \forall k \). Since \( \epsilon_3(u_0, \tau) = o(1) \), we get \( \epsilon_4(u_0, \tau) = o(1) \) as \( \tau \to 0 \).

Additionally, \( \theta(x_k, x_l) = 0, \frac{\pi}{2} \) (or) \( -\frac{\pi}{2} \) and \( \theta(x_l, x_k) = -\theta(x_k, x_l) \).

The first term in (2.21) exactly matches the expression for \( P(u_0) \) as seen from Lemma (2.2). But, since \( \lim_{\tau \to 0} \cos \left( \frac{i}{\tau} \right) \) is not defined, \( \lim_{\tau \to 0} P_\tau(u_0) \) does not exist and hence the cross cosine terms do not vanish when we take the limit. We now show that integrating \( P_\tau(u) \) over a small non-zero interval \([u_0, u_0 + \alpha]\) and then taking the limit with respect to \( \tau \) (followed by the limit with respect to \( \alpha \)) does yield the density of \( Y \).

From Lemmas (2.1) and (2.3), we see that for a given \( a \in A_{u_0} \), when \( u \) is varied over the interval \( J_\eta = [u_0 - \eta, u_0 + \eta] \), the inverse function \( (S')^{-1}(u) \) is well defined with \( (S')^{-1}(u) \in N_a \), where \( N_a \) is some small neighborhood around \( a \). For each \( a \in A_{u_0} \), define the inverse function \( (S'_a)^{-1}(u) : J_\eta \to N_a \) as

\[
(S'_a)^{-1}(u) = x \iff u = S'(x) \text{ and } x \in N_a.
\]

(2.23)
Unfortunately, when we move from a fixed value \( u_0 \) to a variable \( u \) defined in the interval \( \mathcal{J}_\eta \), the locations \( x_k \) and \( x_l \) which previously were fixed in (2.21) now also vary over the interval \( \mathcal{J}_\eta \). This makes the notation somewhat cumbersome and unwieldy. Using the inverse functions defined in (2.23) and defining \( a_k = x_k(u_0) \) [and consequently \( a_l = x_l(u_0) \)], we define \( x_k(u) \equiv (S'_{a_k})^{-1}(u) \) [and therefore \( x_l(u) = (S'_{a_l})^{-1}(u) \)] for \( u \in \mathcal{J}_\eta \). Finally, define the functions \( p_{kl}(u) \) and \( q_{kl}(u) \) over \( \mathcal{J}_\eta \) as

\[
p_{kl}(u) \equiv S(x_k(u)) - S(x_l(u)) - u(x_k(u) - x_l(u)), \text{ and } \quad q_{kl}(u) \equiv \frac{1}{|S''(x_k(u))|} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{4} |S''(x_l(u))|^2}, \tag{2.24}
\]

Observe that

\[
p'_{kl}(u) = S'(x_k(u))x_k'(u) - S'(x_l(u))x_l'(u) - (x_k(u) - x_l(u)) - u(x_k'(u) - x_l'(u)) = x_l(u) - x_k(u) \tag{2.26}
\]

as \( u = S'(x_k(u)) = S'(x_l(u)) \). In particular, if \( x_l(u_0) > x_k(u_0) \), then \( x_l(u) > x_k(u) \) and vice versa. Hence, \( p'_{kl}(u) \) never vanishes and is also of constant sign over \( \mathcal{J}_\eta \).

Then, it follows that \( p_{kl}(u) \) is strictly monotonic and specifically bijective on \( \mathcal{J}_\eta \). We will use this result in the subsequent steps.

Now, let \( |\alpha| < \eta \). Since the additional error term \( \epsilon_4(u_0, \tau) \) in (2.21) converges to zero as \( \tau \to 0 \) and can also be uniformly bounded by a function of \( u_0 \) for small values of \( \tau \), we have

\[
\lim_{\tau \to 0} \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} \epsilon_4(u_0, \tau) du = 0. \tag{2.27}
\]

Then, we get

\[
\lim_{\tau \to 0} \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} P_\tau(u) du = I_1 + I_2 \tag{2.28}
\]

where

\[
I_1 \equiv \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} \frac{1}{|S''(x_k(u))|} du, \text{ and } \tag{2.29}
\]

\[
I_2 \equiv \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N(u_0)} \sum_{l=1 \atop l \neq k}^{N(u_0)} \lim_{\tau \to 0} I_3(k, l). \tag{2.30}
\]

Here, \( I_3(k, l) \) is given by

\[
I_3(k, l) \equiv \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} q_{kl}(u) \cos \left[ \frac{p_{kl}(u)}{\tau} + \theta(x_k(u), x_l(u)) \right] du. \tag{2.31}
\]
When $|\alpha| < \eta$, the sign of $S''(x_k(u))$ around $x_k(u_0)$ and the sign of $S''(x_l(u))$ around $x_l(u_0)$ do not change over the interval $[u_0,u_0 + \alpha]$. Since $\theta(x_k(u),x_l(u))$ depends on the sign of $S''$, $\theta$ is constant on $[u_0,u_0 + \alpha]$ and equals $\theta_{kl} = \theta(x_k(u_0),x_l(u_0))$. Now, expanding the cosine term in (2.31), we get

$$I_3(k,l) = \cos(\theta_{kl}) \int_{u_0}^{u_0+\alpha} q_{kl}(u) \cos\left(\frac{p_{kl}(u)}{\tau}\right) du - \sin(\theta_{kl}) \int_{u_0}^{u_0+\alpha} q_{kl}(u) \sin\left(\frac{p_{kl}(u)}{\tau}\right) du. \quad (2.32)$$

Since $p_{kl}(u)$ is bijective, we get via a standard change of variables:

$$I_3(k,l) = \cos(\theta_{kl}) I_4(k,l) - \sin(\theta_{kl}) I_5(k,l) \quad (2.33)$$

where

$$I_4(k,l) = \int_{\beta_{kl}^{(1)}}^{\beta_{kl}^{(2)}} \cos\left(\frac{v}{\tau}\right) g_{kl}(v) dv, \quad \text{and} \quad I_5(k,l) = \int_{\beta_{kl}^{(1)}}^{\beta_{kl}^{(2)}} \sin\left(\frac{v}{\tau}\right) g_{kl}(v) dv. \quad (2.34)$$

Here, $\beta_{kl}^{(1)} = p_{kl}(u_0)$, $\beta_{kl}^{(2)} = p_{kl}(u_0 + \alpha)$ and $g_{kl}(v) = \frac{q_{kl}(p_{kl}^{-1}(v))}{p_{kl}'(p_{kl}^{-1}(v))}$.

Integrating $I_4(k,l)$ by parts, we get

$$I_4(k,l) = \tau \left[ \beta_{kl}^{(2)} g_{kl}(\beta_{kl}^{(2)}) - \beta_{kl}^{(1)} g_{kl}(\beta_{kl}^{(1)}) \right] - \tau \int_{\beta_{kl}^{(1)}}^{\beta_{kl}^{(2)}} \sin\left(\frac{v}{\tau}\right) g_{kl}(v) dv. \quad (2.36)$$

Then,

$$|I_4(k,l)| \leq \tau \left[ g_{kl}\left(\beta_{kl}^{(2)}\right) + g_{kl}\left(\beta_{kl}^{(1)}\right) + \int_{\beta_{kl}^{(1)}}^{\beta_{kl}^{(2)}} |g_{kl}(v)| dv \right]. \quad (2.37)$$

It is worth mentioning that $q_{kl}$ and hence $g_{kl}$ are differentiable over their respective intervals as the sign of $S''(x_k(u))S''(x_l(u))$ does not change over the interval $[u_0,u_0 + \alpha]$. We then have $|I_4(k,l)| \leq \tau M$ where $M$ is some constant independent of $\tau$. Hence, $\lim_{\tau \to 0} I_4(k,l) = 0, \forall k, l$. By a similar argument, $\lim_{\tau \to 0} I_5(k,l) = 0, \forall k, l$. From (2.30) and (2.33), we get $I_2 = 0$. Since

$$\lim_{\alpha \to 0} \frac{1}{\alpha} I_1 = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k=1}^{N_{(\infty)}} \frac{1}{|S''(x_k)|} = P(u_0), \quad (2.38)$$
the main result expressed in Theorem (2.5) follows.

Below, we show comparisons between our Fourier transform approach and the standard histogramming technique on some trigonometric and exponential functions sampled on a regular grid between $[-0.125, 0.125]$ at a grid spacing of $\frac{1}{150}$. For the sake of convenience, we normalized the functions such that its maximum gradient value is 1. Using the sampled values $\hat{S}$, we computed the Fast Fourier transform of $\exp \left( \frac{i \tilde{S}}{\tau} \right)$ at $\tau = 0.00001$, took its magnitude squared and then normalized it to compute the density function of the gradients. We also computed the discrete derivative of $S$ at the grid locations and then determined its gradient density by histogramming using around 220 bins. The plots shown in Figure (1) provide anecdotal empirical evidence supporting the mathematical result stated in Theorem (2.5). Notice the near-perfect match between the gradient densities computed via standard histogramming and the gradient densities determined using our Fourier transform method.

![Comparison results](image)

Figure 1: Comparison results. (i) Left: Gradient densities obtained from histogramming, (ii) Right: Gradient densities obtained from squared Fourier transform of the wave function
3. Discussion

Observe that the integrals
\[
I_{\tau}(u_0) = \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} P_{\tau}(u) du, \quad I(u_0) = \int_{u_0}^{u_0 + \alpha} P(u) du
\] (3.1)
give the interval measures of the density functions \( P_{\tau} \) and \( P \) respectively. Theorem (2.5) states that at small values of \( \tau \), both the interval measures are approximately equal, with the difference between them being \( o(1) \). Recall that by definition, \( P_{\tau} \) is the normalized power spectrum [3] of the wave function \( \phi(x) = \exp \left( \frac{iS(x)}{\tau} \right) \). Hence, we conclude that the power spectrum of \( \phi(x) \) can potentially serve as a density estimator for the gradients of \( S \) at small values of \( \tau \). The experimental results shown above serve as a demonstration, anecdotally attesting to the verity of the result.

Our result is directly inspired by the three-way relationships between the classical momentum \( \nabla S \), the quantum momentum operator \( -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \) and its spatial frequency spectrum. Since these relationships hold in higher dimensions as well, we are likewise interested in extending our density estimation result to higher dimensions. This is a fruitful avenue for future work.

References


Appendix A. Proof of Lemmas

1. Proof of Finiteness Lemma

We prove the result by contradiction. Observe that $\mathcal{A}_u$ is a subset of the compact set $\Omega$. If $\mathcal{A}_u$ is not finite, then by Theorem (2.37) in [10], $\mathcal{A}_u$ has a limit point $x_0 \in \Omega$. Consider a sequence $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, with each $x_n \in \mathcal{A}_u$, converging to $x_0$. Since $S'(x_n) = u$, $\forall n$, from the continuity of $S'$ we get $S'(x_0) = u$ and hence $x_0 \in \mathcal{A}_u$. If $x_0 = b_1$ or $x_0 = b_2$, then $u \notin \mathcal{C}$ giving us a contradiction. Otherwise we get

$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{S'(x_0) - S'(x_n)}{x_0 - x_n} = 0 = S''(x_0). \tag{A.1}
$$

Based on the definitions given in (2.2), we have $x_0 \in \mathcal{B}$ and $u \in \mathcal{C}$ again resulting in a contradiction. $\square$

2. Proof of Interval Lemma

Observe that $\mathcal{B}$ is closed because if $x_0$ is a limit point of $\mathcal{B}$, from the continuity of $S''$ we have $S''(x_0) = 0$ and hence $x_0 \in \mathcal{B}$. $\mathcal{B}$ is also compact as it is a closed subset of $\Omega$. Since $S'$ is continuous, $\mathcal{C} = S'(\mathcal{B}) \cup \{S'(b_1), S'(b_2)\}$ is also compact and hence $\mathbb{R} - \mathcal{C}$ is open. Then for $u \notin \mathcal{C}$, there exists an open neighborhood $\mathcal{N}_r(u)$ for some $r > 0$ around $u$ such that $\mathcal{N}_r(u) \cap \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$. By defining $\eta = \frac{r}{2}$, the proof is complete. $\square
3. Proof of Density Lemma

Since the random variable $X$ is assumed to have a uniform distribution on $\Omega$, its density is given by $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{L}$ for every $x \in \Omega$. Recall that the random variable $Y$ is obtained via a random variable transformation from $X$, using the function $S^0$. Hence, its density function exists on $\mathbb{R} - C$—where we have banished the image (under $S'$) of the measure zero set of points where $S''$ vanishes—and is given by (2.3). The reader may refer to [8] for a detailed explanation.