

5 Random functions of two variables

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5a Introductory remarks

The sphere $S^2 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : |x| = 1\}$ is an example of a 2-dimensional manifold. We will consider the space $C^2(S^2)$ of twice continuously differentiable functions $S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and Gaussian measures on this space.

For example, linear functions $x \mapsto \langle x, \xi \rangle$ on \mathbb{R}^3 , restricted to S^2 , are a 3-dimensional subspace H_{lin} of $C^2(S^2)$, parameterized by $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^3$. If ξ is random, distributed γ^3 , we get a rotation-invariant 3-dimensional Gaussian measure on $C^2(S^2)$, denote it γ_{lin} .

5a1 Exercise. (a) Calculate $\mathbb{E} f(x)f(y)$, that is,

$$\int_{C^2(S^2)} f(x)f(y) \gamma_{\text{lin}}(df),$$

for $x, y \in S^2$.

(b) Prove that the norm $|\cdot|_{\gamma_{\text{lin}}}$ (recall page 7) is the restriction to H_{lin} of the norm of $L_2(S^2, 3\mu)$, where μ is the uniform distribution (in other words, normalized area measure) on S^2 .

Quadratic forms on \mathbb{R}^3 , restricted to S^2 , are a 6-dimensional subspace of $C^2(S^2)$, containing $1 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$. Forms orthogonal to 1 in $L_2(S^2, \mu)$ are a 5-dimensional subspace H_{quad} . The norm of $C^2(S^2)$ does not turn it into a Euclidean space, but the norm of $L_2(S^2, 5\mu)$ does. This norm is $|\cdot|_{\gamma}$ for some (unique) rotation-invariant 5-dimensional Gaussian measure on $C^2(S^2)$, denote it γ_{quad} .

5a2 Exercise. (a) Prove that the restriction of f to any great circle of S^2 is distributed like the random trigonometric polynomial

$$\frac{1}{2}\zeta_0 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(\zeta_2 \cos 2t + \eta_2 \sin 2t),$$

where ζ_0, ζ_2, η_2 are independent $N(0, 1)$ random variables.

(b) Calculate $\mathbb{E} f(x)f(y)$ w.r.t. γ_{quad} for $x, y \in S^2$.

Hint. First, $\int_{S^2} f(x) \mu(dx dy dz) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx$ for any f . Second, $\int_{S^2} x^2 y^2 \mu(dx dy dz) = \frac{1}{15}$, since $(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2 = 1$ on S^2 . Third, here is a convenient orthonormal basis of $H_{\text{quad}} \subset L_2(S^2, 5\mu)$:¹

$$\frac{3z^2 - 1}{2}; \quad \sqrt{3}zx, \sqrt{3}zy; \quad \sqrt{3}xy, \sqrt{3}\frac{x^2 - y^2}{2}.$$

We may consider, say, $f = g + \frac{1}{2}h$ where $g \sim \gamma_{\text{lin}}$ and $h \sim \gamma_{\text{quad}}$ are independent; such f is still a rotation-invariant Gaussian random field on S^2 . And, of course, we may use higher (cubic, ...) forms.²

The similar one-dimensional construction (over S^1) leads to random trigonometric polynomials, in the spirit of 1c12.

The torus $\mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1$ is another example of a 2-dimensional manifold. The space $C^2(\mathbb{T}^2)$ may be identified with the space of double-periodic smooth functions $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

For example, trigonometric polynomials, spanned by $\cos kx \cos ly$, $\cos kx \sin ly$, $\sin kx \cos ly$, $\sin kx \sin ly$ with $k + l \leq n$ (for a given n) are a finite-dimensional subspace of $C^2(\mathbb{T}^2)$. The norm of $L^2(S^2)$ turns it into a Euclidean space and leads to a stationary (that is, shift-invariant) Gaussian measure on $C^2(\mathbb{T}^2)$.

We may also treat \mathbb{T}^2 as $\{(x, y, u, v) : x^2 + y^2 = 1, u^2 + v^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^4$. Algebraic polynomials on \mathbb{R}^4 turn into trigonometric polynomials on \mathbb{T}^2 .

Other 2-dimensional manifolds could be used, but we restrict ourselves to S^2 and \mathbb{T}^2 .

See [1, p. 9] for a figure showing the cosmic microwave background radiation treated as a Gaussian random field on S^2 (the sky). See also [1, p. 10] for tomographic brain images.

¹Accordingly, H_{quad} decomposes into a line and two planes; rotating S^2 by α around the z axis, we rotate these planes by α and 2α respectively. In terms of spin 1 these correspond to eigenvalues of the z projection of the spin: 0 (the line), ± 1 (the first plane), ± 2 (the second plane).

²Harmonic homogeneous forms of degree n correspond to an eigenspace of the spherical Laplacian, spherical functions, and spin n .

5b Excursions: some topology

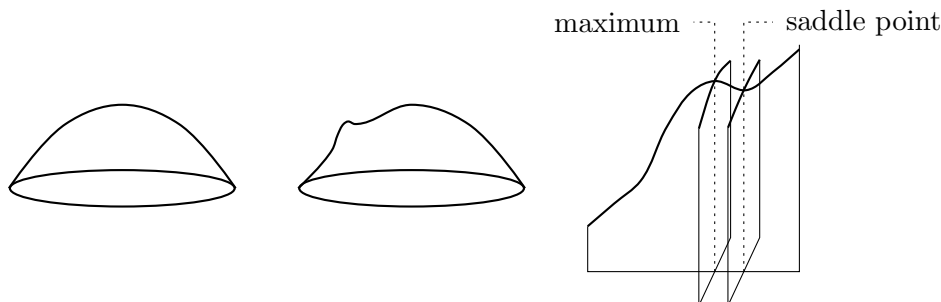
We return for a short while to dimension one. Let $f \in C^2(S^1)$, and $y \in \mathbb{R}$ be such that $f^{-1}(y)$ is a finite nonempty set not containing critical points of f . The set $\{x \in S^1 : f(x) \geq y\}$ is the union of a finite set of disjoint intervals. These intervals may be called *excursions* of f (above y). How to calculate the expected number of excursions for a random f ?

Clearly, the number of excursions is equal to $\frac{1}{2}\#f^{-1}(y)$, and we may use Rice's formula. Unfortunately, this approach does not work in dimension two, since $f^{-1}(y)$ fails to be a discrete set.

Each excursion contains a critical point, namely, a maximum of f . It may contain k maxima, but only in combination with $k - 1$ minima. Thus,

$$\binom{\text{number of excursions}}{\text{above } y} = \binom{\text{number of maxima}}{\text{above } y} - \binom{\text{number of minima}}{\text{above } y}.$$

This approach could work in dimension two, since critical points are still a discrete set. However, the combination $(\#\text{maxima}) - (\#\text{minima})$ fails to be 1 (or another constant) within a single two-dimensional excursion.



A local perturbation of f (near a non-critical point) can create a new maximum in combination with a new saddle point. Similarly it can create a new minimum in combination with a new saddle point. Here is the only expression that has a chance to be insensitive to perturbations:

$$\binom{\text{number of maxima}}{\text{maxima}} - \binom{\text{number of saddle points}}{\text{saddle points}} + \binom{\text{number of minima}}{\text{minima}}.$$

Theorem 5b1 below states that it really is.

Let $f \in C^2(S^2)$ (however, \mathbb{T}^2 may be used equally well);

- * a point $x \in S^2$ is called a *critical point* (of f), if the first derivatives of f at x vanish; equivalently, if $\frac{f(x_1) - f(x)}{\text{dist}(x_1, x)} \rightarrow 0$ as $x_1 \rightarrow x$;
- * a number $y \in \mathbb{R}$ is called a *critical value* (of f), if $y = f(x)$ for some critical point x ;

- * a critical point x is *nondegenerate* if the matrix of the second derivatives of f at x is nondegenerate, that is, its determinant does not vanish;¹
- * the *index* $i_f(x)$ of a nondegenerate critical point x of f is, by definition, the sign (± 1) of the determinant mentioned above;
- * a nondegenerate critical point of index $+1$ is an extremum (maximum or minimum); a nondegenerate critical point of index -1 is a saddle point;
- * f is called a *Morse function* if all its critical points are nondegenerate.

See [5, Sect. 1.2–1.4].² Below, ‘ $\nabla f(x) = 0$ ’ means that x is a critical point of f .

5b1 Theorem. Let $f, g \in C^2(S^2)$ be Morse functions such that

$$\forall x \in S^2 \quad \text{sgn } f(x) = \text{sgn } g(x)$$

and 0 is not a critical value of f , nor of g . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{x:f(x)<0,\nabla f(x)=0} i_f(x) &= \sum_{x:g(x)<0,\nabla g(x)=0} i_g(x), \\ \sum_{x:f(x)>0,\nabla f(x)=0} i_f(x) &= \sum_{x:g(x)>0,\nabla g(x)=0} i_g(x). \end{aligned}$$

The same holds for \mathbb{T}^2 .

I give no proof. Theorem 5b1 is a simple consequence of Morse theory, see Poincaré-Hopf theorem in [6, Sect. 6]. A rather elementary proof of the two-dimensional case is given in [4, Sect. 3.4 and 11.2] for the planar case, that is, when the domains $\{x : f(x) < 0\}$, $\{x : f(x) > 0\}$ can be embedded into \mathbb{R}^2 . This is enough for S^2 but not \mathbb{T}^2 ; see also [4, Sect. 4.7]. Beyond the planar case we cannot define the rotation of the vector field ∇f on the curve $f^{-1}(0)$, but still, we can define the difference between two such rotations (of ∇f and ∇g).

The topological invariant disclosed by Theorem 5b1 is called the *Euler* (-Poincaré) *characteristic* and denoted by χ ;³

$$(5b2) \quad \sum_{x:f(x)>0,\nabla f(x)=0} i_f(x) = \chi(\{x : f(x) \geq 0\}).$$

¹The determinant depends on a local coordinate system, but its nondegeneracy and sign do not.

²The same notion of index is used in [6, Sect. 6] and [4, Sect. 11.2]. A different (but related) notion of index is used in [1] and [5], see also [3, Sect. 6.1]. In terms of their index $\text{Ind}_f(x) \in \{0, 1, 2\}$, our index is $i_f(x) = (-1)^{\text{Ind}_f(x)}$.

³Another definition is, (number of triangles) – (number of edges) + (number of vertices) in any triangulation, see [5, Th. 4.11], where also a third, homological definition can be found. In addition, $\chi(A \cup B) = \chi(A) + \chi(B) - \chi(A \cap B)$, see [5, Prop. 4.13].

Clearly, if $\{x : f(x) \geq 0\}$ is not connected then its Euler characteristic decomposes into the sum (over connected components). A connected region $D \subset S^2$ is S^2 with k holes (for some $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$), and $\chi(D) = 2 - k$ [3, Th. 9.3.7 for $p = 0$]; especially, $\chi(S^2) = 2$, $\chi(\text{disk}) = 1$, $\chi(\text{annulus}) = 0$ (and note that negative values are also possible). The torus \mathbb{T}^2 with k holes is a non-planary connected region D ; in this case $\chi(D) = -k$ [3, Th. 9.3.7 for $p = 1$]. Especially, $\chi(\mathbb{T}^2) = 0$.

A trivial generalization of (5b2),

$$(5b3) \quad \sum_{x: f(x) > y, \nabla f(x) = 0} i_f(x) = \chi(\{x : f(x) \geq y\})$$

(assuming that f is a Morse function, and y is not a critical value of f), will be applied to a random function f . Calculating the expectation of the sum we will get the *expected Euler characteristic*, $\mathbb{E} \chi(\{x : f(x) \geq y\})$. True, this is not the expected number of excursions above y (that is, connected components of the excursion set $\{x : f(x) \geq y\}$). However, for a high level y we have usually no excursion at all, and sometimes a single, small excursion (roughly, ellipse) with no holes inside; its Euler characteristic equals 1. Other cases are relatively rare. This is why the expected Euler characteristic can give a valuable information about (the tail of) the distribution of the maximum of a smooth random field.

Dealing with a small excursion D with $1 - \chi(D)$ holes inside we may call these holes ‘antiexcursions’. In this sense,

$$\chi(\{x : f(x) \geq y\}) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{number of} \\ \text{excursions} \end{array} \right) - \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{number of} \\ \text{antiexcursions} \end{array} \right).$$

5c Nonrandom function

Taking into account that a small piece of S^2 or \mathbb{T}^2 is a planar domain, for now we consider functions on a bounded open set $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ or its closure \overline{D} .

Recall that every map $f \in C^1(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$ has the Jacobian $J_f \in C(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R})$;

$$(5c1) \quad J_f(x) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} \end{vmatrix},$$

where $(y_1, y_2) = y = f(x) = f(x_1, x_2)$. If f is one-to-one on D then

$$(5c2) \quad \text{mes}_2 f(D) = \int_D |J_f(x)| dx$$

(‘mes₂’ is the two-dimensional Lebesgue measure) and moreover,

$$(5c3) \quad \int_{f(D)} \varphi(y) dy = \int_D \varphi(f(x)) |J_f(x)| dx$$

for every bounded Borel function $\varphi : f(D) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

5c4 Exercise. For every bounded Borel function $\varphi : D \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dy \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} \varphi(x, y) = \int_D \varphi(x, f(x)) |J_f(x)| dx.$$

Prove it.

Hint: partition the graph of f into a (finite or infinite) sequence of small parts and apply (5c3) on each part; consider positive and negative values of φ separately; and use (two-dimensional) Sard's theorem, similarly to the proof of 3b1.

A function $f \in C^2(\overline{D})$ has the gradient $\nabla f \in C^1(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$,

$$\nabla f(x) = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2} \right)$$

where $y = f(x) = f(x_1, x_2)$. A critical point of f is x such that $\nabla f(x) = 0$. The critical point x is nondegenerate if $J_{\nabla f}(x) \neq 0$. The index of a nondegenerate critical point x is

$$i_f(x) = \text{sgn } J_{\nabla f}(x).$$

5c5 Exercise. For all bounded Borel functions $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\psi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and all $f \in C^2(\overline{D})$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dy' \psi(y') \sum_{x \in D: \nabla f(x) = y'} \varphi(f(x)) \text{sgn } J_{\nabla f}(x) = \int_D dx \psi(\nabla f(x)) \varphi(f(x)) J_{\nabla f}(x).$$

Prove it.

Hint: similar to 4a3.

5d Random function

Similarly to 4a we consider a probability measure μ on $C^2(\overline{D})$ such that for each $x \in D$ some density $(y, y') \mapsto p_x(y, y')$ and some regression function $(y, y') \mapsto \mathbb{E}(J_{\nabla f}(x) | f(x) = y, \nabla f(x) = y')$ satisfy the equalities

$$(5d1) \quad \mathbb{E} \varphi(f(x)) \psi(\nabla f(x)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} dy \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dy' p_x(y, y') \varphi(y) \psi(y')$$

and

$$(5d2) \quad \mathbb{E} \varphi(f(x)) \psi(\nabla f(x)) J_{\nabla f}(x) = \\ = \int_{\mathbb{R}} dy \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dy' p_x(y, y') \varphi(y) \psi(y') \mathbb{E}(J_{\nabla f}(x) | f(x) = y, \nabla f(x) = y')$$

for all bounded Borel functions $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\psi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (similarly to 4a7). We also assume that

$$(5d3) \quad \mathbb{E} \int_D |J_{\nabla f}(x)| dx < \infty.$$

Similarly to (4a6) we get

$$(5d4) \quad \mathbb{E} \sum_{x \in D: \nabla f(x) = y'} \varphi(f(x)) \operatorname{sgn} J_{\nabla f}(x) = \\ = \int_D dx p_x(y') \int_{\mathbb{R}} dy p_x(y|y') \varphi(y) \mathbb{E}(J_{\nabla f}(x) | f(x) = y, \nabla f(x) = y')$$

for almost all $y' \in \mathbb{R}^2$; as before,

$$p_x(y, y') = p_x(y') p_x(y|y').$$

5e Gaussian case

Similarly to 4b we consider a (centered) Gaussian measure γ on $C^2(\overline{D})$ such that for every $x \in D$ (assuming that f is distributed γ),

$$(5e1) \quad \text{the joint distribution of } f(x) \text{ and } \nabla f(x) \text{ is a } \textit{nondegenerate} \\ \text{Gaussian measure on } \mathbb{R}^3.$$

In other words,

- * the variance of $f(x)$ does not vanish,
- * conditionally, given $f(x)$, the variance of the directional derivative of f at x does not vanish

(at each point, in each direction). Compare it with (4b1), (4b2). For now the variance of $f(x)$ need not be equal to 1 (yet).

The conditions of 5d are thus ensured, and therefore (5d4) holds for almost all y' . In fact it holds for all y' , as is shown below (similarly to 4b). Especially, for $y' = 0$, taking into account that $\operatorname{sgn} J_{\nabla f}(x) = i_f(x)$ (and letting $i_f(x) = 0$ if x is degenerate) we get

$$(5e2) \quad \mathbb{E} \sum_{x \in D: \nabla f(x) = 0} \varphi(f(x)) i_f(x) = \\ = \int_D dx p_x(0) \int_{\mathbb{R}} dy p_x(y|y' = 0) \varphi(y) \mathbb{E}(J_{\nabla f}(x) | f(x) = y, \nabla f(x) = 0).$$

The right-hand side of (5d4) is continuous in y' (check it); we have to prove that the left-hand side

$$\mathbb{E} \sum_{x \in D: \nabla f(x) = y'} \varphi(f(x)) \operatorname{sgn} J_{\nabla f}(x)$$

is also continuous in y' . Similarly to 3d and 4b, it is sufficient to check continuity of the function¹

$$y' \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \gamma^2(du) \sum_{x \in D: \nabla f_u(x) = y'} \varphi(f_u(x)) \operatorname{sgn} J_{\nabla f_u}(x),$$

where $f_u(\cdot) = f_{u_1, u_2}(\cdot) = g(\cdot) + u_1 h_1(\cdot) + u_2 h_2(\cdot)$; $g, h_1, h_2 \in C^2(\overline{D})$ and the two vectors $\nabla h_1(x), \nabla h_2(x)$ are linearly independent for all $x \in \overline{D}$. To this end we transform the integral in u into an integral in x (compare it with (4b6)):

$$(5e3) \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \gamma^2(du) \sum_{x \in D: \nabla f_u(x) = y'} \varphi(f_u(x)) \operatorname{sgn} J_{\nabla f_u}(x) = \pm \int_D \varphi(f_{U(x)}(x)) \gamma^2(dU(x));$$

here the sign is '+' if $J_h(\cdot) = \det(\nabla h_1, \nabla h_2) > 0$ on \overline{D} , or '-' if $J_h(\cdot) < 0$ on \overline{D} ; and $U(x) = (U_1(x), U_2(x))$ is the (unique) solution of the linear equation

$$(5e4) \quad \nabla g(x) + U_1(x) \nabla h_1(x) + U_2(x) \nabla h_2(x) = y_1.$$

(Note that $U \in C^1(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$.) Clearly, the right-hand side of (5e3) is continuous in y' (assuming continuity of φ without loss of generality, recall (4b8)).

In order to get (5e3) we start with a two-dimensional counterpart of (3b7):

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} dy \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} g(x) \operatorname{sgn} J_f(x) = \int_D g(x) J_f(x) dx$$

for $f \in C^1(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$ (which follows from 5c4). Replacing f with U and $g(x)$ with $\varphi(f_{U(x)}(x)) \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}U_1^2(x) - \frac{1}{2}U_2^2(x))$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \gamma^2(du) \sum_{x: U(x)=u} \varphi(f_u(x)) \operatorname{sgn} J_U(x) &= \\ &= \int_D \varphi(f_{U(x)}(x)) \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}U_1^2(x) - \frac{1}{2}U_2^2(x)) J_U(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

¹And, in addition, integrability of its supremum over a bounded set.

However, $U(x) = u \iff \nabla f_u(x) = y'$, and $J_{\nabla f}(\cdot) = J_U(\cdot)J_h(\cdot)$. In order to get the latter equality we differentiate (5e4) in x getting $f_{,kl} = -h_{1,k}U_{1,l} - h_{2,k}U_{2,l}$ where

$$f_{,kl} = \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} f_u(x_1, x_2) \right) \Big|_{u=U(x_1, x_2)}.$$

Finally,

$$J_{\nabla f} = f_{,11}f_{,22} - f_{,12}f_{,21} = (h_{1,1}h_{2,2} - h_{1,2}h_{2,1})(U_{1,1}U_{2,2} - U_{1,2}U_{2,1}) = J_h J_U,$$

which completes the proof of (5e2).

5e5 Exercise. With probability 1, f is a Morse function.

Prove it. Do you need the whole (5e1), or something weaker?

Hint: $f_u = g + u_1h_1 + u_2h_2$ and $U(\cdot)$ as before; if x is a degenerate critical point of f_u , then u is a critical value of U , since $u = U(x)$ and

$$\nabla g(x + \Delta x) + U_1(x)\nabla h_1(x + \Delta x) + U_2(x)\nabla h_2(x + \Delta x) = o(|\Delta x|),$$

therefore

$$(U_1(x+\Delta x) - U_1(x))\nabla h_1(x+\Delta x) + (U_2(x+\Delta x) - U_2(x))\nabla h_2(x+\Delta x) = o(|\Delta x|).$$

5f Curvature appears

No kind of curvature can be detected by a bug on a curve. But if the bug moves to a surface, it can detect Gaussian curvature.

F. Morgan [7, Sect. 3.6 (p. 24)].

Upgrading 3e and 4d we consider a surface (rather than curve) on $S^{n-1} = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^n : |z| = 1\}$ parameterized by S^2 ;

$$Z \in C^2(S^2, \mathbb{R}^n), \quad Z(S^2) \subset S^{n-1}.$$

We assume that Z is an immersion, that is [3, Sect. 1.3],

$$(5f1) \quad \nabla_v Z(x) \neq 0$$

for every $x \in S^2$ and every vector $v \neq 0$ tangent to S^2 at x (that is, $\langle v, x \rangle = 0$); of course,

$$(5f2) \quad \nabla_v Z(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left(Z\left(\frac{x + \varepsilon v}{|x + \varepsilon v|}\right) - Z(x) \right).$$

It leads to a Gaussian random vector in $C^2(S^2)$,

$$f(x) = \langle Z(x), \xi \rangle,$$

where ξ is distributed γ^n .

5f3 Exercise. (a) Some choice of n and Z makes f distributed γ_{lin} (recall 5a).

(b) The same holds for γ_{quad} .

(c) The same holds for the convolution of γ_{quad} and γ_{lin} , that is, the distribution of $f = g + h$ for independent $g \sim \gamma_{\text{quad}}$ and $h \sim \gamma_{\text{lin}}$.

Prove it. What about $ag + bh$?

Hint: (b) use 5a2; (c) take the orthogonal sum of the spaces used in (a) and (b).

A crucial distinction between curves and surfaces is that all curves are mutually isometric but surfaces are not. I mean, on every curve there exists a coordinate u such that

$$\text{dist}(A, B) = |u(A) - u(B)| \cdot (1 + o(1))$$

as $\text{dist}(A, B) \rightarrow 0$. In contrast, a surface generally does not admit coordinates u_1, u_2 such that

$$\text{dist}(A, B) = \sqrt{|u_1(A) - u_1(B)|^2 + |u_2(A) - u_2(B)|^2} \cdot (1 + o(1))$$

as $\text{dist}(A, B) \rightarrow 0$.

The natural parameter helped us a lot in 4c, but cannot help now. And do not blame the domain, S^2 . Blame the range, $Z(S^2) \subset S^{n-1}$. The same difficulty appears for Gaussian random fields on planar domains.

Critical points of the function $x \mapsto f(x) = \langle Z(x), \xi \rangle$ on S^2 correspond to critical points of the function $z \mapsto \langle z, \xi \rangle$ on the two-dimensional surface $Z(S^2) \subset S^{n-1}$. True, Z need not be one-to-one (it is an immersion, not necessarily embedding [3, Sect. 1.3]), but this is not an obstacle. We may count critical points on small pieces of S^2 ; on such piece Z is one-to-one, and its inverse Z^{-1} is also smooth (C^2) on the corresponding piece of $Z(S^2)$. Thus, we may forget for a while about S^2 and Z and consider the random function $z \mapsto \langle z, \xi \rangle$ on a small piece $T \subset S^{n-1}$ of a two-dimensional surface. (Afterwards we will translate the result into the language of Z and S^2 .)

Given a point of T , we want to choose coordinates that are as convenient as possible around this point. To this end we rotate the coordinate system of \mathbb{R}^n so that the given point becomes $e_3 = (0, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ and the tangent plane to T at e_3 becomes $\mathbb{R}e_1 + \mathbb{R}e_2 + e_3$. We get

$$T = \{z_1 e_1 + z_2 e_2 + e_3 + h(z_1, z_2) : (z_1, z_2) \in D\}$$

where $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is an open neighborhood of the origin (of \mathbb{R}^2), and $h \in$

$C^2(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^n)$ satisfies

$$\frac{h(z_1, z_2)}{\sqrt{z_1^2 + z_2^2}} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } z_1 \rightarrow 0, z_2 \rightarrow 0;$$

$$\langle h(z_1, z_2), e_1 \rangle = \langle h(z_1, z_2), e_2 \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for all } (z_1, z_2) \in D.$$

Introducing

$$a_{i,j} = \left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i \partial z_j} \right|_{z_1=z_2=0} h(z_1, z_2) \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{for } i, j \in \{1, 2\}$$

we get $\langle a_{i,j}, e_1 \rangle = \langle a_{i,j}, e_2 \rangle = 0$ and

$$h(z_1, z_2) = \frac{1}{2}a_{1,1}z_1^2 + a_{1,2}z_1z_2 + \frac{1}{2}a_{2,2}z_2^2 + o(z_1^2 + z_2^2).$$

The *Gauss curvature* of the surface T at e_3 is, by definition,

$$(5f4) \quad K = \langle a_{1,1}, a_{2,2} \rangle - |a_{1,2}|^2;$$

see [7, p. 30] (there it is denoted by G instead of the traditional K).¹

Instead of the random function $z \mapsto \langle z, \xi \rangle$ on T we consider the corresponding random function $f \in C^2(\overline{D})$,

$$f(z_1, z_2) = \langle z_1 e_1 + z_2 e_2 + e_3 + h(z_1, z_2), \xi \rangle;$$

as before, ξ is distributed γ^n .

5f5 Exercise. $\mathbb{E} J_{\nabla f}(0) = K$.

Prove it.

Hint: first, $\left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i \partial z_j} \right|_{z_1=z_2=0} f(z_1, z_2) = \langle a_{i,j}, \xi \rangle$; second, $\mathbb{E}(\langle a, \xi \rangle \langle b, \xi \rangle) = \langle a, b \rangle$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

5f6 Exercise. $\langle a_{1,1}, e_3 \rangle = \langle a_{2,2}, e_3 \rangle = -1$ and $\langle a_{1,2}, e_3 \rangle = 0$.

Prove it.

Hint: $|z_1 e_1 + z_2 e_2 + e_3 + h(z_1, z_2)|^2 = 1$, therefore $\langle h(z_1, z_2), e_3 \rangle = -\frac{1}{2}(z_1^2 + z_2^2 + o(z_1^2 + z_2^2))$.

5f7 Exercise. The following two three-dimensional random vectors are independent:

$$(f(0), f_{,1}(0), f_{,2}(0)),$$

$$(f_{,11}(0) + f(0), f_{,22}(0) + f(0), f_{,12}(0));$$

¹See also [7, Chap. 3] for surfaces in \mathbb{R}^3 , the famous Gauss's *Theorema Egregium* ('remarkable' or 'excellent' theorem): Gaussian curvature is intrinsic [7, 3.6 and 4.3] and the area of a disc of intrinsic radius r : $\text{area} = \pi r^2 - G \frac{\pi}{12} r^4 + \dots$ [7, (3.8)].

here $f_{,i}(0) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z_i} \Big|_{z_1=z_2=0} f(z_1, z_2)$ and $f_{,ij}(0) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_i \partial z_j} \Big|_{z_1=z_2=0} f(z_1, z_2)$.

Prove it.

Hint: each one of the three vectors $a_{1,1} + e_3$, $a_{2,2} + e_3$, $a_{1,2}$ is orthogonal to e_1, e_2, e_3 .

5f8 Exercise. The regression function $\mathbb{E}(J_{\nabla f}(0) | f(0) = y, \nabla f(0) = y') = y^2 - 1 + K$ and the density $p_0(y, y') = (2\pi)^{-3/2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}y^2 - \frac{1}{2}|y'|^2)$ for $y \in \mathbb{R}$, $y' \in \mathbb{R}^2$ satisfy (5d1) and (5d2) (for $x = 0$).

Prove it.

Hint: first, a formal calculation: $\mathbb{E}(f_{,11}(0)f_{,22}(0) | \dots) = \mathbb{E}(((f_{,11}(0) + f(0) - f(0))(f_{,22}(0) + f(0) - f(0)) | \dots)) = \mathbb{E}(f_{,11}(0) + f(0))(f_{,22}(0) + f(0)) - \dots$ etc; second, prove (5d1) and (5d2).

Now we are in position to evaluate the integrand of (the external integral of) (5e2) at the point 0 of D ; it is equal to

$$(5f9) \quad \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} (y^2 - 1 + K) \varphi(y) \gamma^1(dy).$$

Still, we cannot evaluate the integral, since every point needs its own coordinate system!

5g Curvature disappears

Recall the notion ‘surface area’; it may be calculated as

$$(5g1) \quad \sigma(T) = \int_D \sqrt{|a_1(z_1, z_2)|^2 |a_2(z_1, z_2)|^2 - (\langle a_1(z_1, z_2), a_2(z_1, z_2) \rangle)^2} dz_1 dz_2,$$

$$\text{where } a_i(z_1, z_2) = e_i + \frac{\partial}{\partial z_i} h(z_1, z_2) \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2,$$

but it is ‘geometric’ in the sense that it does not depend on the choice of a coordinate system. Moreover, σ is a measure on T (still, ‘geometric’).

Another ‘geometric’ measure μ on T is defined by

$$(5g2) \quad \mu(A) = \mathbb{E} \sum_{z \in A: \nabla f(z)=0} \varphi(f(z)) i_f(z) \quad \text{for } A \subset T;$$

the formula (5e2) (in combination with (5g1)) shows that μ has a density $d\mu/d\sigma$, and in fact, the density is continuous. Clearly, $d\mu/d\sigma$ is also ‘geometric’. It means that, when calculating $d\mu/d\sigma$, we may choose a convenient coordinate system for each point separately.

Taking into account that the integrand of (5g1) at 0 is equal to 1, we conclude from (5f9) that

$$(5g3) \quad \frac{d\mu}{d\sigma}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} (y^2 - 1 + K(z)) \varphi(y) \gamma^1(dy)$$

for $z \in T$; here $K(z)$ is the Gauss curvature of T at z . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \sum_{z \in T: \nabla f(z)=0} \varphi(f(z)) i_f(z) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sigma(T) \int_{\mathbb{R}} (y^2 - 1) \varphi(y) \gamma^1(dy) + \\ &+ \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\int_T K(z) \sigma(dz) \right) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(y) \gamma^1(dy) \right). \end{aligned}$$

Summing up small pieces T of the surface $Z(S^2)$ and returning to the random function $x \mapsto f(x) = \langle Z(x), \xi \rangle$ on S^2 we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \sum_{x \in S^2: \nabla f(x)=0} \varphi(f(x)) i_f(x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sigma(Z(S^2)) \int_{\mathbb{R}} (y^2 - 1) \varphi(y) \gamma^1(dy) + \\ &+ \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\int_{Z(S^2)} K(z) \sigma(dz) \right) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi \, d\gamma^1 \right). \end{aligned}$$

This is correct if Z is an embedding, but for an immersion we should write $\text{Area}_Z(S^2)$ rather than $\sigma(Z(S^2))$, and $\int_{S^2} K_Z(x) \text{Area}_Z(dx)$ rather than $\int_{Z(S^2)} K(z) \sigma(dz)$. Here S^2 is equipped with a new Riemannian metric RiM_Z induced by the immersion Z (see below); Area_Z is the area measure corresponding to the new Riemannian metric; and $K_Z(x)$ is the Gauss curvature at x , corresponding to the new Riemannian metric.

For any smooth curve $(x_t)_{t \in [0,1]}$ on S^2 , its length is $\int_0^1 |v_t| dt$ where $v_t = \frac{d}{dt} x_t$. The length of the corresponding curve $(Z(x_t))_{t \in [0,1]}$ on S^{n-1} is

$$\int_0^1 \left| \frac{d}{dt} Z(x_t) \right| dt = \int_0^1 |\nabla_{v_t} Z(x_t)| dt = \int_0^1 \sqrt{\text{RiM}_Z(x_t)(v_t)} dt$$

(recall (5f2)), where $\text{RiM}_Z(x)$ is the quadratic form¹ $v \mapsto \text{RiM}_Z(x)(v) = |\nabla_v Z(x)|^2$ on the tangent plane to S^2 at x . The family $(\text{RiM}_Z(x))_{x \in S^2}$ of these quadratic forms is, by definition, the Riemannian metric RiM_Z . (In general, a Riemannian metric is a smooth family of strictly positive quadratic forms on tangent spaces.)

Both Area_Z and K_Z are uniquely determined by RiM_Z (which is the meaning of the term ‘intrinsic’).

¹It is quadratic, since $\nabla_v Z(x)$ is linear in v .

5g4 Exercise. (a) For γ_{lin} (recall 5f3(a)) the new Riemannian metric RiM_Z is equal to the old (usual) Riemannian metric RiM of S^2 .

(b) For γ_{quad} (recall 5f3(b)), $\text{RiM}_Z = \sqrt{3} \text{RiM}$.

Prove it.

Hint: (b) $|Z(x) - Z(y)|^2 = 2 - 2\langle Z(x), Z(y) \rangle = 2(1 - \mathbb{E} f(x)f(y))$; use 5a2.

Here comes a surprise: we do not need to calculate the curvature for every given Z , since the integral of the curvature is a topological invariant, namely,

$$(5g5) \quad \int_{S^2} K_Z(x) \text{Area}_Z(dx) = 4\pi;$$

this is a special case of the famous Gauss-Bonnet theorem [7, Sect. 8.2]. Thus,

$$\mathbb{E} \sum_{x \in S^2: \nabla f(x)=0} \varphi(f(x)) i_f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \text{Area}_Z(S^2) \int_{\mathbb{R}} (y^2 - 1) \varphi(y) \gamma^1(dy) + 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi d\gamma^1.$$

Finally, using (5b3), 5e5 and taking into account that $(y^2 - 1)e^{-y^2/2} = -(ye^{-y^2/2})'$ we get

$$(5g6) \quad \mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} ye^{-y^2/2} \text{Area}_Z(S^2) + 2\gamma^1([y, \infty))$$

for every $y \in \mathbb{R}$ and every random process of the type introduced in (the beginning of) 5f. In particular, for $y = 0$,

$$\mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq 0\}) = 1$$

irrespective of $\text{Area}_Z(S^2)$, but this fact is rather a simple consequence of the symmetry of γ under $f \mapsto (-f)$.¹ Note also the limiting cases $y \rightarrow -\infty$ and $y \rightarrow +\infty$. And one more limiting case: $\text{Area}_Z(S^2) \rightarrow 0$, the constant process.

All said above holds also for a surface on S^{n-1} parameterized by the torus \mathbb{T}^2 (rather than the sphere S^2), except for (5g5); this time,²

$$(5g7) \quad \int_{\mathbb{T}^2} K_Z(x) \text{Area}_Z(dx) = 0,$$

and the last term of (5g6) disappears:

$$(5g8) \quad \mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in \mathbb{T}^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = (2\pi)^{-3/2} ye^{-y^2/2} \text{Area}_Z(\mathbb{T}^2).$$

¹Indeed, $\chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq 0\}) + \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \leq 0\}) = \chi(S^2) + \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) = 0\}) = 2 + 0 = 2$.

²Since $\chi(\mathbb{T}^2) = 0$. Generally, $\int_M K_Z(x) \text{Area}_Z(dx) = 2\pi\chi(M)$.

5h A generalization

Let γ be a (centered) Gaussian measure on $C^2(S^2)$ such that for every $x \in S^2$ (assuming that f is distributed γ),

$$(5h1) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{the distribution of } f(x) \text{ is } N(0, 1), \\ \text{the distribution of } \nabla f(x) \text{ is a 2-dimensional Gaussian measure.} \end{array}$$

In other words, the variance of the directional derivative of f does not vanish (at each point, in each direction).

We consider the Hilbert space $H = L_2^{\text{lin}}(\gamma)$ of γ -measurable linear functionals (or rather, their equivalence classes), its unit sphere $S(H) = \{z \in H : \|z\| = 1\}$ and the map

$$\begin{aligned} Z \in C^2(S^2, H), \quad Z(S^2) \subset S(H), \\ Z(x)(f) = f(x) \quad \text{for } x \in S^2, f \in C^2(S^2). \end{aligned}$$

5h2 Exercise. Prove that the map $Z : S^2 \rightarrow H$ is indeed twice continuously differentiable.

Hint: recall (the hint to) 3d3.

Do not think that the necessary condition $Z \in C^2(S^2, H)$ is also sufficient. Some γ on $C^1(S^2)$ satisfy this condition but do not fit into $C^2(S^2)$.¹

5h3 Exercise. $f(x)$ and $\nabla f(x)$ are independent (for each $x \in S^2$ separately). Prove it.

Hint: similar to (3d4).

Thus, γ satisfies (5e1) (in any smooth coordinate system on a small piece of S^2), which ensures (5e2). Now, all arguments of 5f and 5g work, giving (5g6). The only point that needs some attention is this: the extrinsic definition (5f4) of the Gauss curvature is equivalent to its intrinsic definition, based on the Riemannian metric RiM_Z . The proof is quite similar to the finite-dimensional case. The Gauss-Bonnet theorem works as before, since it is applied to (S^2, RiM_Z) (rather than $Z(S^2) \subset S(H)$).

Similarly, (5g8) holds for every Gaussian random function on the torus, satisfying (5h1).

¹It is sufficient (but not necessary) that the second derivatives of Z satisfy some Hölder condition (in particular, $Z \in C^3(S^2, H)$ is far enough).

5i Final remarks

5i1 Exercise. Let $f \in C^2(S^2)$ be distributed γ_{lin} (recall 5a), and $M = \sup_{S^2} f$. Then

$$\chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } y \in (-\infty, -M), \\ 1 & \text{for } y \in (-M, M), \\ 0 & \text{for } y \in (M, \infty), \end{cases}$$

thus

$$\mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = \begin{cases} 2 - \mathbb{P}(M > -y) & \text{for } y < 0, \\ \mathbb{P}(M > y) & \text{for } y \geq 0, \end{cases}$$

and (5g6) gives

$$\mathbb{P}(M > y) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} y e^{-y^2/2} + 2\gamma^1([y, \infty)) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_y^\infty u^2 e^{-u^2/2} du$$

for $y \geq 0$.

Check it. Give an elementary explanation, why the density of M is $f_M(u) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} u^2 e^{-u^2/2}$ on $(0, \infty)$.

5i2 Exercise. Let $f \in C^2(S^2)$ be distributed γ_{quad} (recall 5a), and $M_1 > M_2 > M_3$ be the eigenvalues of the quadratic form f , in other words, the critical values of f on S^2 (two symmetric maxima, two symmetric saddle points and two symmetric minima). Then

$$\chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } y \in (-\infty, M_3), \\ 0 & \text{for } y \in (M_3, M_2), \\ 2 & \text{for } y \in (M_2, M_1), \\ 0 & \text{for } y \in (M_1, \infty), \end{cases}$$

thus

$$\mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = 2\mathbb{P}(M_1 > y) - 2\mathbb{P}(M_2 > y) + 2\mathbb{P}(M_3 > y),$$

and (5g6) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(M_1 > y) - \mathbb{P}(M_2 > y) + \mathbb{P}(M_3 > y) &= \frac{3}{\sqrt{2\pi}} y e^{-y^2/2} + \gamma^1([y, \infty)) = \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_y^\infty (3u^2 - 2) e^{-u^2/2} du \end{aligned}$$

for $y \in \mathbb{R}$. In terms of densities,

$$f_{M_1}(u) - f_{M_2}(u) + f_{M_3}(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(3u^2 - 2)e^{-u^2/2}.$$

Check it.

Here we have no exact formula for $\mathbb{P}(M > y)$, where $M = \sup_{S^2} f = M_1$. However, we have an inequality,

$$\mathbb{P}(M > y) \geq \frac{3}{\sqrt{2\pi}}ye^{-y^2/2} + \gamma^1([y, \infty)),$$

and in fact, the right-hand side is a very good approximation of $\mathbb{P}(M > y)$ for large y .

5i3 Exercise. Consider a linear combination $f = a\zeta + bg + ch$ of independent ζ, g, h distributed $N(0, 1)$, γ_{lin} and γ_{quad} respectively (ζ is treated as a random constant function), assuming that $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 1$.

- (a) f satisfies (5h1).
- (b) $\text{RiM}_f = \sqrt{b^2 + 3c^2} \text{ RiM}$.

Check it.

We see that different rotation-invariant Gaussian measures on $C^2(S^2)$ may lead to the same Riemannian metric. For example, g and $\sqrt{2/3}\zeta + \sqrt{1/3}h$. In fact, the same (rotation-invariant) Riemannian metric results also from many Gaussian measures that are not rotation-invariant.

From now on we assume that f and g are random functions of $C^2(S^2)$ whose distributions satisfy the conditions of 5h.

Given a smooth curve $C \subset S^2$, we denote by $\text{Len}_f(C)$ its length according to the Riemannian metric RiM_f .

5i4 Exercise. For any smooth closed curve $C \subset S^2$,

$$\mathbb{E} \#(C \cap f^{-1}(0)) = \text{Len}_f(C).$$

Prove it.

Hint: parameterize C by S^1 and apply 3d6.

5i5 Exercise. The degenerate case

$$f(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla f(x) = 0$$

is excluded for almost all f .

Prove it.

Hint: in the spirit of 5e, introduce $f_u(\cdot) = g(\cdot) + u_1 h_1(\cdot) + u_2 h_2(\cdot) + u_3 h_3(\cdot)$ where

$$\begin{vmatrix} h_1(\cdot) & h_2(\cdot) & h_3(\cdot) \\ h_{1,1}(\cdot) & h_{2,1}(\cdot) & h_{3,1}(\cdot) \\ h_{1,2}(\cdot) & h_{2,2}(\cdot) & h_{3,2}(\cdot) \end{vmatrix} \neq 0,$$

and define $U \in C^1(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^3)$ by solving (in u) the system $f_u(x) = 0$, $\nabla f_u(x) = 0$.

It follows that the set $f^{-1}(0)$, known as the nodal line, consists of a finite number of disjoint simple (that is, non-self-intersecting) smooth closed curves on S^2 .

5i6 Exercise.

$$\mathbb{E} \text{Len}_f g^{-1}(0) = \pi \mathbb{E} \#(f^{-1}(0) \cap g^{-1}(0)) = \mathbb{E} \text{Len}_g f^{-1}(0).$$

Prove it.

Hint: 5i4, and Fubini.

Choosing $g \sim \gamma_{\text{lin}}$ we observe that $g^{-1}(0)$ is a random great circle, and $\text{Len}_g = \text{Len}$ is the usual length. Thus,

$$(5i7) \quad \mathbb{E} \text{Len} f^{-1}(0) = \mathbb{E} \text{Len}_f(\text{great circle});$$

the expected length of the nodal line is equal to the averaged Riemannian length of a great circle.

The condition

$$(5i8) \quad \text{RiM}_f = C_f \cdot \text{RiM} \quad \text{for some } C_f \in (0, \infty)$$

is weaker than rotation-invariance; it means that the directional derivative is distributed $N(0, C_f^2)$ at each point, in each direction. In this case (5i7) becomes

$$(5i9) \quad \mathbb{E} \text{Len} f^{-1}(0) = 2\pi C_f.$$

On the other hand, $\text{Area}_f(S^2) = C_f^2 \text{Area}(S^2) = 4\pi C_f^2$, thus,

$$(5i10) \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) &= 2(2\pi)^{-1/2} y e^{-y^2/2} C_f^2 + 2\gamma^1([y, \infty)) = \\ &= 2(2\pi)^{-5/2} y e^{-y^2/2} (\mathbb{E} \text{Len} f^{-1}(0))^2 + 2\gamma^1([y, \infty)), \end{aligned}$$

a nontrivial relation between the mean length of a nodal line and the mean Euler characteristic.

Waiving (5i8) we have no direct relation between $\text{Area}_f(S^2)$ and $\mathbb{E} \text{Len}_f(\text{great circle})$, but still, we may get a nontrivial relation as follows.

Let f, g be identically distributed (and independent, as before). It appears that

$$(5i11) \quad \mathbb{E} \#(f^{-1}(0) \cap g^{-1}(0)) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \text{Area}_f(S^2).$$

This is a special case of a two-dimensional counterpart of Rice's formula; I do not prove it. (Think, what happens if $f \sim \gamma_{\text{lin.}}$.) Using (5i11) we get

$$(5i12) \quad \mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} y e^{-y^2/2} \mathbb{E} \#(f^{-1}(0) \cap g^{-1}(0)) + 2\gamma^1([y, \infty)),$$

a very general nontrivial relation between the mean Euler characteristic and the mean number of intersections between two independent nodal lines. Assuming also (5i8) we get $\mathbb{E} \#(f^{-1}(0) \cap g^{-1}(0)) = 2C_f^2$.

The same holds for the torus, except for the last term;

$$(5i13) \quad \mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in \mathbb{T}^2 : f(x) \geq y\}) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} y e^{-y^2/2} \mathbb{E} \#(f^{-1}(0) \cap g^{-1}(0)).$$

A remarkable theorem of Taylor, Takemura and Adler [8, Th. 4.3] shows that the expected Euler characteristic is an excellent approximation for (the tail of) the distribution of $M_f = \max_{S^2} f$; namely, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ (depending on the distribution of f) such that

$$|\mathbb{P}(M_f \geq y) - \mathbb{E} \chi(\{x \in S^2 : f(x) \geq y\})| \leq \exp\left(-\frac{1+\varepsilon}{2}y^2\right)$$

for all y large enough. It is assumed that the maximizer is unique a.s.¹ A sufficient condition: $\mathbb{E} |f(x_1) - f(x_2)|^2 > 0$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$.

A much, much weaker statement,

$$\mathbb{P}(M_f \geq y) \sim (2\pi)^{-3/2} y e^{-y^2/2} \text{Area}_f(S^2) \sim \frac{\text{Area}_f(S^2)}{2\pi} y^2 \gamma^1([y, \infty)),$$

shows that

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(M_f \geq y)}{\mathbb{P}(M_g \geq y)} \rightarrow \frac{\text{Area}_f(S^2)}{\text{Area}_g(S^2)} \quad \text{as } y \rightarrow \infty.$$

5i14 Corollary. If

$$\frac{\mathbb{E} |f(x_1) - f(x_2)|^2}{\mathbb{E} |g(x_1) - g(x_2)|^2} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } \text{dist}(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow 0$$

¹Otherwise the approximation may fail; 5i2 gives a counterexample.

and $\mathbb{E} |f(x_1) - f(x_2)|^2 > 0$, $\mathbb{E} |g(x_1) - g(x_2)|^2 > 0$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$, then

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(\max f \geq y)}{\mathbb{P}(\max g \geq y)} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } y \rightarrow \infty.$$

The proof involves differential geometry, but the formulation does not!

5i15 Question. Is any differential structure essential for 5i14?

Let f, g be Gaussian random continuous functions on a compact metric space T , satisfying $f(t) \sim N(0, 1)$ and $g(t) \sim N(0, 1)$ for all $t \in T$. Does 5i14 hold in this generality?

The same question applies to a stronger claim: if

$$\frac{\mathbb{E} |f(x_1) - f(x_2)|^2}{\mathbb{E} |g(x_1) - g(x_2)|^2} \rightarrow C^2 \quad \text{as } \text{dist}(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow 0,$$

for some $C \in (0, \infty)$, and $\mathbb{E} |f(x_1) - f(x_2)|^2 > 0$, $\mathbb{E} |g(x_1) - g(x_2)|^2 > 0$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$, then

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(\max f \geq y)}{\mathbb{P}(\max g \geq y)} \rightarrow C^2 \quad \text{as } y \rightarrow \infty.$$

The theory presented here is relatively easy, since we restrict ourselves to (some) smooth compact two-dimensional manifolds without boundary. The theory of Adler and Taylor [2] is much harder, since it covers piecewise smooth n -dimensional manifolds with boundary.

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