Geometric and topological functionals of smooth Gaussian fields

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Outline

1. Motivating example: the Euler characteristic

2. Geometric/local functionals

3. Topological/non-local functionals



Gaussian fields

Motivation: medical imaging



Figure: Measurements from a PET study of brain activity during a reading task. (Source: [14]). See [15] for a technical account.



Gaussian fields Basic setting

- Let *M* be a smooth manifold and $f : M \to \mathbb{R}$ be a C^2 Gaussian field with mean zero and variance one (at each point).
- ▶ The distribution of the field is specified by its covariance function $K: M^2 \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ defined as

$$K(x,y) = \mathbb{E}[f(x)f(y)] \quad \forall x, y \in M.$$

We are interested in the geometry of the excursion sets

$$\{f \ge \ell\} := \{x \in M \mid f(x) \ge \ell\}$$

for $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$.



A rough definition



Figure: The Euler characteristics of a sliotar (solid ball), a tennis ball and a coffee cup are 1, 2 and 0 respectively.

- 1. The Euler characteristic is an integer valued topological invariant of 'nice' sets in Euclidean space.
- 2. The Euler characteristic of a set in \mathbb{R}^3 is the number of components minus the number of 'handles' plus the number of 'holes'.
- 3. For large ℓ , if the excursion set $\{f \ge \ell\}$ is non-empty then it is most likely a single simply connected component, hence

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathrm{EC}[\{f \ge \ell\}]] \approx \mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{M} f \ge \ell\right).$$

Application to excursion sets



Figure: Excursion sets for a function f above levels $\ell_1 < \ell_2 < \ell_3$.

The Euler characteristic of an excursion set for a 'nice' function $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$ can be decomposed as

$$\operatorname{EC}[\{f \geq \ell\}] = \sum_{i=0}^{d} (-1)^{i} n_{i} + \operatorname{Boundary \ terms}$$

where

$$n_i = \#\{x \in M : f(x) \ge \ell, \nabla f(x) = 0, \operatorname{index} \nabla^2 f(x) = d - i\}.$$



Application to Gaussian fields

▶ The expected number of zeros of a one-dimensional random function $h : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ can be computed by the Kac-Rice formula:

$$\mathbb{E}[\#\{t\in[0,T]: h(t)=0\}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\int_0^T \lim_{\epsilon\searrow 0} \frac{1}{2\epsilon} |h'(t)|\mathbb{1}_{|h(t)|\le\epsilon} dt\right].$$

• For $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ stationary, Gaussian

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i}(-1)^{i}n_{i}\right] = (-1)^{d}\int_{M}\mathbb{E}\left[\det\nabla^{2}f(x)\mathbb{1}_{f(x)\geq\ell}\Big|\nabla f(x)=0\right]p_{\nabla f(x)}(0)\ dx$$

• In particular, when $M = [-R, R]^3$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathrm{EC}[\{f \ge \ell\} \cap M]] = \frac{\sqrt{-\det \nabla^2 K(0)}}{(2\pi)^2} (2R)^3 (\ell^2 - 1) e^{-\ell^2/2} + O(R^2)$$



Medical imaging



Figure: The observed Euler characteristic for PET data (jagged) and the expected value for a Gaussian field (smooth) at different thresholds. Source: [15].



Euler characteristic References

For more details, see

- ▶ [14] for a non-technical overview of different applications;
- [1] for theoretical development of the Euler characteristic for Gaussian fields;
- [8] for a mathematical development of Gaussian fields with applications in cosmology.



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Local functionals A rough definition

- A functional of a random field is described as **local** (or geometric) if it is an integral of a pointwise function of the field and its derivatives.
- Examples:
 - Volume of the excursion set
 - Boundary length of the excursion set
 - Euler characteristic of the excursion set
- We will consider functionals of the form

$$F_{R,\ell}(f) = \int_{[-R,R]^d} \varphi_\ell(f(x)) \ dx$$

for some $\varphi_{\ell} : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ (e.g. $\varphi_{\ell}(y) = \mathbb{1}_{y \geq \ell}$) and stationary $f : \mathbb{R}^{d} \to \mathbb{R}$.

By Fubini's theorem,

$$\mathbb{E}[F_{R,\ell}(f)] = (2R)^d \mathbb{E}[\varphi_\ell(Z)]$$

where $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ for all R > 0.



Hermite polynomials

The variance and limiting distribution of local functionals can be studied using Hermite polynomials.

▶ The Hermite polynomials $(H_n)_{n\geq 0}$ can be defined inductively by setting

$$H_0(x) = 1$$
 and $H_{n+1}(x) = xH_n(x) - H'_n(x)$

which yields

$$H_1(x) = x$$
, $H_2(x) = x^2 - 1$, $H_3(x) = x^3 - 3x$.

Hermite polynomials are orthogonal with respect to the Gaussian measure: if X, Y are jointly normal with mean zero and variance one then

$$\mathbb{E}[H_n(X)H_m(Y)] = \begin{cases} n!\mathbb{E}[XY]^n & \text{if } n = m \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq m. \end{cases}$$

▶ If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and $\mathbb{E}[\varphi^2(X)] < \infty$ then

$$\varphi(X)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}a_nH_n(X)$$

where $\sum_{n} a_n^2 n! < \infty$.

Wiener chaos expansion

• Considering the expansion $\varphi_{\ell} = \sum_{n} a_{n}(\ell) H_{n}$ yields the Wiener chaos expansion

$$F_{R,\ell}(f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(\ell) \int_{[-R,R]^d} H_n(f(x)) dx =: \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(\ell) Q_n.$$

• The variance of $F_{R,\ell}$ can be computed by considering

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Cov}\left[Q_n, Q_m\right] &= \iint_{\left[-R, R\right]^{2d}} \operatorname{Cov}\left[H_n(f(x)), H_m(f(y))\right] \, dxdy \\ &= \begin{cases} n! \iint_{\left[-R, R\right]^{2d}} K(x-y)^n \, dxdy & \text{if } n = m \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise..} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

▶ The overall variance therefore depends on the integrability/decay of K.



Covariance function examples

Three general classes of covariance function are considered in the literature:

- 1. K is integrable
 - Example: the Bargmann-Fock field is the scaling limit of random homogeneous polynomials [2] and has covariance

$$K(x-y) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-y\|^2}{2}\right)$$

- 2. K is regularly varying at infinity with index $\alpha \in (0, d)$
 - Example: The Cauchy field has covariance

$$K(x-y) = (1 + |x-y|^2)^{-\alpha/2}.$$

- 3. *K* is oscillating and slowly decaying
 - Example: The Random Plane Wave is the two-dimensional field with covariance

It models high energy Laplace eigenfunctions in quantum chaos [4].



Case 1: Integrable covariance

Recall:

$$F_{R,\ell}(f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(\ell) Q_n, \qquad \operatorname{Var}[Q_n] = n! \int_{[-R,R]^{2d}} K(x-y)^n \, dx dy$$

• If K is integrable then for $n \neq 0$

$$\operatorname{Var}[Q_n] \sim \left(n! \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} K(x)^n \ dx \right) R^d$$

so each chaos has variance of order R^d .

• Moreover for each ℓ

$$\operatorname{Var}[F_{R,\ell}] \sim R^d$$
 as $R \to \infty$.

• (Breuer-Major theorem.) If f is isotropic, then $F_{R,\ell}$ satisfies a central limit theorem as $R \to \infty$.



Case 2: Regularly varying covariance

▶ If K is regularly varying at infinity with index $\alpha \in (0, d)$ then for $n \neq 0$

$$\operatorname{Var}[Q_n] \sim c_{K,n} R^{\max\{2d - n\alpha, d\}}.$$

At a 'generic' level ℓ , $a_1(\ell) \neq 0$ so the first chaos carries all variance asymptotically

$$F_{R,\ell}(f) \sim a_1(\ell) \int_{[-R,R]^d} f(x) dx$$

and so a central limit theorem holds with variance of order $R^{2d-\alpha}$.

- At some 'anomalous' levels, $a_1(\ell) = 0$ so $F_{R,\ell}$ has lower order variance.
- The limiting distribution may be Gaussian or non-Gaussian depending on which chaos(es) dominate!



Case 3: Oscillating, slowly decaying covariance

- Results in this setting mostly consider specific fields and functionals.
- Compared to the regularly varying case, the first chaos typically has lower order variance due to oscillations of K. Hence when $a_2(\ell) \neq 0$ the second chaos dominates

$$\operatorname{Var}[F_{R,\ell}(f)] \sim a_2(\ell) \iint_{[-R,R]^{2d}} K^2(x-y) \, dx dy.$$

- At anomalous levels (i.e. $a_2(\ell) \neq 0$) the fourth chaos typically dominates, resulting in a lower order of variance.
- Central limit theorems are known in many cases, although degenerate behaviour is also possible [7].



- The classical Breuer-Major theorem established a CLT for local functionals of fields with fast correlation decay [5]. Modern proofs of this result typically use the Malliavin-Stein method [11].
- Non-CLTs were established for fields with slow (regularly varying) correlation decay [6] using multiple Wiener-Itô integrals.
- More recently, a general CLT has been proven for some fields with slowly decaying oscillating correlations [7].



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Non-local functionals

- Many natural topological functionals of a Gaussian field are non-local.
- Examples:
 - Number of connected components of the excursion set
 - Betti numbers of the excursion set
 - Volume of the unbounded component of the excursion set
- These functionals are of interest from both applied [13] and theoretical perspectives [2], but are much harder to study!



The component count

Law of large numbers

- Let $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ be a stationary, centred, smooth Gaussian field.
- Given ℓ ∈ ℝ and R > 0 we let N(ℓ, R) be the number of connected components of {f ≥ ℓ} ∩ [−R, R]^d.

Theorem (Nazarov-Sodin[10])

If f is ergodic, then there exists $c(\ell) \geq 0$ such that

$$\lim_{R\to\infty}\frac{N(\ell,R)}{(2R)^d}=c(\ell)$$

almost surely and in L^1 .

- It is straightforward to verify ergodicity using the Fourier transform of the covariance function.
- The result is extremely general: in particular, there is no requirement of fast correlation decay.
- The proof shows that the component count is 'semi-local': its value on a macroscopic domain can be well approximated by summing its value on mesoscopic domains.

The component count

Law of large numbers: Proof

- Let Λ_R = [−R, R]^d. Let N_x(R) and N̄_x(R) denote the number of components of {f ≥ ℓ} which are inside or intersect x + Λ_R respectively.
- ▶ (Integral geometric sandwich) For 0 < s < R

$$\int_{\Lambda_{R-s}} \frac{N_x(s)}{(2s)^d} \ dx \leq N_0(R) \leq \int_{\Lambda_{R+s}} \frac{\overline{N}_x(s)}{(2s)^d} \ dx.$$

▶ Applying the ergodic theorem as $R \to \infty$

$$\limsup_{R\to\infty}\left|\frac{N_0(R)}{(2R)^d}-\frac{1}{(2R)^d}\int_{\Lambda_R}\frac{N_x(s)}{(2s)^d}\ dx\right|\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[\overline{N}_0(s)-N_0(s)]}{(2s)^d}.$$

- ▶ $\overline{N}_0(s) N_0(s)$ is the number of components intersecting $\partial \Lambda_s$ which has expectation $O(s^{d-1})$ as $s \to \infty$.
- These observations imply that $(2R)^{-d}N_0(R)$ is Cauchy almost surely and in L^1 .



The component count

Central limit theorem

Assume that f = q * W where W is a Gaussian white noise process on \mathbb{R}^d and q satisfies some regularity conditions, including

$$\sup_{lpha \mid \leq 2} |\partial^lpha q(x)| \leq c |x|^{-eta}$$

for some c > 0 and $\beta > 9d$ and all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Theorem (Beliaev-M.-Muirhead[3])

Given $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $\sigma^2(\ell) > 0$ such that as $R \to \infty$

$$\frac{\operatorname{Var}[N(\ell,R)]}{(2R)^d} \to \sigma^2(\ell)$$

and

$$\frac{N(\ell,R) - \mathbb{E}[N(\ell,R)]}{(2R)^{d/2}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2(\ell)).$$

- Matches results for local functionals when the covariance function is integrable.
- Method extends to other non-local functionals [9].



The component count Proof of CLT

- The proof adapts a martingale CLT argument from discrete probability [12].
- Let (*F_v*)_{v∈ℤ^d} be a 'lexicographic' filtration generated by the white noise W and

$$S_n := \frac{N(\ell, n) - \mathbb{E}[N(\ell, n)]}{(2n)^{d/2}}$$

Then $S_{n,v} := \mathbb{E}[S_n | \mathcal{F}_v]$ defines a 'lexicographic martingale array'.

- A generalisation of the classical martingale CLT states that S_n → N(0, σ²) provided that the martingale differences U_{n,v} satisfy certain moment bounds and ∑_{v∈Z^d} U²_{n,v} → σ² in L¹.
- The latter property follows from an elegant ergodic argument due to Penrose [12].
- The moments bounds follow from relating U_{n,v} to the change in the component count when the white noise W is resampled on a cube of unit length centred at v.



Summary

Open questions:

- ▶ How is the component count affected by long-range dependence?
 - Do anomalous levels exist?
 - Do central/non-central limit theorems hold?
- What happens if we relax the assumptions of stationarity, Gaussianity or smoothness?

Thank you for listening!



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