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## TOPOLOGICAL INVARIANTS OF RANDOM POLYNOMIALS

Aliashvili T.


#### Abstract

Random polynomials with independent identically distributed Gaussian coefficients are considered. In the case of random gradient endomorphism $F=(f, g): \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$ the mean topological degree is computed and the expected number of complex points is estimated. In particular, the asymptotics of these invariants are determined as the algebraic degree of $F$ tends to infinity. We also give the asymptotic of the mean writhing number of a standard equilateral random polygon with a large number of sides and obtain a lower estimate for the mean Coulomb energy of a standard equilateral random polygon.


Keywords and phrases: Random polynomial endomorphism, Gaussian distribution, topological degree, proper mappings, equilateral random polygon, average crossing number, writhing number, Coulomb energy, self-linking number.

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0 . In this paper we consider pairs of random polynomials in two variables with coefficients which are normal random variables and investigate some statistical invariants of such pairs. For random polynomials of one variable, the most natural statistical invariant is the expected number of real roots. This invariant was investigated by M.Kac [1]. In particular, if all coefficients are independent standard Gaussian random variables M.Kac was able to find the rate of growth of the expected number of real roots as the algebraic degree of polynomial tends to infinity

In a recent paper [10] the authors gave an effective formula for the average crossing number of a standard equilateral random polygon (SERP) with $n$ sides in three-dimensional space. This formula, in particular, gives an explicit asymptotic of this number as $n \rightarrow \infty$ which has useful application to analysis of certain qualitative phenomena in physics and biochemistry [10].

Notice that this result has direct consequences for random knots (knot as usual means a closed curve without self-intersections). Indeed, it is known and it is easy to prove that a closed polygon appearing in the model of SERP almost surely has no self-intersections. Thus the mentioned result from [10] can be considered as an estimate for the average crossing number of a random polygonal knot.

1. Much less is known about random polynomials in several variables. For example, it seems very difficult to find the expected number of real roots of $(n \times n)$ -system of random polynomial equations with independent identically distributed Gaussian coefficients. Only recently M. Shub and S. Smale [2] succeeded to compute this invariant for certain special distributions of coefficients. Some other developments in the spirit of [2] are summarized in [3].

These results suggested that one could try to estimate those topological invariants of random polynomials and mappings related to the real roots of polynomial systems. A natural framework for such investigations was suggested by
G.Khimshiashvili [4]. As was explained in many problems of such type it is crucial to find the mean value of topological degree of a certain random endomorphism. As was conjectured in [4], this problem should be solvable for rotation invariant Gaussian distributions of coefficients introduced in [2]. This appeared possible indeed and a general result of such kind was published in [4],[5]. Similar problems were also considered in [6], [7].

All these results were concerned with the distributions introduced in [2] but there do not exist any such results in the case when all coefficients are independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) standard normals $N(0,1)$. In this note we aim at obtaining some results for such distributions of coefficients using results of [3] and our previous results on topological invariants of planar polynomial endomorphisms [8].

Let us describe the setting more precisely. Remind some notations from probability theory. Recall that if $\xi$ is a random variable with Gaussian (normal) density

$$
f_{\xi}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma}} e^{-\frac{x-a^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}}
$$

$\sigma>0,-\infty<a<+\infty$ then the parameters $a$ and $\sigma$ are

$$
a=E \xi, \quad \sigma^{2}=D \xi .
$$

Expectation and variance, correspondingly.
If $(\xi, \eta)$ is a pair of random variables, then the value

$$
\operatorname{cov}(\xi, \eta)=E[(\xi-E \xi) \cdot(\eta-E \eta)]
$$

is called covariation of $\xi$ and $\eta$. If $\operatorname{cov}(\xi, \eta)$, then $\xi$ and $\eta$ are called non-correlated. Variance $D \xi$ is defined as $\operatorname{cov}(\xi, \xi)=D \xi$. Coefficients of correlation are defined as

$$
\rho(\xi, \eta)=\frac{\operatorname{cov}(\xi, \eta)}{\sqrt{D \xi \cdot D \eta}} .
$$

Since we are going to deal with random endomorphisms of the plane, we write down explicitly that the 2-dimensional normal density is

$$
\begin{gathered}
f_{\xi \eta}(x, y)= \\
\frac{1}{2 \pi \sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sqrt{1-\rho}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{(1-\rho)^{2}}\left[\frac{\left(x-a_{1}\right)^{2}}{\sigma_{1}^{2}}-2 \rho \frac{\left(x-a_{1}\right)^{2}\left(y-a_{2}\right)^{2}}{\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2}}+\frac{\left(y-a_{2}\right)^{2}}{\sigma_{2}^{2}}\right]\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

It is characterized by five parameters $a_{1}, a_{2}, \sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \rho$ where $\left|a_{1}\right|<\infty$, $\left|a_{2}\right|<\infty,\left|\sigma_{1}\right|<\infty,\left|\sigma_{2}\right|<\infty,|\rho|<1$.

They are

$$
\begin{gathered}
a_{1}=E \xi, \quad a_{2}=E \eta, \quad \sigma_{1}^{2}=D \xi, \quad \sigma_{2}^{2}=D \eta, \quad \rho=\rho(\sigma, \eta), \\
P(\xi \in B)=\Phi_{a, \sigma^{2}}(B)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma}} \int_{B} e^{-\frac{(u-a)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}} d u}
\end{gathered}
$$

if $a=0$ and $\sigma=1$ then we have standard distribution $\Phi_{0,1}$ (denote by $\Phi(x)$ )

$$
\Phi(x)=\Phi_{0,1}(-\infty, 0) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \cdot \int_{\infty}^{x} e^{-\frac{u^{2}}{2} d u}
$$

2. By analogy with the one-dimensional case it is natural to consider a random polynomial endomorphism $F$ of $\mathbf{R}^{2}$ defined by $n$ random polynomials in $n$ variables with fixed algebraic multi-degree $m=\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n}\right)$ and compute the mean topological degree as a function of $n$ and $m_{i}$. For $n=2$ we get random endomorphisms of the plane which, besides the topological degree, possess other useful numerical invariants like the number of cusps or the number of complex points. Endomorphisms of the plane are called planar endomorphisms and, following [5], we refer to them as plends.

The main goal of this note is to estimate the mean value of the topological degree of a random plend defined by the gradient of a random polynomial with i.i.d. central Gaussian coefficients. As was already mentioned, this means that all coefficients are real random variables and have Gaussian (normal) distribution. In the sequel the term "random polynomial" always refers to this situation. We pass now to exact formulations.

Let $\mathbf{R}^{2}$ be the ring of real polynomials in two variables. For $P \in \mathbf{R}^{2}$, let $\operatorname{deg} P$ denote its algebraic degree, i.e. the highest order of monomials which appear in $P$. Any with $\operatorname{deg} P=m$ can be written as

$$
P(x, y)=\sum_{k+l=0}^{m} a_{k j} x^{k} y^{j}
$$

where appears at least one non-vanishing $a_{k, l}$ with $k+l=m$. The leader $P^{*}$ is defined as the sum of monomials of highest order. Obviously it is a non-trivial binary $m$-form.

Suppose $a_{k l}=a_{k l}^{(\omega)}$ are real Gaussian random variables, so we are given a random polynomial as above. We can also take a pair of such random polynomials (not necessarily with the same distribution of coefficients) and consider a random plend

$$
F=(P Q): \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}
$$

with these polynomials as the components. In such a situation we speak of a Gaussian random plend and we want to estimate certain geometric characteristics of such a random plend.

As is well known, if $F$ is proper then its (global) topological degree degF is well-defined [4]. As one could await, a random plend almost surely (a.s.) has several nice properties of which we need here only one. It can be proved applying the same reasoning as was used in [6] to show that a random Gaussian hypersurface is almost surely smooth.

Lemma 1. A Gaussian random plend is proper with probability one.
For those $\omega$ for which $F(\omega)$ is not proper, we set $\operatorname{Deg} F(\omega)=0$. So we are concerned with estimating the expectation (mean value) $E(D e g F)$ of random variable $D e g F$ and the expectation of its modulus $E\left(\left|D e g P^{\prime}\right|\right)$.

Theorem 1. Let $P$ be a Gaussian random polynomial in two variables of algebraic degree $m \geq 1$ with independent standard normal coefficients as above.

Then the expectation $E\left(\left|\operatorname{Deg} P^{\prime}\right|\right)$ of the absolute topological degree of its gradient $P^{\prime}$ is asymptotically equivalent to $\frac{2}{\pi} \log m$ as $m$ tends to infinity

First of all, notice that it is sufficient to estimate the average topological degree of the endomorphism $\left(P^{*}\right)^{\prime}$ defined by leaders $P_{x}^{*}, P_{y}^{*}$ which are binary homogeneous $m-1$-forms.

Lemma 2. $E\left(\operatorname{Deg} P^{\prime}\right)=E\left(\operatorname{Deg}\left(P^{*}\right)^{\prime}\right)$.
Notice further that the zero set $Z$ of a homogeneous polynomial $P^{*}$ consists of a system of lines in $\mathbf{R}^{2}$ passing through the origin. Their intersections with the unit circle $S^{1}$ give a finite set of points $Y=Z \cap S^{1}$. These points obviously appear in pairs and those pairs are in a one-to-one correspondence with the real roots of polynomial in one variable $\hat{P}$ which is obtained from $P^{*}$ by dehomogenization (i.e. we divide $P^{*}(x, y)$ by $y^{m}$ and introduce a new variable $t=\frac{x}{y}$. In other words, the number $k$ of points in $Y$ equals $2 r$, where $r$ is the number of real roots of $\hat{P}$.

We now apply one formula which can be proved as in [8].
Lemma 3. $r=1-\operatorname{Deg} P^{\prime}$.
Namely, first one interprets the number $k$ as the Euler characteristic $\chi(Y)$ of the set $Y$. Next, according to [4], the Euler characteristic of the zero set of homogeneous polynomial $P^{*}$ can be expressed through the mapping degree of its gradient by the formula

$$
\chi(Y)=2\left(1-\operatorname{Deg}\left(P^{\star}\right)\right)
$$

or equivalently,

$$
r=1-\operatorname{Deg}\left(P^{*}\right)^{\prime}
$$

By taking expectations of absolute values of both sides of this formula we get that the rates of growth of $E\left(\left|D e g P^{\prime}\right|\right)$ and $E(r)$ are equal. Thus we can estimate the expected value of absolute gradient degree by finding the expectation of the random variable equal to $r$. This appears possible due to the following observation which follows directly from definitions.

Lemma 4. $\hat{P}$ is a Gaussian random polynomial of algebraic degree $m$ with independent standard normal coefficients.

Thus we conclude that one can compute the expected number of real roots $E(r)$ of $\hat{P}$ using Theorem 3.1 of [3]. Hence the fact that $E\left(\left|\operatorname{Deg} P^{\prime}\right|\right)$ has the asymptotic indicated in the statement of the theorem follows from Theorem 2.2 of [3]. The proof is thus completed.

Actually, from the proof of Theorem 1 it follows that Lemma 3 enables us one to find the exact mean value of $E\left(\mid D e g P^{\prime}\right)$. Indeed, to this end we can use Theorem 2.1 of [3] and to compute $E(r)$. Since coefficients of are i.i.d. standard normals, by the formula on page 8 of [3] we get

$$
E(r)=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \sqrt{\left.\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x \partial y} \log \frac{1-(x y)^{n+1}}{1-x y}\right|_{x=y=t}} d t .
$$

Theorem 2.

$$
E\left(D e g P^{\prime}\right)=1-\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\left(t^{2}-1\right)^{2}}-\frac{(n+1)^{2} t^{2 n}}{\left(t^{2 n+2}-1\right)^{2}}} d t
$$

It should be noted that these results essentially use the specifics of gradient mappings and we are not yet able to estimate the mean topological degree for arbitrary Gaussian plend with the components of algebraic degree $m$.
3. We add some remarks on another invariant of random plends mentioned in the introduction, namely, the expectation $E(c(F))$, where $c(F)$ is the number of complex points of $F$. A natural setting in this context is to consider random plends with fixed algebraic degrees of the components.

Definition 1. A point $p \in \mathbf{R}^{2}$ is called a complex point of $F$ if the tangent plane $T_{(p, F(p))} \Gamma_{F}$ to the graph $\Gamma_{F}$ of $F$ in $\mathbf{C}^{2}$ is a complex line.

In other words, we estimate $E\left(\mathbf{C}\left(\Gamma_{F}\right)\right)$, where $\mathbf{C}\left(\Gamma_{F}\right)$ is the number of complex points on the graph $\Gamma_{F} \subset \mathbf{C}^{2}=\mathbf{R}^{2} \times \mathbf{R}^{2}$. For our purposes it is useful to give an analytic description of complex points.

Lemma 5. Complex points are exactly zeros of the polynomial endomorphism $\frac{\partial F}{\partial \bar{z}}$, where $\frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}+i \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)$.

So it becomes possible to apply results from [4], which enables one to compute the number of complex points in concrete cases and obtain some general estimates in terms of the algebraic degree of $F$. Moreover, the algebraic number of complex points can be computed as the local topological degree at infinity of $\partial F / \partial \bar{z}$, so we can estimate its mean value using the results presented above.

So, if $F=(f, g): \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$ is a polynomial plend then $\bar{\partial} F=\partial_{\bar{z}} F: \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$ and the set of complex points of $F$ coincides with $\bar{\partial} F^{-1}(0)$. We are interested in the case when the coefficients of plend are i.i.d. standard normals. More precisely, consider $F^{(\omega)}=\left(f^{(\omega)}, g^{(\omega)}\right): \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$, where

$$
f^{(\omega)}=\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n} a_{k l}^{(\omega)} x^{k} y^{l}
$$

and

$$
g^{(\omega)}=\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n} b_{k l}^{(\omega)} x^{k} y^{l}
$$

are the random polynomials. Let the coefficients $a_{k l}^{(\omega)}$ and $b_{k l}^{(\omega)} 0 \leq k+1 \leq n$ be independent standard normals. In order to estimate the number of complex points $\mathbf{C}(f, g)$ one can express $E\left((\bar{\partial} F)^{-1}(0)\right)$ by a covariance matrix and a moment curve as in [3]. To this end we observe that the functions appearing in Cauchy-Riemann conditions have the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{x}=\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n} k \cdot a_{k l} x^{k-l} y^{l}, \quad f_{y}=\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n} l \cdot a_{k l} x^{k} y^{l-1}, \\
& g_{x}=\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n} k \cdot b_{k l} x^{k-1} y^{l}, \quad g_{y}=\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n} l \cdot b_{k l} x^{k} y^{l-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $a_{k l}$ and $b_{k l}$ are the same as $a_{k l}^{(\omega)}$ and $b_{k l}^{(\omega)}$ above. So the polynomials

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{x}-g_{y} & =\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n}\left(k \cdot a_{k l} x^{k-l} y^{l}-l \cdot b_{k l} x^{k} y^{l-1}\right), \\
f_{y}+g_{x} & =\sum_{0 \leq k+l \leq n}\left(l \cdot a_{k l} x^{k} y^{l-1}+k \cdot b_{k l} x^{k-l} y^{l}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

have coefficients which are central Gausssian random variables with variances which can be computed using the fact that $D(k a+l b)=k^{2} D(a)+l^{2} D(b)$. Moreover, one can also compute the pairwise covariations of the coefficients of the above two polynomials. Therefore we obtain a new plend

$$
\left(f_{x}-g_{y}, f_{y}+g_{x}\right): \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}
$$

with a multivariate normal distribution of coefficients with a covariation matrix $C$. Now using Theorem 7.1 of [3] we can find the expected number of complex points by simply substituting the matrix $C$ in the integral formula on page 29 of [3]. Now using the estimate given on page 30 of [3] we can conclude that $E(c(F))$ grows not faster than $\operatorname{Const}(\log m)^{2}$ as m tends to infinity.

However we are not yet able to find its exact asymptotics so we leave the discussion of this and other invariants of random plends for future publications.
4. Since the average crossing number of a knot in three-dimensional space characterizes some important topological features of its position in the space [11], this result can be considered as a contribution towards computing basic topological invariants of random polygons. As is well known, knots in the threedimensional space also possess other important topological invariants like the writhing number [9] and self-linking number [12] which are closely related to the average crossing number. Thus it is natural to try to compute or estimate these invariants for a standard equilateral random polygon by analogy with the mentioned result from [10]. Recall that a standard equilateral random polygon (SERP) is a widely used model for random curves and extended physical objects like polymers and DNA molecules [10]. In our context it can be described as follows.

Let $U=(u, v, w)$ be a three-dimensional random vector that is uniformly distributed on the unit sphere $S^{2}$, i.e., the density function of $U$ is

$$
\varphi(U)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{4 \pi}, & \text { if }|U|=\sqrt{u^{2}+v^{2}+w^{2}}=1, \\ 0, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

Suppose $U_{1}, U_{2}, \ldots, U_{n}$ are independent random vectors uniformly distributed on $S^{2}$. An equilateral random walk of $n$ steps, denoted by $W_{n}$ is defined as the sequence of points in the three-dimensional space $R^{3}$ :

$$
X_{0}=0, \quad X_{k}=U_{1}+U_{2}+\cdots+U_{k}, \quad k=1,2, \ldots, n
$$

Each $X_{k+1}$ is called a vertex of the $W_{n}$ and the line segment joining $X_{k}$ and $X_{k}=1$ is called an edge of $W_{n}$ (which is of unit length). In particular, $W_{n}$ becomes a polygon if $X_{n}=0$. In this case, it is called an equilateral random polygon and is denoted by $P_{n}$. Note that the joint probability density function $f\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ of the vertices of $P_{n}$ is simply
$f\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=\varphi\left(U_{1}\right) \varphi\left(U_{2}\right) \cdots \varphi\left(U_{n}\right)=\varphi\left(X_{1}\right) \varphi\left(X_{2}-X_{1}\right) \cdots \varphi\left(X_{n}-X_{n-1}\right)$.
Let $X_{k}$ be the $k$-th vertex of $P^{n} \quad(n \geq k>1)$. Its density function is defined by

$$
f\left(X_{k}\right)=\iint \cdots \int \varphi\left(X_{1}\right) \varphi\left(X_{2}-X_{1}\right) \cdots \varphi\left(X_{k}-X_{k-1}\right) d X_{1} d X_{2} \cdots d X_{k-1}
$$

5. The average crossing number $(A C N)$ of $P_{n}$ can be defined as follows. In [12] it is shown that the average crossing number between the non-intersecting edges $l_{1}$ and $l_{2}$ is given by

$$
A C N\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{I} \int_{I} \frac{\left|\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t), \dot{\gamma}_{2}(s), \gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|}{\left|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|^{3}} d t d s,
$$

where $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}: I \rightarrow R^{3}$ are the arclength parametrizations of $l_{1}$ and $l_{2}$ respectively, $I=[0,1]$ and dot denotes differentiation over the parameter.

For a polygonal knot $K$, one defines

$$
A C N(K)=\frac{1}{2} \sum A C N(X, Y)
$$

where $X, Y$ are any non-consecutive sides of $K$.
We pass now to the first main result. Recall that the writhing number of a knot is defined as follows [9]. We consider its two-dimensional family of parallel projections and in each projection we count +1 or -1 for each crossing, depending on whether the overpass requires a counterclockwise or a clockwise rotation to align with the underpass. The writhing number is then the signed number of crossings averaged over all orthogonal projections on planes in $\mathbf{R}^{3}$. It is a conformal invariant of the knot. The writhing number measures the global geometry of a closed space curve or knot.

Let $\gamma$ the arclength parametrization as above and $\dot{\gamma}(t)$ denote the unit tangent vector for $t \in S^{l}$ The following double integral formula from [13] allows one to calculate the writhing number of two edges as above

$$
W=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{S^{1}} \int_{S^{1}} \frac{\left|\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t), \dot{\gamma}_{2}(s), \gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|}{\left|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|^{3}} d t d s
$$

Correspondingly, we define

$$
W(K)=\sum W\left(l_{i}, l_{j}\right)
$$

where $l_{i}$ and $l_{j}$ are non-consecutive sides of 44 with $1 \leq i \leq j-1 \leq n-1$. Denote by $E|W(n)|$ the mean absolute value of the writhing number of a SERP with $n$ edges. Let us say that two functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ of $n$ are asymptotically equivalent if $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=1$.

Theorem 3. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, the function $E|W(n)|$ is asymptotically equivalent to $(3 / 16 n \ln n)^{1 / 2}$

The proof can be obtained by the scheme used in [4] and based on the reduction to a symmetric random walk on a real line. Indeed, according to [10] we have $E(A C N(n))=3 / 16 n \ln n+O(n)$ Notice that from the integral formulas for the writhing number and $A C N(n)$ it follows that the only difference between these two invariants of knot is that the first one is obtained by counting each intersection in a planar projection of a knot with a sign equal to the sign of the Jacobian of the Gauss mapping. Using the calculations from [10] it is possible to show that the signs cancellation effect asymptotically leads to extracting the square root of $E(A C N(n))$, which gives the result. An intuitive explanation is that the signs
behave as in one-dimensional symmetric random walk i.e., the probability of each sign on each step is $\frac{1}{2}$. Thus the mean writhing number is approximately equal to the mean absolute deviation of symmetric random walk on the real line with $M=[A C N(n)]$ steps, where [ ] denotes the integer part (entier). This explains the result, since it is well known that such mean deviation grows as $\sqrt{M}$.
6. Recall that the Coulomb energy of a polygonal knot is defined as follows [13]. For disjoint line segments $X, Y$ in $R^{3}$ the energy is equal to

$$
I(X, Y)=\int_{X} \int_{Y} \frac{d x d y}{\|x-y\|^{2}}
$$

Then, for a polygon $K$, one defines:

$$
I(K)=\sum I(X, Y)
$$

(the sum is over all non-consecutive segments $X, Y$ of $K$ ). In order to relate the energy with the average crossing number recall that the energy of a pair of smooth paths $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}: I \rightarrow R^{3}$ can be computed as

$$
I\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)=\int_{I} \int_{I} \frac{\left|\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t)\right|\left|\dot{\gamma}_{2}(s)\right|}{\left|y_{1}(t)-y_{2}(s)\right|^{2}} d u d v .
$$

Using this and the evident inequalities

$$
\begin{gathered}
\int_{I} \int_{I} \frac{\left(\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t) \times \dot{\gamma}_{2}(s), \gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right)}{\left|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|^{3}} d t d s \\
\leq \int_{I} \int_{I} \frac{\left|\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t) \times \dot{\gamma}_{2}(s)\right|}{\left|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|^{2}} d t d s \leq \int_{I} \int_{I} \frac{\left|\dot{\gamma}_{1}(t)\right|\left|\dot{\gamma}_{2}(s)\right|}{\left|\gamma_{1}(t)-\gamma_{2}(s)\right|^{2}} d t d s,
\end{gathered}
$$

we get

$$
I\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right) \geq 4 \pi A C N\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)
$$

Now for a polygonal knot $K$ it is easy to show that $I(K) \geq 4 \pi A C N(K)$. Finally, let $E(n)$ denote the mean value of Coulomb energy of a SERP $P_{n}$ with sides.

Theorem 4. For sufficiently big $n$, one has $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4 E(n)}{3 \pi n \ln n} \geq 1$.
From the above inequality it follows that $E(n) \geq 4 \pi E(A C N(n))$. Thus our result follows from the main result of [10].

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Author's address:
T. Aliashvili

Ilia State University
Faculty of Business, Technology and Education
3/5, K. Cholokashvili Ave., Tbilisi 0162
Georgia
E-mail: t.aliashvili@gmail.com

