

## LECTURE 25: THE HODGE LAPLACIAN

### 1. THE HODGE STAR OPERATOR

Let  $(M, g)$  be an oriented Riemannian manifold of dimension  $m$ . Then in lecture 3 we have seen that for any orientation-preserving chart, the Riemannian volume form (which is independent of the choice of coordinates) is given by

$$\omega_g = \sqrt{G} dx^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^m.$$

Now let  $p \in M$ . Then the Riemannian metric  $g$  induces a dual inner product structure on  $T_p^*M$  via

$$\langle \omega_i dx^i, \eta_j dx^j \rangle = g^{ij} \omega_i \eta_j.$$

More generally, one can define an inner product on  $\Lambda^k T_p^*M$  as follows: For any orthogonal basis  $\theta^1, \dots, \theta^m$  of  $T_p^*M$ , we require the set

$$\{\theta^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \theta^{i_k} \mid i_1 < \cdots < i_k\}$$

form an orthonormal basis of  $\Lambda^k T_p^*M$ . One can check that this definition is independent of the choice of  $\theta^i$ 's. Note that in particular we have

$$\langle \omega_g, \omega_g \rangle = 1$$

since in normal coordinates  $(g_{ij}) = I$  at  $p$ .

As in the case of functions, the pointwise inner product induces an  $L^2$  inner product structure on  $\Omega_c^k(M)$  via

$$(\omega, \eta) := \int_M \langle \omega, \eta \rangle \omega_g.$$

To define the Hodge-Laplacian of a differential form, one need to define the so-called Hodge star operator. We first use the pointwise inner product to get an identification between  $\Lambda^k T_p^*M$  and  $(\Lambda^k T_p^*M)^*$  that sends  $\beta \in \Lambda^k T_p^*M$  to

$$L_\beta : \Lambda^k T_p^*M \rightarrow \mathbb{R} = \Lambda^m T_p^*M, \quad \alpha \mapsto \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \omega_g.$$

On the other hand, the wedge product gives us a non-degenerate pairing

$$\wedge : \Lambda^k T_p^*M \times \Lambda^{m-k} T_p^*M \rightarrow \mathbb{R} = \Lambda^m T_p^*M, \quad (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \alpha \wedge \beta.$$

which identifies any element in  $(\Lambda^k T_p^*M)^*$  as an element in  $\Lambda^{m-k} T_p^*M$ . In particular, for  $\beta \in \Lambda^k T_p^*M$  one can get an element  $\star\beta \in \Lambda^{m-k} T_p^*M$  that is identified with  $L_\beta$ , i.e.

$$\alpha \wedge \star\beta = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \omega_g.$$

This construction gives us a linear isomorphism

$$\star : \Lambda^k T_p^* M \rightarrow \Lambda^{m-k} T_p^* M$$

at each point. Glue these constructions together, we are able to define

**Definition 1.1.** The *Hodge star operator*  $\star : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{m-k}(M)$  maps any  $k$ -form  $\eta \in \Omega^k(M)$  to the  $(m-k)$ -form  $\star\eta \in \Omega^{m-k}(M)$  so that for any  $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ ,

$$\omega \wedge \star\eta = \langle \omega, \eta \rangle \omega_g.$$

*Remark.* Obviously  $\star$  is  $C^\infty(M)$ -linear.

*Remark.* The  $L^2$  inner product structure on  $\Omega_c^k(M)$  can be written as

$$(\omega, \eta) = \int_M \omega \wedge \star\eta.$$

Note that by definition,

$$\star 1 = \omega_g, \quad \star \omega_g = 1, \quad \omega \wedge \star\eta = \eta \wedge \star\omega.$$

More generally, if we let  $\omega^1, \dots, \omega^m$  be a (local) basis of  $T^*M$  so that

$$\omega^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^m = f \omega_g$$

is a positive  $m$ -form, then for  $i_1 < \dots < i_k$ , if we let  $j_1 < \dots < j_{m-k}$  be the complement indices of  $i$ 's, i.e., such that

$$\{i_1, \dots, i_k, j_1, \dots, j_{m-k}\} = \{1, \dots, m\},$$

we have

$$\star(\omega^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{i_k}) = \pm \frac{\langle \omega, \omega \rangle}{f} \omega^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{j_{m-k}},$$

where we denoted  $\omega = \omega^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{i_k}$ , and the sign  $\pm$  is chosen so that

$$\omega \wedge \star\omega = \langle \omega, \omega \rangle \omega_g,$$

i.e. so that

$$\omega^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{i_k} \wedge \omega^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{j_{m-k}} = \pm \omega^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^m.$$

One can check that in this case

$$\pm = (-1)^{i_1 + \dots + i_k + 1 + \dots + k}.$$

**Lemma 1.2.** For  $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$ ,  $\star\star\omega = (-1)^{k(m-k)}\omega$ .

*Proof.* By  $C^\infty(M)$ -linearity, we may assume without loss of generality that

$$\omega = \omega^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{i_k},$$

where  $\omega^1, \dots, \omega^m$  is an orthonormal basis at one point  $p$ . Then the above computations show

$$\star\omega = (-1)^{i_1 + \dots + i_k + 1 + \dots + k} \omega^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{j_{m-k}}$$

and thus

$$\star \star \omega = (-1)^{i_1 + \dots + i_k + 1 + \dots + k} (-1)^{j_1 + \dots + j_{m-k} + 1 + \dots + m-k} \omega.$$

It remains to check the following elementary identity

$$\frac{m(m+1)}{2} + \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{(m-k)(m-k+1)}{2} \equiv k(m-k) \pmod{2}.$$

□

As a consequence, we see  $\star$  is in fact a linear isometry:

**Corollary 1.3.** *For any  $\omega, \eta \in \Omega^k(M)$ , one has  $\langle \star \omega, \star \eta \rangle = \langle \omega, \eta \rangle$ .*

*Proof.* We have

$$\langle \star \omega, \star \eta \rangle \omega_g = (\star \omega) \wedge \star(\star \eta) = (-1)^{k(m-k)} (\star \omega) \wedge \eta = \eta \wedge \star \omega = \langle \eta, \omega \rangle \omega_g.$$

So  $\langle \star \omega, \star \eta \rangle = \langle \eta, \omega \rangle = \langle \omega, \eta \rangle$ . □

*Remark.* The Hodge star operator is of particular important in dimension 4. In fact, for  $m = 4$  and  $k = 2$ , the linear map  $\star : \Lambda^2 T_p^* M \rightarrow \Lambda^2 T_p^* M$  satisfies

$$\star^2 = I.$$

So one can decompose (according to eigenvalues of  $\star$ )

$$\Lambda^2 T_p^* M = \Lambda_+^2 T_p^* M \oplus \Lambda_-^2 T_p^* M.$$

Sections of  $\Lambda_+^2 T^* M$  are called *self-dual 2-forms*, while sections of  $\Lambda_-^2 T^* M$  are called *anti-self-dual 2-forms*.

## 2. THE HODGE-LAPLACE OPERATOR

Using the Hodge star operator, one can define

**Definition 2.1.** The *co-differential* of  $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$  is  $\delta \omega \in \Omega^{k-1}(M)$  defined by

$$\delta \omega = (-1)^{km+m+1} \star d \star.$$

The next lemma states that when we endow all  $\Omega_c^k(M)$ 's with this  $L^2$  structure, the co-differential operator  $\delta : \Omega_c^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega_c^{k-1}(M)$  is the *adjoint* of the differential operator  $d : \Omega_c^{k-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega_c^k(M)$ .

**Lemma 2.2.** *For any  $\omega \in \Omega_c^k(M)$  and  $\eta \in \Omega_c^{k-1}(M)$ ,*

$$(\omega, d\eta) = (\delta\omega, \eta).$$

*Proof.* By Stokes' theorem, we have

$$(\omega, d\eta) = (d\eta, \omega) = \int_M d\eta \wedge \star \omega = \int_M d(\eta \wedge \star \omega) - (-1)^{k-1} \eta \wedge d \star \omega = (-1)^k \int_M \eta \wedge d \star \omega$$

On the other hand, by lemma 1.2,

$$((-1)^{km+m+1} \star d \star \omega, \eta) = \int_M \eta \wedge (-1)^{m(k+1)+1} \star \star d \star \omega = (-1)^{km+m+1} (-1)^{(m-k+1)(k-1)} \int_M \eta \wedge d \star \omega,$$

so the conclusion follows from the fact  $(-1)^{km+m+1} (-1)^{(m-k+1)(k-1)} = (-1)^k$ .  $\square$

The following formula will be useful.

**Proposition 2.3.** *Let  $\{e_i\}$  be an orthonormal frame and  $\{\omega^i\}$  the dual frame. Let  $\nabla$  be the Levi-Civita connection. Then*

- (1)  $d = \omega^i \wedge \nabla_{e_i}$ .
- (2)  $\delta = - \sum_j \iota_{e_j} \nabla_{e_j}$ .

*Proof.* (1) One can check that the right hand side is independent of choice of basis. So at each point  $p$  that is fixed, with out loss of generality one may take  $e_i = \partial_i$  to be the coordinate vector field for a normal coordinate system centered at  $p$ . The dual basis is then  $dx^i$ . Recall that by definition, at the point  $p$  one has, for any  $i, j, k$ ,

$$(\nabla_{\partial_i} dx^j)(\partial_k) = \nabla_{\partial_i} (dx^j(\partial_k)) - dx^j(\nabla_{\partial_i} \partial_j) = 0.$$

So at  $p$  one has  $\nabla_{\partial_i} dx^j = 0$  for any  $i, j$ .

Now we denote

$$\bar{d} = \omega^i \wedge \nabla_{e_i} = dx^i \wedge \nabla_{\partial_i}.$$

Consider  $\eta = f dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k}$ . Then at  $p$ ,

$$\bar{d}\eta = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^i \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k} = d\eta.$$

This implies  $d = \bar{d}$ .

(2) The proof is similar. We denote

$$\bar{\delta} = - \sum_j \iota_{e_j} \nabla_{e_j} = - \sum_j \iota_{\partial_j} \nabla_{\partial_j}.$$

Then at  $p$ ,

$$\bar{\delta}\eta = - \sum_j (-1)^{j-1} (\partial_{i_j} f) dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{dx^{i_j}} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k}.$$

On the other hand, by the definition of  $\delta$  one can calculate  $\delta\eta$  and prove that at  $p$ ,

$$\delta\eta = \sum_j (-1)^j (\partial_{i_j} f) dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{dx^{i_j}} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k}.$$

This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Definition 2.4.** The *Hodge-Laplace operator* on  $k$ -forms is

$$\Delta = d\delta + \delta d : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M).$$

*Remark.* Since  $d^2 = 0$ ,  $\star^2 = \pm 1$ , we immediately get

$$\delta^2 = 0.$$

As a consequence,

$$\Delta = (d + \delta)^2.$$

*Example.* One can check that when  $k = 0$ , the operator  $\Delta = \delta d$  equals with the Laplace-Beltrami operator  $\Delta$  that we defined in lecture 3. To see this, again we do computation in normal coordinates. Then for any  $f \in C^\infty(M)$  we have

$$df = (\partial_j f) dx^j$$

and thus

$$\star df = \sum (\partial_j f) (-1)^{j-1} dx^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \widehat{dx^j} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^m,$$

which implies

$$d \star df = \sum \partial_j (\partial_j f) dx^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^m.$$

It follows

$$\Delta f = \delta df = - \star d \star df = - \sum \partial_j (\partial_j f),$$

which is exactly the Laplace-Beltrami operator we defined in lecture 3 (but now calculated in normal coordinates).

One can also see this by applying proposition 2.3:

$$\Delta f = \delta df = -\iota_{e_j} \nabla_{e_j} df = -\text{tr}(\nabla^2 f).$$

Like the Beltrami-Laplacian, the Hodge-Laplacian also have very nice propositions:

**Proposition 2.5.** *We have*

- (1)  $(\omega, \Delta \eta) = (\Delta \omega, \eta)$ , i.e.  $\Delta$  is symmetric.
- (2)  $(\Delta \omega, \omega) = |\delta \omega|^2 + |d\omega|^2 \geq 0$ , i.e.  $\Delta$  is non-negative.
- (3)  $\star \Delta = \Delta \star$ .

*Proof.* By lemma 2.2, for any  $\omega, \eta \in \Omega_c^k(M)$ ,

$$(\omega, \Delta \eta) = (\omega, d\delta \eta) + (\omega, \delta d\eta) = (\delta \omega, \delta \eta) + (d\omega, d\eta).$$

Both (1) and (2) follows.

To prove (3), we let  $\omega$  be any  $k$ -form. Then

$$\star \delta \omega = (-1)^{km+m+1} \star \star d \star \omega = (-1)^{km+m+1} (-1)^{(m-k+1)(k-1)} d \star \omega = (-1)^k d \star \omega.$$

Similarly

$$\delta \star \omega = (-1)^{(m-k)m+m+1} \star d \star \omega = (-1)^{(m-k)m+m+1} (-1)^{k(m-k)} \star d\omega = (-1)^{k+1} \star d\omega.$$

So we get

$$\star d \delta \omega = (-1)^k \delta \star \delta \omega = \delta d \star \omega$$

and

$$\star\delta d\omega = (-1)^{k+1}d\star d\omega = d\delta\star\omega.$$

It follows

$$\star\Delta = \star d\delta + \star\delta d = \delta d\star\omega + d\delta\star = \Delta\star.$$

□

In problem set 1 we have seen that if  $M$  is connected, then  $\Delta f = 0$  if and only if  $f$  is a constant function.

**Corollary 2.6.**  $\Delta(f\omega_g) = 0$  if and only if  $f$  is a constant function.

*Proof.* This follows from

$$\Delta(f\omega_g) = \Delta\star f = \star\Delta f = (\Delta f)\omega_g.$$

□

**Definition 2.7.** A  $k$ -form  $\omega$  is called *harmonic* if  $\Delta\omega = 0$ .

We will denote the set of all harmonic  $k$ -forms on  $(M, g)$  by  $\mathcal{H}^k(M)$ . It is obviously a vector space. Obviously if  $M$  is connected,

$$\mathcal{H}^0(M) \simeq \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathcal{H}^m(M) \simeq \mathbb{R}.$$

According to proposition 2.3, if  $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$  is parallel, i.e.  $\nabla\omega = 0$ , then  $\omega$  is harmonic.

*Example.* Consider  $M = \mathbb{T}^m$  equipped with the standard flat metric. Then any  $k$ -form can be written as

$$\omega = \sum \omega_{i_1 \dots i_m} dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_m}.$$

It is not hard to see that each  $dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_m}$  is parallel. So one can see  $\Delta\omega = 0$  if and only if  $\Delta\omega_{i_1 \dots i_k} = 0$ . As a consequence, we see

$$\dim \mathcal{H}^k(\mathbb{T}^m) = \binom{n}{k}.$$

The following proposition can be viewed as an alternative definition of harmonic forms: [For example, in symplectic Hodge theory, there is no  $\Delta$ , however, one can still define harmonic form by this method.]

**Corollary 2.8.** *Suppose  $M$  is closed. Then*

$$\omega \in \mathcal{H}^k(M) \iff d\omega = 0, \delta\omega = 0.$$

*Proof.* If  $\Delta\omega = 0$ , then by proposition 2.5, one must have  $d\omega = 0, \delta\omega = 0$ .

Conversely if  $d\omega = 0, \delta\omega = 0$ , then of course  $\Delta\omega = 0$ .

□

**Corollary 2.9.** *If  $\omega \in \mathcal{H}^k(M)$ , then  $\star\omega \in \mathcal{H}^{m-k}(M)$ .*

*Proof.*  $\Delta\star\omega = \star\Delta\omega = 0$ .

□