# Hodge Laplacian on digraphs

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# 1 Motivation

Let M be a compact Riemannian manifold. The Hodge Laplace operator  $\Delta_p$  of dimension  $p \ge 0$  acts in the space  $\Omega^p$  of differential p-form on M as follows:

$$\Delta_p \omega = d^* d\omega + dd^* \omega \,,$$

where d is the exterior derivative from the de Rham cochain complex:

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega^0 \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \Omega^1 \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \cdots \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \Omega^n \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \Omega^{n+1} \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \cdots$$

and  $d^*$  is the adjoint operator:

$$0 \quad \leftarrow \quad \Omega^0 \quad \stackrel{d^*}{\leftarrow} \quad \Omega^1 \quad \stackrel{d^*}{\leftarrow} \quad \cdots \quad \stackrel{d^*}{\leftarrow} \quad \Omega^n \quad \stackrel{d^*}{\leftarrow} \quad \Omega^{n+1} \quad \stackrel{d^*}{\leftarrow} \quad \cdots$$

Our purpose is to define similar notions on digraphs (directed graphs): a chain complex and the corresponding Hodge Laplacian, as well as to investigate the spectral properties of the latter.

### 2 Chain spaces and path homology on digraphs

#### 2.1 Paths and the boundary operator

Let us fix a finite set V and a field K. For any  $p \ge 0$ , an *elementary* p-path is any sequence  $i_0, ..., i_p$  of p + 1 vertices of V; it will be denoted by  $e_{i_0...i_p}$ . A p-path is any formal linear combinations of elementary p-paths with coefficients from

A *p*-path is any formal linear combinations of elementary *p*-paths with coefficients from  $\mathbb{K}$ ; that is, any *p*-path *u* has a form

$$u = \sum_{i_0, i_1, \dots, i_p \in V} u^{i_0 i_1 \dots i_p} e_{i_0 i_1 \dots i_p},$$

where  $u^{i_0 i_1 \dots i_p} \in \mathbb{K}$ . The set of all *p*-paths is a  $\mathbb{K}$ -linear space denoted by  $\Lambda_p = \Lambda_p(V, \mathbb{K})$ . For example,  $\Lambda_0 = \langle e_i : i \in V \rangle$ ,  $\Lambda_1 = \langle e_{ij} : i, j \in V \rangle$ ,  $\Lambda_2 = \langle e_{ijk} : i, j, k \in V \rangle$ .

**Definition.** Define for any  $p \ge 1$  a linear boundary operator  $\partial : \Lambda_p \to \Lambda_{p-1}$  by

$$\partial e_{i_0...i_p} = \sum_{q=0}^{p} (-1)^q e_{i_0...\hat{i_q}...i_p},$$
(1)

where  $\widehat{}$  means omission of the index. For p = 0 set  $\partial e_i = 0$  (and, hence,  $\Lambda_{-1} = \{0\}$ ).

For example,

$$\partial e_{ij} = e_j - e_i$$
 and  $\partial e_{ijk} = e_{jk} - e_{ik} + e_{ij}$ .

It is easy to show that  $\partial^2 = 0$ . Hence, we obtain a chain complex  $\Lambda_*(V)$ :

$$0 \leftarrow \Lambda_0 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Lambda_1 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \cdots \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Lambda_{p-1} \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Lambda_p \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \cdots$$

An elementary *p*-path  $e_{i_0...i_p}$  is called *regular* if  $i_k \neq i_{k+1}$  for all k = 0, ..., p-1, and *irregular* otherwise. A *p*-path is called regular (resp. irregular) if it is a linear combination of regular (resp. irregular) elementary paths.

Denote by  $\mathcal{R}_p$  the space of all regular *p*-paths. Then  $\partial$  is well defined on the spaces  $\mathcal{R}_p$  if we identify all irregular paths with 0 (which is justified by the fact that if *u* is irregular then  $\partial u$  is also irregular). For example, if  $i \neq j$  then  $e_{iji} \in \mathcal{R}_2$  and

$$\partial e_{iji} = e_{ji} - e_{ii} + e_{ij} = e_{ji} + e_{ij} \in \mathcal{R}_1,$$

because  $e_{ii} = 0$ . Hence, we obtain a regular chain complex

$$0 \leftarrow \mathcal{R}_0 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{R}_1 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \cdots \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{R}_{p-1} \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{R}_p \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \cdots$$

#### 2.2Chain complex on digraphs

A digraph (directed graph) is a pair G = (V, E) of a set V of vertices and  $E \subset \{V \times V \setminus \text{diag}\}$ is a set of arrows (directed edges). If  $(i, j) \in E$  then we write  $i \to j$ .

**Definition.** An elementary *p*-path  $e_{i_0...i_p}$  in a digraph G = (V, E) is called *allowed* if  $i_k \to i_{k+1}$  for any k = 0, ..., p-1, and non-allowed otherwise.

A *p*-path is called allowed if it is a linear combination

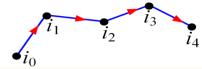
of allowed elementary p-paths. Denote by  $\mathcal{A}_p$  the linear space of all allowed p-paths.

We would like to build a chain complex based on spaces  $\mathcal{A}_p \subset \mathcal{R}_p$ . However, in general  $\partial$  does not act on the spaces  $\mathcal{A}_p$ . For example, in the digraph  $\overset{a}{\bullet} \to \overset{b}{\bullet} \to \overset{c}{\bullet}$  we have  $e_{abc} \in \mathcal{A}_2$  but  $\partial e_{abc} = e_{bc} - e_{ac} + e_{ab} \notin \mathcal{A}_1$  because  $e_{ac}$  is not allowed.

Consider the following subspace of  $\mathcal{A}_p$ :

$$\Omega_{p} \equiv \Omega_{p}\left(G, \mathbb{K}\right) := \left\{u \in \mathcal{A}_{p} : \partial u \in \mathcal{A}_{p-1}\right\}$$

Claim.  $\partial \Omega_p \subset \Omega_{p-1}$ . **Proof.** Indeed,  $u \in \Omega_p$  implies  $\partial u \in \mathcal{A}_{p-1}$  and  $\partial (\partial u) = 0 \in \mathcal{A}_{p-2}$ , whence  $\partial u \in \Omega_{p-1}$ .



For example,  $\Omega_0 = \mathcal{A}_0 = \langle e_i : i \in V \rangle$ ,  $\Omega_1 = \mathcal{A}_1 = \langle e_{ij} : i \to j \rangle$ , while in general  $\Omega_p \subset \mathcal{A}_p$ .

**Definition.** The elements of  $\Omega_p$  are called  $\partial$ -invariant p-paths.

Hence, we obtain a chain complex  $\Omega_* = \Omega_* (G, \mathbb{K})$ :

$$0 \leftarrow \Omega_0 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_1 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \cdots \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_{p-1} \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_p \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \cdots$$
(2)

that reflects the digraph structure of G. Homology groups of the chain complex (2) are called *path homologies* of G and are denoted by  $H_p = H_p(G, \mathbb{K})$ .

There is a dual cochain complex

$$0 \rightarrow \Omega^0 \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \Omega^1 \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \cdots \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \Omega^{p-1} \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \Omega^p \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} \cdots$$

that is analogous to the de Rham complex but in the setting of digraphs it is more convenient to work with the chain complex (2).

The dimension  $\beta_p = \dim H_p$  is called the *p*-th *Betti number* of *G*.

It is easy to prove that  $\beta_0$  is equal to the number of connected components of the underlying undirected graph. In particular, for connected graphs,  $\beta_0 = 1$ .

There is a certain notion of *homotopy* of digraphs.

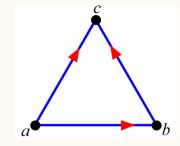
**Theorem 1.** The path homology groups  $H_p$  are invariant under digraph homotopy.

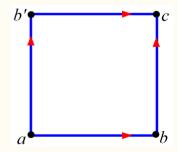
#### **2.3** Examples of $\partial$ -invariant paths

A triangle is a sequence of three distinct vertices a, b, csuch that  $a \to b \to c, a \to c$ . It determines a 2-path  $e_{abc} \in \Omega_2$  because  $e_{abc} \in \mathcal{A}_2$ and  $\partial e_{abc} = e_{bc} - e_{ac} + e_{ab} \in \mathcal{A}_1$ . The path  $e_{abc}$  is also referred to as a triangle.

If 
$$a \to b \to c$$
 but  $a \not\to c$  then  $e_{abc} \in \mathcal{A}_2$  but  $e_{abc} \notin \Omega_2$ .

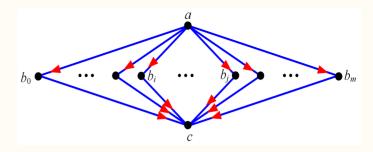
A square is a sequence of four distinct vertices a, b, b', c such that  $a \to b \to c, a \to b' \to c$  while  $a \not\to c$ . It determines a 2-path  $u = e_{abc} - e_{ab'c} \in \Omega_2$  because  $u \in \mathcal{A}_2$ and  $\partial u = (e_{bc} - \underline{e_{ac}} + e_{ab}) - (e_{b'c} - \underline{e_{ac}} + e_{ab'})$  $= e_{ab} + e_{bc} - e_{ab'} - e_{b'c} \in \mathcal{A}_1.$ The path u is also referred to as a square.





An *m*-square is a sequence of m + 3distinct vertices

 $a, b_0, b_1, ..., b_m, c$ such that  $a \to b_k \to c \quad \forall k = 0, ..., m$ , while  $a \not\to c$ .

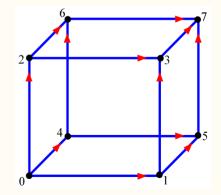


Clearly, a square is an 1-square. Any *m*-square with  $m \ge 2$  is also called a *multisquare*. The *m*-square determines  $\partial$ -invariant 2-paths (squares) as follows:

$$u_{ij} = e_{ab_ic} - e_{ab_jc} \in \Omega_2 \quad \text{for all } i, j = 0, ..., m,$$

and m of these squares are linearly independent:  $u_{0j} = e_{ab_0c} - e_{ab_jc}, j = 1, ..., m.$ 

A 3-*cube* is the following digraph:  
It determines a 
$$\partial$$
-invariant 3-path  
 $u = e_{0237} - e_{0137} + e_{0157} - e_{0457} + e_{0467} - e_{0267} \in \Omega_3$ ,  
that is also called a 3-cube. Indeed,  $u \in \mathcal{A}_3$  and  
 $\partial u = (e_{013} - e_{023}) + (e_{157} - e_{137}) + (e_{237} - e_{267})$   
 $- (e_{046} - e_{026}) - (e_{457} - e_{467}) - (e_{015} - e_{045}) \in \mathcal{A}_2$ 



#### **2.4** Structure of $\Omega_2$

As we know,  $\Omega_0 = \langle e_i \rangle$  and  $\Omega_1 = \langle e_{ij} : i \to j \rangle$ . Here we discuss a basis in  $\Omega_2$ .

**Theorem 2.** The space  $\Omega_2$  is spanned by all triangles  $e_{abc}$ , squares  $e_{abc} - e_{ab'c}$  and double arrows  $e_{aba}$ .

Consequently, the set of all triangles, the set of all double arrows, and a maximal set of linearly independent squares form a basis in  $\Omega_2$ .

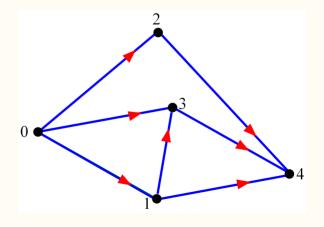
Note that all triangles and double edges are linearly independent whereas squares can be dependent.

For example, consider the following digraph: It contains two triangles  $e_{013}$ ,  $e_{134}$  and three squares:

$$e_{014} - e_{024}, e_{014} - e_{034}, e_{024} - e_{034}.$$

A basis in  $\Omega_2$  consists of two triangles and *two* squares:

$$\Omega_2 = \langle e_{013}, e_{134}, e_{014} - e_{024}, e_{014} - e_{034} \rangle.$$



# **3** Definition of the Hodge operator $\Delta_p$

Set  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ . Let us fix an arbitrary inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  in each of the spaces  $\mathcal{R}_p$  so that we have an inner product also in all  $\Omega_p$ . In all examples we use the *natural* inner product where the basis  $\{e_{i_0...i_p}\}$  of the elementary paths in  $\mathcal{R}_p$  is orthonormal.

For the operator  $\partial : \Omega_p \to \Omega_{p-1}$  consider the adjoint operator  $\partial^* : \Omega_{p-1} \to \Omega_p$  given by  $\langle \partial u, v \rangle = \langle u, \partial^* v \rangle$  for all  $u \in \Omega_p$  and  $v \in \Omega_{p-1}$ .

**Definition.** Define the Hodge-Laplace operator  $\Delta_p : \Omega_p \to \Omega_p$  by  $\Delta_p u = \partial^* \partial u + \partial \partial^* u.$ 

Here we use the following pairs of operators  $\partial$  and  $\partial^*$ :  $\Omega_{p-1} \stackrel{\partial}{\underset{\partial^*}{\hookrightarrow}} \Omega_p$  and  $\Omega_p \stackrel{\partial}{\underset{\partial^*}{\hookrightarrow}} \Omega_{p+1}$ .

It is easy to prove that the operator  $\Delta_p$  is self-adjoint and non-negative definite. Hence, the spectrum of  $\Delta_p$  consists of a finite sequence of non-negative real eigenvalues.

**Major problem.** Develop a technique for determination of spec  $\Delta_p$  (or for computation of the coefficients of the characteristic polynomials of  $\Delta_p$ ) at least for some classes of digraphs.

**Example.** Let  $V = \{1, ..., n\}$ . The operator  $\Delta_0$  acts on functions on V and has in the basis  $\{e_i\}$  the following  $n \times n$  matrix:

matrix of 
$$\Delta_0 = \operatorname{diag} \left( \operatorname{deg} \left( i \right) \right) - \mathbf{1}_{\{i \to j\}} - \mathbf{1}_{\{j \to i\}}$$

where deg(i) is the (undirected) degree of the vertex *i*. If G has no double arrow then

the matrix of 
$$\Delta_0 = \operatorname{diag} \left( \operatorname{deg} \left( i \right) \right) - \mathbf{1}_{\{i \sim j\}}$$
 (3)

where  $i \sim j$  denotes an edge in the underlying undirected graph. Hence,  $\Delta_0$  is the usual unnormalized Laplacian on functions on V.

It follows from (3) that

trace 
$$\Delta_0 = \sum_{i \in V} \deg(i) = 2 |E|$$
. (4)

The bottom eigenvalue of  $\Delta_0$  is always 0 because  $\Delta_0 1 = 0$ . It is easy to prove that

$$\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_0) \le 2 \max_{i \in V} \deg\left(i\right),\tag{5}$$

where  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  denotes the maximal eigenvalue of the operator in question.

Our results below include a formula for trace  $\Delta_1$  and bounds for spec  $\Delta_1$ .

### 4 Harmonic paths

**Definition.** A path  $u \in \Omega_p$  is called *harmonic* if  $\Delta_p u = 0$ .

It is easy to prove that a path  $u \in \Omega_p$  is harmonic if and only if  $\partial u = 0$  and  $\partial^* u = 0$ .

Denote by  $\mathcal{H}_p$  the set of all harmonic paths in  $\Omega_p$ . That is,  $\mathcal{H}_p$  is the eigenspace of  $\Delta_p$  with the eigenvalue 0,

**Theorem 3.** (Hodge decomposition)  $\Omega_p$  is the following orthogonal sum:

$$\Omega_p = \partial \Omega_{p+1} \bigoplus \partial^* \Omega_{p-1} \bigoplus \mathcal{H}_p.$$

**Corollary 4.** There is a natural linear isomorphism between  $\mathcal{H}_p$  and the homology group  $H_p$ :

$$\mathcal{H}_p \cong H_p$$

That is, each homology class has a unique harmonic representative.

Consequently, dim  $\mathcal{H}_p = \beta_p$ . In other words, the multiplicity of 0 as an eigenvalue of  $\Delta_p$  is equal to the Betti number  $\beta_p$ .

That is,  $\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_p) = 0$  if  $\beta_p > 0$  and  $\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_p) > 0$  if  $\beta_p = 0$ .

# 5 Matrix of $\Delta_p$

Let  $\{\alpha_i\}$  be an orthonormal basis in  $\Omega_p$ ,  $\{\beta_m\}$  be an orthonormal basis in  $\Omega_{p-1}$  and  $\{\gamma_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis in  $\Omega_{p+1}$ :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \Omega_{p-1} & \stackrel{\partial^*}{\underset{\partial}{\leftrightarrow}} & \Omega_p & \stackrel{\partial^*}{\underset{\partial}{\leftrightarrow}} & \Omega_{p+1} \\ \{\beta_m\} & & \{\alpha_i\} & & \{\gamma_n\} \end{array}$$

**Lemma 5.** The matrix of  $\Delta_p$  in the basis  $\{\alpha_i\}$  has the following entries:

$$\left\langle \Delta_{p}\alpha_{i},\alpha_{j}\right\rangle =\sum_{m}\left\langle \partial\alpha_{i},\beta_{m}\right\rangle \left\langle \partial\alpha_{j},\beta_{m}\right\rangle +\sum_{n}\left\langle \alpha_{i},\partial\gamma_{n}\right\rangle \left\langle \alpha_{j},\partial\gamma_{n}\right\rangle .$$
(6)

**Example.** For the 1-torus  $T = \{0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 0\}$  we have

the matrix of 
$$\Delta_1 = \begin{pmatrix} e_{01} & e_{12} & e_{20} \\ e_{01} & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ e_{12} & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ e_{20} & -1 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  are  $\{0, 3_2\}$ , where "3<sub>2</sub>" means that 3 is the eigenvalues with multiplicity 2.

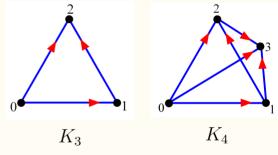
**Example.** For a triangle  $G = \{0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2, 0 \rightarrow 2\}$  we have

the matrix of 
$$\Delta_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

**Example.** For any integer  $n \ge 1$ , denote by  $K_n$  a complete digraph with the set of n vertices  $V = \{0, ..., n-1\}$  and arrows  $i \rightarrow j \Leftrightarrow i < j$ .

That is,  $K_n$  is a directed (n-1)-simplex.

The space  $\Omega_p = \mathcal{A}_p$  is generated by all elementary allowed *p*-paths:  $\{e_{i_0...i_p} : i_0 < i_1 < ... < i_p\}$  so that  $|\Omega_p| = \binom{n}{p+1}.$ 



A computation shows that, for any  $1 \le p < n$ ,

the matrix of 
$$\Delta_p(K_n) = \operatorname{diag}(n)$$
.

Consequently, spec  $\Delta_p(K_n)$  consists of one eigenvalue *n* with the multiplicity  $\binom{n}{p+1}$ .

**Example.** Let G be a square  $\{0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 3, 0 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3\}$ . Then

the matrix of 
$$\Delta_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 5 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 5 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$
,

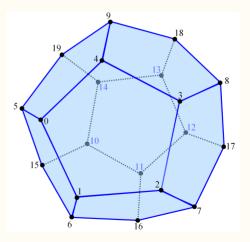
and the eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  are  $\{2_3, 4\}$ .

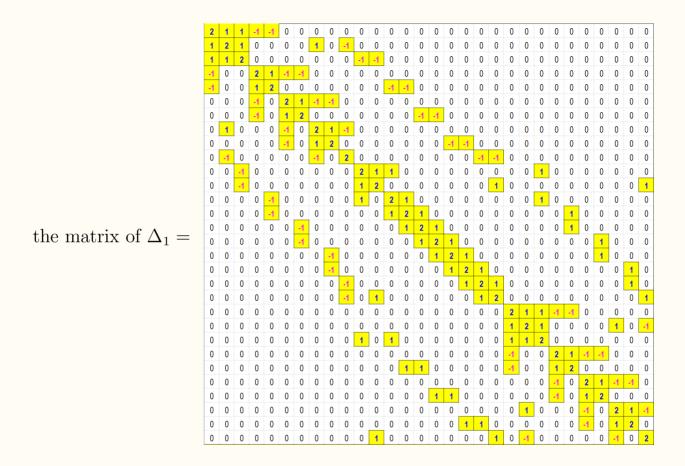
**Example.** Let G be a dodecahedron (V = 20, E = 30), where the arrows go in the direction of increasing numbers.

The eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  are

 $\{0_{11}, 2_5, 3_4, 5_4, (3 \pm \sqrt{5})_3\}.$ 

The matrix of  $\Delta_1$  is a follows:

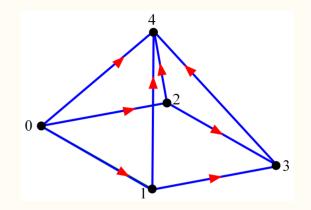




**Example.** Consider the following pyramid:

The eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  are  $\{3_5, 5_3\}$ .

The matrix of  $\Delta_1$  is as follows:



the matrix of 
$$\Delta_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 7 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 7 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 8 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

### 6 A formula for trace $\Delta_1$

From now on  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is the natural inner product in all  $\Omega_p$ . Recall that by (4) trace  $\Delta_0 = 2E$ , where E is now the number of arrows in the digraph. Here is a similar result for trace  $\Delta_1$ .

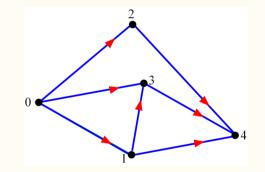
**Theorem 6.** Let T be the number of all triangles in a digraph, S be the maximal number of linearly independent squares, and D be the number of all double arrows  $a \rightleftharpoons b$ . Then

$$\operatorname{trace}\Delta_1 = 2E + 3T + 2S + 4D. \tag{7}$$

For example, consider the "broken" pyramid: (as on p.10). It has 2 triangles and 3 squares of which 2 are linearly independent.

Hence, 
$$E = 7$$
,  $T = S = 2$ ,  $D = 0$ , whence

trace  $\Delta_1 = 2 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 2 = 24$ .



In fact, the full spectrum of  $\Delta_1$  on this digraph is  $\{2, 3, 4_2, 5, 3 \pm \sqrt{3}\}$ .

**Problem.** Find a formula for trace  $\Delta_p$  similar to (7).

# 7 An upper bound of $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_1)$

Denote by  $\lambda_{\max}(A)$  the maximal eigenvalue of a symmetric operator A. By (5) we have  $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_0) \leq 2 \max_{i \in V} \deg(i)$ .

For any arrow  $i \to j$  in G denote by  $\deg_{\Delta}(ij)$  the number of triangles containing the arrow  $i \to j$ , and by  $\deg_{\Box}(ij)$  the number of squares containing  $i \to j$ .

**Theorem 7.** Assume that the digraph G contains no multisquares (see p. 9). Then

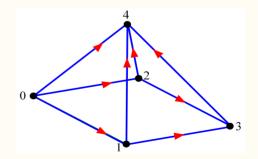
$$\lambda_{\max}\left(\Delta_{1}\right) \leq 2\max_{i} \deg\left(i\right) + 3\max_{i \to j} \deg_{\Delta}\left(ij\right) + 2\max_{i \to j} \deg_{\Box}\left(ij\right).$$

$$(8)$$

For example, consider the pyramid: We have in this case max deg (i) = 4, max deg<sub> $\triangle$ </sub>(ij) = 2, max deg<sub> $\square$ </sub>(ij) = 1.

Hence, we obtain by (8)

$$\lambda_{\max} \le 2 \cdot 4 + 3 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 1 = 16.$$



In fact, we have  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 5$  (see p. 18) so that the estimate (8) is rather rough in this case.

An advantage of Theorem 7 is that it provides an estimate of  $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_1)$  using a *local* information about the digraph.

**Problem.** How sharp is the upper bound of  $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_1)$  in (8)? Is it attained on some digraphs?

**Problem.** Extend (8) to a general case when G may contain multisquares.

**Problem.** Obtain a similar upper bound for  $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_p)$ .

**Problem.** Obtain a lower bound for  $\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_p)$  in the case when  $\beta_p = 0$  (that is, when  $\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_p) > 0$ ).

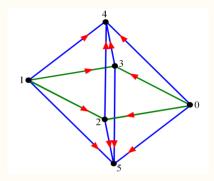
# 8 Examples of computations of trace $\Delta_1$ and spec $\Delta_1$

**Example.** Consider an octahedron based on a diamond:

For this digraph E = 12, T = 8, S = 0.

Hence, trace  $\Delta_1 = 2E + 3T = 48$ .

The eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  are  $\{2_3, 4_6, 6_3\}$ .

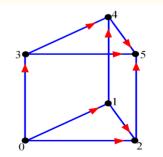


**Example.** Consider a prism:

Since E = 9, T = 2, S = 3, we have

 $\operatorname{trace} \Delta_1 = 2E + 3T + 2S = 30$ 

The eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  are  $\{2, (\frac{5}{2})_2, 3_3, 4, 5_2\}$ .

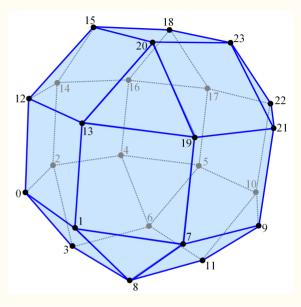


**Example.** Consider a rhombicuboctahedron where the arrows go in the direction of increasing numbers:

We have here V = 24 and E = 48. There is 8 triangles and 18 squares corresponding exactly to the faces of the polyhedron.

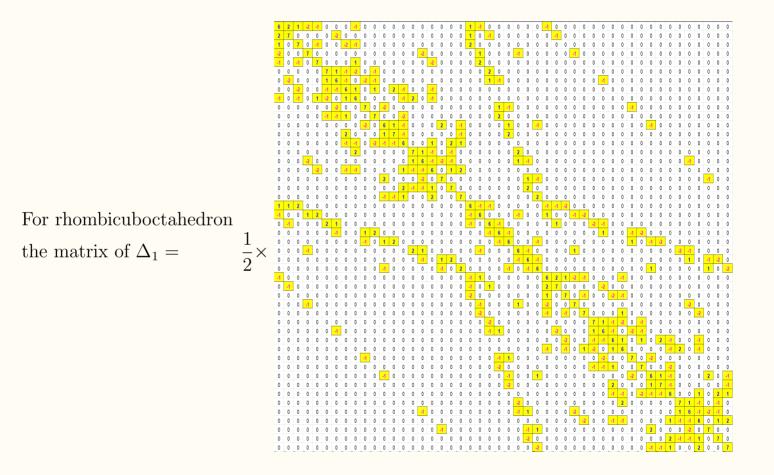
Therefore, T = 8, S = 18 and

trace  $\Delta_1 = 2E + 3T + 2S = 156$ .



A computation of the eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  gives  $\lambda_{\min} = 0.518...$  and  $\lambda_{\max} = 7_2$ . There are multiple eigenvalues:  $1_3, 2_3, 3_3, 4_4, 5_6$ , etc. The full spectrum of  $\Delta_1$  is shown here:





**Example.** Consider the icosahedron, where the arrows go in the direction of increasing numbers:

We have here V = 12, E = 30.

There are 20 triangles corresponding to the faces of the polyhedron and 5 squares:

 $e_{0111} - e_{0211}, e_{027} - e_{067}, e_{0510} - e_{0610}$  $e_{2710} - e_{2610}, e_{3410} - e_{3810}.$ 

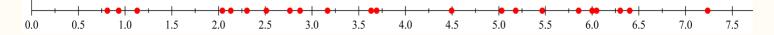
Therefore, T = 20, S = 5 and

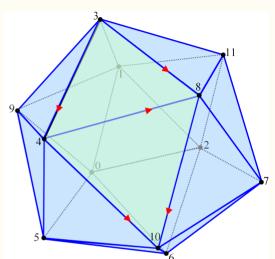
trace  $\Delta_1 = 2E + 3T + 2S = 130$ .

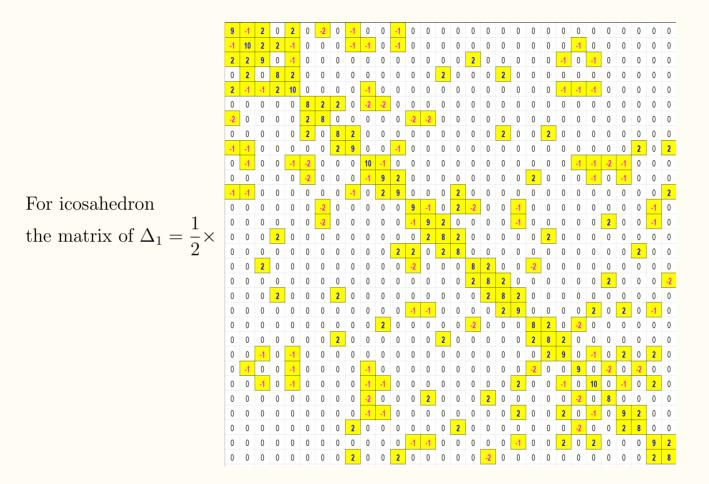
A computation yields that

$$\lambda_{\min} = 0.810...$$
 and  $\lambda_{\max} = (5 + \sqrt{5})_3.$ 

Other multiple eigenvalues are  $6_5$  and  $(5 - \sqrt{5})_3$ . The full spectrum of  $\Delta_1$  is shown here:







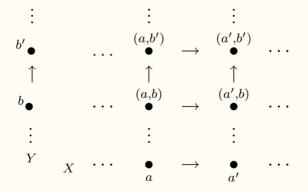
# 9 Cartesian product

Denote a digraph and its set of vertices by the same letters to simplify notation.

Given two digraphs X and Y, define their Cartesian product as a digraph  $Z = X \Box Y$  as follows:

- the vertices of Z are couples (a, b) where  $a \in X$  and  $b \in Y$ ;

- the edges in Z are of two types:  $(a, b) \to (a', b)$  where  $a \to a'$  in X (a horizontal edge) and  $(a, b) \to (a, b')$  where  $b \to b'$  in Y (a vertical edge):



**Theorem 8.** (Künneth formula for product) Let X, Y be two digraphs, set  $Z = X \Box Y$ . Then, for any  $r \ge 0$ ,

$$\Omega_r(Z) \cong \bigoplus_{\{p,q \ge 0: p+q=r\}} \Omega_p(X) \otimes \Omega_q(Y), \qquad (9)$$

where the isomorphism is given by  $u \otimes v \mapsto u \times v$  for  $u \in \Omega_p(X)$  and  $v \in \Omega_q(Y)$ .

Here  $u \times v$  denotes a certain *cross product* of paths.

Consequently, we have

$$H_r(Z) \cong \bigoplus_{\{p,q \ge 0: p+q=r\}} H_p(X) \otimes H_q(Y)$$
(10)

and

$$\beta_{r}\left(Z\right) = \sum_{\left\{p,q \ge 0: p+q=r\right\}} \beta_{p}\left(X\right) \beta_{q}\left(Y\right).$$

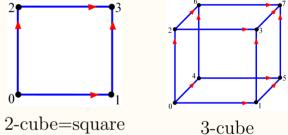
Hence, the multiplicity of 0 as an eigenvalue of  $\Delta_r(Z)$  can be expressed via the multiplicities of 0 for  $\Delta_p(X)$  and  $\Delta_q(Y)$ . **Example.** Consider a digraph  $I = {}^{0} \bullet \to \bullet^{1}$ . For any  $n \ge 1$ , define the digraph

$$n$$
-cube =  $I^{\Box n} = \underbrace{I \Box I \Box ... \Box I}_{n \text{ times}}$ 

We have for the *n*-cube:  $V = 2^n$ ,  $E = n2^{n-1}$ ,  $S = 2^{n-3}n(n-1)$  and T = D = 0. Hence,

trace 
$$\Delta_1(n\text{-cube}) = 2E + 2S = 2^{n-2}n(n+3)$$
.

Case 
$$n = 2$$
: trace  $\Delta_1(2\text{-cube}) = 2 \cdot 5 = 10$ ,  
spec  $\Delta_1(2\text{-cube}) = \{2_3, 4\}$ .  
Case  $n = 3$ : trace  $\Delta_1(3\text{-cube}) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 6 = 36$ ,  
spec  $\Delta_1(3\text{-cube}) = \{2_6, 3_2, 4_3, 6\}$ .  
2-cube=s



Case n = 4: trace  $\Delta_1(4$ -cube) =  $2^2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 = 112$ ,

spec 
$$\Delta_1(4\text{-cube}) = \{2_{10}, 3_8, 4_9, 6_4, 8\}.$$

Case n = 5: trace  $\Delta_1(5$ -cube) =  $2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 8 = 320$ ,

spec 
$$\Delta_1(5\text{-cube}) = \{2_{15}, 3_{20}, 4_{25}, 5_4, 6_{10}, 8_5, 10\}$$

**Problem.** Determine spec  $\Delta_1(n$ -cube). In particular, prove that on *n*-cube

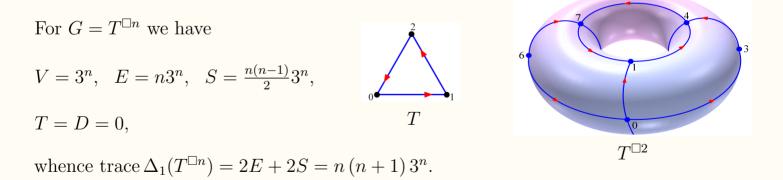
$$\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_1) = 2_{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}$$
 and  $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_1) = 2n$ .

Prove also that the eigenvalues of  $\Delta_1$  on *n*-cube are all even integers from 2 to 2*n* and all odd integers from 3 to *n*. Determine their multiplicities.

The difficulty here is that the method of separation of variables does not work.

**Problem.** Determine spec  $\Delta_p(n$ -cube).

**Example.** Consider the *n*-torus  $T^{\Box n}$ , where  $T = \{0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 0\}$ .



Case n = 1: trace  $\Delta_1(T) = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3^1 = 6$  and

spec 
$$\Delta_1(T) = \{0, 3_2\}.$$

Case n = 2: trace  $\Delta_1(T^{\Box 2}) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3^2 = 54$  and

spec 
$$\Delta_1(T^{\square 2}) = \{0_2, (\frac{3}{2})_4, 3_8, 6_4\}.$$

Case n = 3: trace  $\Delta_1(T^{\square 3}) = 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 3^3 = 324$  and  $\operatorname{spec} \Delta_1(T^{\square 3}) = \left\{ 0_3, \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)_{12}, 3_{30}, \left(\frac{9}{2}\right)_{16}, 6_{12}, 9_8 \right\}.$ 

**Problem.** Compute spec  $\Delta_1(T^{\Box n})$ . In particular, prove that on *n*-torus

 $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_1) = (3n)_{2^n} \, .$ 

It is known that  $\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_1) = 0_n$ , which is a consequence of  $\beta_1(T^{\Box n}) = n$ . In fact, we have

$$\beta_p(T^{\Box n}) = \binom{n}{p},$$

so that  $\lambda_{\min}(\Delta_p) = 0_{\binom{n}{p}}$  for all  $0 \le p \le n$ .

**Problem.** Compute spec  $\Delta_p(T^{\Box n})$ . In particular, what is  $\lambda_{\max}(\Delta_p)$ ?

### 10 Augmented chain complex

In the next sections we use the *augmented* chain complex:

$$\mathbb{K} \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_0 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_1 \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \dots \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_{p-1} \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \Omega_p \stackrel{\partial}{\leftarrow} \dots$$
(11)

Here we redefine  $\partial : \Omega_0 \to \mathbb{K} =: \widetilde{\Omega}_{-1}$  by  $\partial e_i = e$ , where *e* denotes the unity of  $\mathbb{K}$  (previously we defined  $\partial : \Omega_0 \to \{0\}$  as  $\partial = 0$ ). For consistency of notation, set  $\widetilde{\Omega}_p = \Omega_p$  for all  $p \ge 0$ .

The homology groups of the augmented chain complex (11) are denoted by  $H_p$  and are called the *reduced* homology groups.

Consider the Hodge Laplacian  $\widetilde{\Delta}_p: \widetilde{\Omega}_p \to \widetilde{\Omega}_p$  associated with this complex:

$$\widetilde{\Delta}_p u = \partial^* \partial u + \partial \partial^* u.$$

Of course, we have  $\widetilde{\Delta}_p = \Delta_p$  for  $p \ge 1$  but  $\widetilde{\Delta}_p \ne \Delta_p$  for p = -1 and p = 0.

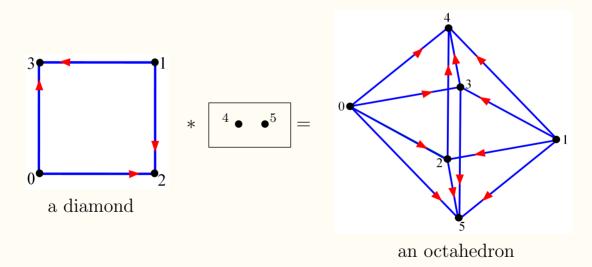
For example, for p = -1 we have  $\widetilde{\Delta}_{-1}e = |V|e$ . For p = 0 we have  $\widetilde{\Delta}_{0}e_{i} = \Delta_{0}e_{i} + \sum_{j}e_{j}$ . Therefore, the matrix of  $\widetilde{\Delta}_{0}$  in the basis  $\{e_{i}\}$  is obtained from the matrix of  $\Delta_{0}$  (see (3)) by adding 1 to *each* entry.

# 11 Join of digraphs

Let X, Y be two digraphs.

**Definition.** The *join* X \* Y of X and Y is a digraph whose set of vertices is a disjoint union of the sets of vertices of X and Y, and the set of arrows consists of all arrows of X and Y as well as from all arrows  $x \to y$  where  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ .

Here is an example of join:



**Theorem 9.** (Künneth formula for the join) Let X, Y be two digraphs, set Z = X \* Y. We have the following isomorphism: for any  $r \ge -1$ ,

$$\widetilde{\Omega}_{r}\left(Z\right) \cong \bigoplus_{\{p,q\geq-1:p+q=r-1\}} \left(\widetilde{\Omega}_{p}\left(X\right) \otimes \widetilde{\Omega}_{q}\left(Y\right)\right)$$
(12)

that is given by the map  $u \otimes v \mapsto u * v$  with  $u \in \widetilde{\Omega}_p(X)$  and  $v \in \widetilde{\Omega}_q(Y)$ 

Here u \* v denotes the *join* of two paths that is defined by  $e_{i_0...i_p} * e_{j_0...j_q} = e_{i_0...i_p j_0...j_q}$ . It follows that, for any  $r \ge 0$ ,

$$\widetilde{H}_{r}\left(Z\right) \cong \bigoplus_{\{p,q\geq 0: p+q=r-1\}} \widetilde{H}_{p}\left(X\right) \otimes \widetilde{H}_{q}\left(Y\right)$$

and

$$\widetilde{\beta}_{r}\left(Z\right)=\sum_{\left\{p,q\geq0:p+q=r-1\right\}}\widetilde{\beta}_{p}\left(X\right)\widetilde{\beta}_{q}\left(Y\right).$$

# **12** Spectrum of $\widetilde{\Delta}_p$ on the join

The advantage of the augmented chain complex (11) lies in the following statements.

**Lemma 10.** Let X, Y be two digraphs. Then, for  $u \in \Omega_p(X)$ ,  $v \in \Omega_q(Y)$  with  $p, q \ge -1$ , we have

$$\widetilde{\Delta}_r \left( u * v \right) = \left( \widetilde{\Delta}_p u \right) * v + u * \widetilde{\Delta}_q v, \tag{13}$$

where r = p + q + 1.

The Künneth formula (12) and the product rule (13) allow to prove the following result. **Theorem 11.** Let X, Y be two digraphs. We have, for any  $r \ge 0$ ,

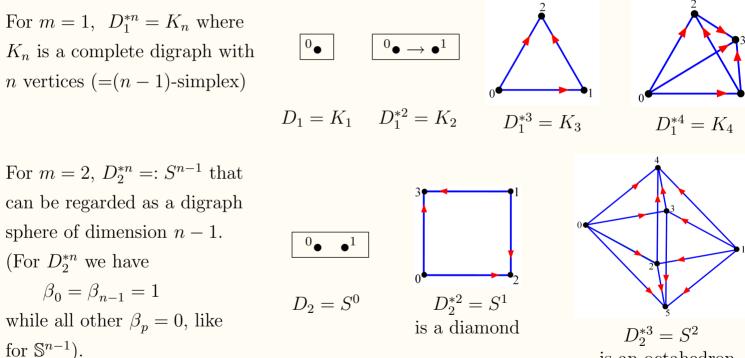
$$\operatorname{spec}\widetilde{\Delta}_{r}\left(X*Y\right) = \bigsqcup_{\{p,q\geq-1:p+q=r-1\}} \left(\operatorname{spec}\widetilde{\Delta}_{p}\left(X\right) + \operatorname{spec}\widetilde{\Delta}_{q}\left(Y\right)\right).$$
(14)

Here we denote by spec A a sequence of all the eigenvalues of the operator A counted with multiplicities. The sum of two such sequences consists of all pairwise sums of the elements of the first and the second sequences. In particular, if one of the sequences is empty then its sum with another sequence is also empty.

The disjoint union of sequences means the union of all the elements of the sequences, summing up the multiplicities of their common elements.

# **13** Spectrum of $\Delta_p$ on digraphs $D_m^{*n}$

For any  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  denote by  $D_m$  a digraph with m vertices and no arrows. We compute here spec  $\Delta_p(D_m^{*n})$  where  $D_m^{*n}$  is the *n*-th join power of  $D_m$ .



is an octahedron

As it follows from the Künneth formula for join,

$$\dim \Omega_{r-1} \left( D_m^{*n} \right) = \binom{n}{r} m^r.$$

In particular, the Hodge Laplacian  $\Delta_{r-1}$  on  $D_m^{*n}$  is non-trivial only if  $n \ge r$ .

**Theorem 12.** We have, for all  $n, m \ge 1$  and  $r \ge 2$ ,

spec 
$$\Delta_{r-1}(D_m^{*n}) = \left\{ ((n-k)m)_{\binom{r}{k}\binom{n}{r}(m-1)^k} \right\}_{k=0}^r.$$
 (15)

More explicitly, (15) can be stated as follows: if n < r then

$$\operatorname{spec}\Delta_{r-1}(D_m^{*n}) = \emptyset$$

while for  $n \ge r$  the spectrum of  $\Delta_{r-1}(D_m^{*n})$  consists of the following r+1 eigenvalues

$$(n-r)m, (n-r+1)m, (n-r+2)m, \dots, (n-1)m, nm,$$

having the following multiplicities:

$$\binom{n}{r}(m-1)^r$$
,  $r\binom{n}{r}(m-1)^{r-1}$ ,  $\binom{r}{2}\binom{n}{r}(m-1)^{r-2}$ , ...,  $r\binom{n}{r}(m-1)$ ,  $\binom{n}{r}$ . (16)

**Example.** Let m = 1. Then  $D_1^{*n} = K_n$ . In this case all the multiplicities in (16) are 0 except for the last one  $\binom{n}{r}$ . Hence, spec  $\Delta_{r-1}(K_n)$  consists of a single eigenvalue n with multiplicity  $\binom{n}{r}$ , as we have seen above (p. 15).

**Example.** Let m = 2. Then  $D_2^{*n} = S^{n-1}$ . In this case (15) becomes

spec 
$$\Delta_{r-1}(S^{n-1}) = \left\{ (2(n-k))_{\binom{r}{k}\binom{n}{r}} \right\}_{k=0}^{r}$$

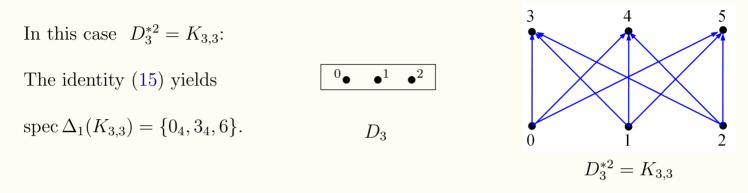
For example, we have

$$\operatorname{spec} \Delta_{1}(S^{n-1}) = \left\{ (2(n-2))_{\binom{n}{2}}, (2(n-1))_{2\binom{n}{2}}, (2n)_{\binom{n}{2}} \right\},$$
$$\operatorname{spec} \Delta_{2}(S^{n-1}) = \left\{ (2(n-3))_{\binom{n}{3}}, (2(n-2))_{3\binom{n}{3}}, (2(n-1))_{3\binom{n}{3}}, (2n)_{\binom{n}{3}} \right\},$$
$$\operatorname{spec} \Delta_{3}(S^{n-1}) = \left\{ (2(n-4))_{\binom{n}{4}}, (2(n-3))_{4\binom{n}{4}}, (2(n-2))_{6\binom{n}{4}}, (2(n-1))_{4\binom{n}{4}}, (2n)_{\binom{n}{4}} \right\}.$$

In particular,

$$\operatorname{spec} \Delta_1(S^1) = \{0, 2_2, 4\},$$
$$\operatorname{spec} \Delta_1(S^2) = \{2_3, 4_6, 6_3\}, \quad \operatorname{spec} \Delta_2(S^2) = \{0, 2_3, 4_3, 6\},$$
$$\operatorname{spec} \Delta_1(S^3) = \{4_6, 6_{12}, 8_6\}, \operatorname{spec} \Delta_2(S^3) = \{2_4, 4_{12}, 6_{12}, 8_4\}, \operatorname{spec} \Delta_3(S^3) = \{0, 2_4, 4_6, 6_4, 8\}$$

#### **Example.** Let m = 3.



There is a notion of *combinatorial curvature* of digraphs.

**Theorem 13.** All digraphs from the family  $\{D_m^{*n}\}$  have a constant combinatorial curvature:

$$K(D_m^{*n}) = \frac{1 - (1 - m)^k}{km}$$

# 14 Trapezohedrons

For any integer  $m \ge 2$ , define a trapezohedron  $T_m$  of order m as follows:

 $T_m$  is a digraph of 2m + 2 vertices

 $a, b, i_0, ..., i_{m-1}, j_0, j_1, ..., j_{m-1}$ 

and 4m arrows

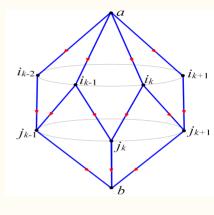
 $a \to i_k \to j_k \to b, \quad i_k \to j_{k+1}$ for all  $k = 0, \dots, m-1 \mod m$ .

A fragment of  $T_m$  is shown here:

The trapezohedron gives rise to a  $\partial$ -invariant 3-path:

$$\tau_m = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \left( e_{ai_k j_k b} - e_{ai_k j_{k+1} b} \right).$$

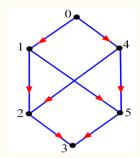
**Theorem 14.** If a digraph G has neither double arrows nor multisquares then there is a basis in  $\Omega_3(G)$  that consists of trapezohedral paths  $\tau_m$  with  $m \ge 2$  and their images under digraph morphisms.



For digraph  $T_m$  we have V = 2m + 2, E = 4m, S = 2m while T = D = 0, which yields

trace 
$$\Delta_1(T_m) = 2E + 2S = 12m$$
.

Here is the trapezohedron  $T_2$ : In this case trace  $\Delta_1(T_2) = 12 \cdot 2 = 24$ and spec  $\Delta_1(T_2) = \{2, 3_5, \frac{7}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{17}\}.$ 

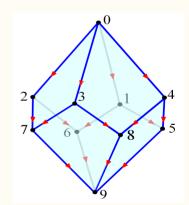


The trapezohedron  $T_3$  coincides with a 3-cube. In this case trace  $\Delta_1(T_3) = 36$  and spec  $\Delta_1(T_3) = \{2_6, 3_2, 4_3, 6\}$ .

Here is the trapezohedron  $T_4$ : In this case trace  $\Delta_1(T_4) = 12 \cdot 4 = 48$ . The characteristic polynomial of  $\Delta_1(T_4)$  is

$$(z-2)(z-3)^4(z-5)(z^2-9z+16)(z^2-4z+\frac{7}{2})^2(z^2-6z+7)^2,$$

spec  $\Delta_1(T_4) = \{2, 3_4, 5, \frac{9}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{17}, (2 \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2})_2, (3 \pm \sqrt{2})_2\}.$ 



In the case m = 5, the characteristic polynomial of  $\Delta_1(T_5)$  is

$$(z-2)\left(z-\frac{5}{2}\right)^4\left(z-6\right)\left(z^2-10z+20\right)\left(z^2-7z+11\right)^2\left(z^2-5z+5\right)^2\left(z^2-4z+\frac{11}{4}\right)^2,$$

and

spec 
$$\Delta_1(T_5) = \{2, (\frac{5}{2})_4, 6, 5 \pm \sqrt{5}, (\frac{7}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5})_2, (\frac{5}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5})_2, (2 \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5})_2\}.$$

In the case m = 6, the characteristic polynomial of  $\Delta_1(T_6)$  is

$$(z-2)^{5}(z-3)^{7}(z-4)^{2}(z-7)(z-8)(z^{2}-3z+\frac{3}{2})^{2}(z^{2}-6z+6)^{2}$$

and

spec 
$$\Delta_1(T_6) = \{2_5, 3_7, 4_2, 7, 8, (\frac{3}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3})_2, (3 \pm \sqrt{3})_2\}.$$

In the case m-7, the characteristic polynomial of  $\Delta_1(T_7)$  is

$$(z-2)(z-8)(z^2-12z+28)(z^3-6z^2+\frac{41}{4}z-\frac{29}{8})^2(z^3-10z^2+31z-29)^2 \times (z^3-7z^2+\frac{63}{4}z-\frac{91}{8})^2(z^3-8z^2+19z-13)^2.$$

The operator  $\Delta_1(T_7)$  has eigenvalues 2, 8,  $6 \pm 2\sqrt{2}$ , and all other eigenvalues are zeros of cubic polynomials.

**Proposition 15.** For any  $m \ge 2$ , the operator  $\Delta_1(T_m)$  on trapezohedron  $T_m$  has eigenvalues  $\lambda = 2$  and  $\lambda = m + 1$ .

**Problem.** Determine spec  $\Delta_1(T_m)$  for any m.

**Problem.** Determine spec  $\Delta_2(T_m)$ . It is known that  $|\Omega_2(T_m)| = 2m$ .

It is easy to show that  $|\Omega_3(T_m)| = 1$  and spec  $\Delta_3(T_m) = \{2\}$ .

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