# HARMONIC DECOMPOSITION OF POLYNOMIALS 

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#### Abstract

The space of homogeneous polynomials of degree $d$ splits according to the natural $S O$-action into irreducible summands that contain polynomial of the form $q^{k} g$ where $g$ is harmonic. This is called the harmonic decomposition.


## 1. HARMONIC DECOMPOSITION AND HARMONIC PART

Let $V$ be a $(n+1)$-dimensional real vector space on $\mathbb{K}$ (where $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$ ). Fix a nondegenerate $q \in \operatorname{Sym}^{2} V$, we have the group $S O(V, q)=S O(V)$ of endomorphisms preserving $q$ and the corresponding action of $S O(V)$ on $V$. It is convenient to choose from the beginning a coordinate system such that $q$ has the standard Euclidean expression

$$
q=\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_{i}^{2}
$$

Let $\Delta=\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i}^{2}}$ be the Laplace operator, which corresponds to $q$ in the dual coordinates $\partial_{0}, \ldots, \partial_{n}$. As usual a polynoial $f$ is called harmonic if $\Delta f=0$.

Proposition 1.1. The group $S O(V, q)$ has exactly two orbits on $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{C}}(V)$, namely the quadric $Q_{n-1}=\{q=0\}$ and its complement $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{C}}(V) \backslash Q_{n-1}$. The real group $S O\left(V_{\mathbb{R}}\right.$ acts transitively on $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{R}}(V)$.
Proof. An orthogonal transformation on $\mathbb{C}$ takes any non isotropic $v$ to $e_{1}$ and any isotropic $v$ to $e_{1}+\sqrt{-1} e_{2}$. An orthogonal transformation on $\mathbb{R}$ takes any non zero $v$ to $e_{1}$.

The natural way to define the action of $S O(V)$ to polynomials, is to consider polynomials as functions. In this way, if $f(x)$ is the function associated to the polynomial $f$, then for any $g \in S O(V)$ we define the function $g f$ by $(g f)(x)=$ $f\left(g^{-1} x\right)$ which can be written as $(g f)(x)=f\left(g^{t} x\right)$. In the case of powers of linear forms, if $f(x)=\left(\sum v_{i} x_{i}\right)^{d}=\left(v^{t} x\right)^{d}$ then $f\left(g^{t} x\right)=\left(v^{t}\left(g^{t} x\right)\right)^{d}=\left((g v)^{t} x\right)^{d}$. In conclusion, we may identify $v$ with the linear form $v^{t} x$ and we get that $g\left(v^{d}\right)=(g v)^{d}$. This is coherent with the inclusion $\mathrm{Sym}^{d} V \subset V \otimes \ldots \otimes V$ and the action extended from $V$ to the tensor product as $g\left(v_{1} \otimes \ldots \otimes v_{d}\right)=g v_{1} \otimes \ldots \otimes g v_{d}$ on decomposable elements. For polynomials that are powers of linear forms the action is very simple, namely $g \cdot l^{d}=(g \cdot l)^{d}, \forall l \in V$.

Remark 1.2. By the unitary trick [22, 2.7], there is an equivalence of categories between holomorphic representations of $S O(n+1, \mathbb{C})$ and continuous representations of its real form $S O(n+1, \mathbb{R})$. In particular it is equivalent to prove harmonic
decomposition over $\mathbb{C}$ and over $\mathbb{R}$. The unitary trick shows also an equivalence of categories between holomorphic representations of $S L(n+1, \mathbb{C})$ and continuous representations of its real form $S U(n+1)$.

The Laplace operator $\Delta$ is invariant and the space of harmonic polynomials is an $S O$-module, which means that $f$ is harmonic if and only if $g \cdot f$ is harmonic $\forall g \in S O(V)$. The following proposition gives a geometric point of view on this basic fact. It also enlights the fact that to understand real polynomials it is useful looking at the larger space of complex ones.
Proposition 1.3. (i) Let $d \geq 2$. Given a linear form $l$, the power $l^{d}$ is harmonic if and only if $l$ is isotropic.
(ii) The space $H_{d}=\operatorname{ker} \Delta$ of harmonic polynomials of degree $d$ is spanned by powers $v^{d}$ with $v$ isotropic.
(iii) Any space $H_{d}$ is irreducible as SO-module.

Proof. Compute $\Delta\left(l^{d}\right)=d(d-1) q(l, l) l^{d-2}$, which proves (i). Regarding (ii), assume the span of $v^{d}$ with $v$ isotropic is contained in a hyperplane of $H_{d}$ with equation $g$. Then $g$ corresponds to a harmonic polynomial which vanishes over the isotropic quadric $q$, then it is divisible by $q$ and it follows $g=0$ by Lemma 1.5, which proves (ii). An alternative argument is that the span of powers $v^{d}$ with $v$ isotropic is the span of $v_{d}\left(Q_{n-1}\right)$ where $Q_{n-1}$ is the quadric of isotropic vectors and $H^{0}\left(v_{d}\left(Q_{n-1}\right), \mathcal{O}(1)\right)$ corresponds to $H^{0}\left(Q_{n-1}, \mathcal{O}(d)\right)$ which can be computed by taking cohomology of the exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}(d-2) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}(d) \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_{Q_{n-1}}(d) \longrightarrow 0
$$

and turns out to have dimension $h^{0}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}(d)\right)-h^{0}\left(\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^{n}}(d-2)\right)$, which is the same dimension of the space of harmonic polynomials of degree $d$. (iii) follows because $S O$ acts transitively on $v^{d}$ with $v$ isotropic.

Lemma 1.4. Let $f \in \mathbb{C}\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(q f)-q \Delta f=[\Delta, q] f=(4 d+2 n+2) f \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta\left(q^{k} f\right)-q^{k} \Delta f=(2 k(n+2 d+2 k-1)) q^{k-1} f \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta^{k}(q f)-q \Delta^{k} f=(2 k(n+2 d-2 k+3)) \Delta^{k-1} f \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. In order to prove (i), we may assume $f=l^{d}$. Compute
$\partial_{x}\left(q l^{d}\right)=2 x l^{d}+d q l^{d-1} l_{x}$
$\partial_{x x}\left(q l^{d}\right)=2 l^{d}+4 d x l_{x} l^{d-1}+d(d-1) q l^{d-2} l_{x}^{2}$
$q \partial_{x x} l^{d}=d(d-1) q l^{d-2} l_{x}^{2}$
so that summing over all the variables
$\Delta\left(q l^{d}\right)=2(n+1) l^{d}+4 d l^{d}+q \Delta\left(l^{d}\right)$, which proves (i).
(ii) is proved by induction on $k$, the case $k=1$ being item i). Indeed
$\Delta\left(q^{k} f\right)=\Delta q^{k-1}(q f)=q^{k-1} \Delta(q f)+q^{k-2}(4(k-1)(d+2)+2(k-1) n+2(k-1)(2 k-3))(q f)=$

$$
q^{k-1} q \Delta(f)+q^{k-1}(4 d+2 n+2+4(k-1)(d+2)+2(k-1) n+2(k-1)(2 k-3)) f
$$

(iii) is proved by induction on $k$, the case $k=1$ being item i). Indeed

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta^{k}(q f)=\Delta\left(\Delta^{k-1}(q f)=\Delta\left(q \Delta^{k-1}(f)+(4(k-1) d+2(k-1) n-2(k-1)(2 k-5)) \Delta^{k-2}(f)=\right.\right. \\
& =q \Delta^{k}(f)+(4(d-2 k+2)+2 n+2+4(k-1) d+2(k-1) n-2(k-1)(2 k-5)) \Delta^{k-1}(f)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 1.5. $\Delta(q f)=0$ if and only if $f=0$
Proof. Assume $f \neq 0$ and let $f=q^{k} f^{\prime}$ with maximal $k$. Lemma 1.4 implies $0=$ $\Delta q^{k+1} f^{\prime}=q^{k+1} \Delta f^{\prime}+c q^{k} f^{\prime}=q^{k}\left(q \Delta f^{\prime}+c f^{\prime}\right)$ for a nonzero scalar $c$. It follows that $q$ divides $f^{\prime}$, which is a contradiction.

Proposition 1.6 (Harmonic Part). For any $f$ there are unique $f_{0}$ harmonic and $f_{1}$ such that

$$
f=f_{0}+q f_{1}
$$

The polynomial $f_{0}$ is called the harmonic part of $f$.
If $q$ is real then $(\bar{f})_{0}=\overline{f_{0}}$.
If $f$ and $q$ are real then also $f_{0}$ is real.
Proof. The two subspaces $H_{d}, q \mathrm{Sym}^{d-2} V$ of $\mathrm{S} y m^{d} V$ have empty intersection by Lemma 1.5, hence by dimensional reasons there is a direct sum

$$
{\mathrm{S} y m^{d}}^{d}=H_{d} \oplus q \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{Sm}}{ }^{d-2} V
$$

We will see in ${ }^{* * *}$ that the two summands are orthogonal, so that the two summands $f_{0} \in H_{d}$ and $q f_{1} \in q \mathrm{Sym}^{d-2} V$ in the statement are unique and they correspond to two orthogonal projections. We explain now a naive way to get them. Consider the square system $\Delta f=\Delta\left(q f_{1}\right)$, in the unknown $f_{1}$. The associated homogeneous system is $\Delta\left(q f_{1}\right)=0$ which has only the zero solution by Lemma 1.5. Hence there is a solution $f_{1}$ such that $\Delta f=\Delta\left(q f_{1}\right)$ and $f_{0}=f-q f_{1}$ is harmonic. The uniqueness is now obvious. The statement on the conjugation follows from the uniqueness and also from the explicit construction.
Theorem 1.7 (Harmonic Decomposition). For any $f$ there are unique $f_{i}$ harmonic of degree $d-2 i$ such that

$$
f=\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor} q^{i} f_{i}
$$

If $q$ is real then $(\bar{f})_{i}=\overline{f_{i}}$.
If $f$ and $q$ are real then also $f_{i}$ are real. The decomposition corresponds to the splitting of $S O(V)$-modules

$$
\mathrm{Sym}^{d} V=\oplus_{i \geq 0} H_{d-2 i} .
$$

Proof. By iterating the Proposition 1.10 .
Corollary 1.8. Let $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$.

- When $d$ is odd the only homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$ in $\mathrm{Sym}^{d} \mathbb{K}^{n+1}$ which is $S O(n+1)$-invariant is zero.
- When $d$ is even the only homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$ in $\mathrm{Sym}^{d} \mathbb{K}^{n+1}$ which are $S O(n+1)$-invariant are scalar multiples of $q^{d / 2}$.

Remark 1.9. Harmonic decomposition is a multi-variable generalization of Fourier expansion. Indeed for $n=1$ each space $H_{d}$ is two dimensional, spanned by $\left(x_{0}+\right.$ $\left.i x_{1}\right)^{d},\left(x_{0}-i x_{1}\right)^{d}$ or, in real polar coordinates $x_{0}=\rho \cos \theta, x_{1}=\rho \sin \theta$, by $\rho^{d} \cos (d \theta), \rho^{d} \sin (d \theta)$. Restricting to the unit circle we get the standard Fourier expansion.

Remark 1.10. The proof of Proposition gives an algorithm to compute explicitly the harmonic decomposition of $f$.

The first step is to compute $g_{1}$ such that $\Delta\left(f-q g_{1}\right)=0$, then pose $f_{0}=f-q g_{1}$ is the harmonic part and the step can be iterated with $g_{1}$ at the place of $f$. So compute $g_{2}$ such that $\Delta\left(g_{1}-q g_{2}\right)=0$, pose $f_{1}=g_{1}-q g_{2}$. Compute $g_{3}$ such that $\Delta\left(g_{2}-q g_{3}\right)=0$, pose $f_{2}=g_{2}-q g_{3}$, and so on. At the end

$$
f=\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor} q^{i} f_{i} \quad \operatorname{deg} f_{i}=d-2 i
$$

Luckily, there is a more efficient way to compute the harmonic decomposition, due to the fact that $f_{i}$ is linear combination of $\Delta^{i} f, q \Delta^{i+1} f, \ldots, q^{d / 2-i} \Delta^{d / 2} f$ when $d$ is even and it is a linear combination of $\Delta^{i} f, q \Delta^{i+1} f, \ldots, q^{(d-1) / 2-i} \Delta^{(d-1) / 2} f$ when $d$ is odd. We will see this fact in the section on scalar products.

### 1.1. Some special cases.

Lemma 1.11. $\Delta(q f)$ is harmonic if and only if $f$ is harmonic.
Proof. If $f$ is harmonic then $\Delta^{2}(q f)=\Delta(q \Delta(f)+c f)=0$. Conversely, let $\Delta^{2}(q f)=$ 0 . Assume $\Delta(f) \neq 0$ and let $\Delta(f)=q^{k} f^{\prime}$ with $f^{\prime}$ not divisible by $q$, $\operatorname{deg} f^{\prime}=d-2-$ $2 k \geq 0$. Then $0=\Delta^{2}(q f)=\Delta(q \Delta(f))+\Delta((4 d+2 n+2) f)=\Delta\left(q^{k+1} f^{\prime}\right)+(4 d+2 n+$ 2) $q^{\bar{k}} f^{\prime}=q^{k+1} \Delta f^{\prime}+(4(k+1)(d-2-2 k)+2(k+1) n+2(k+1)(2 k+1)+4 d+2 n+2) q^{k} f^{\prime}$ which implies that $q$ divides $f^{\prime}$ which is a contradiction.

Lemma 1.12. Let $l$ be a linear form.

$$
\Delta(f l)=l \Delta f+2 \partial_{l}(f)
$$

Proof.

$$
\partial_{x x}(f l)=\left(\partial_{x x} f\right) l+2 \partial_{x} f \partial_{x} l
$$

Proposition 1.13. Let $f$ harmonic and $l$ be a linear form. Then we have the harmonic decomposition $f l=f_{0}+q f_{1}$ with $f_{1}$ harmonic.

Proof. Let $f_{1}$ such that $\Delta q f_{1}=\Delta(f l)=2 \partial_{l}(f)$. Since $\partial_{l}(f)$ is harmonic we get from Lemma 1.11 that $f_{1}$ is harmonic.

For $d=2$ we have the harmonic decomposition

$$
f=\left(f-q \frac{\Delta f}{2 n+2}\right)+q \frac{\Delta f}{2 n+2}
$$

Note if $\operatorname{deg} l=1 \Delta(q l)=(6+2 n) l$. Hence for $d=3$ the harmonic decomposition is

$$
f=\left(f-q \frac{1}{6+2 n} \Delta f\right)+q \frac{1}{6+2 n} \Delta f
$$

## 2. ExERCISES

(1) Prove that $\Delta^{i}\left(q^{k}\right)=c q^{k-i}$ for a scalar factor $c \in \mathbb{R}$.
(2) Prove that $\left[\Delta^{i}, q^{k}\right] f=\Delta^{i}\left(q^{k} f\right)-q^{k} \Delta^{i} f=* * *$.
(3) Prove that ker $\Delta^{i}=\oplus_{j=0}^{i-1} H_{d-2 j}$
(4) Prove that $m_{q}: \mathrm{Sym}^{d} V \rightarrow \mathrm{Sym}^{d+2} V$ maps $H_{d-2 i}$ to $H_{(d+2)-2(i+1)}{ }^{* * *}$
(5) $\Delta$ maps $H^{d-2 i}$ to $H_{(d-2)-2(i+1)}^{* * *}$
(6) Consider the operator $L=q \Delta: \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{S}} m^{d} V \rightarrow \mathrm{~S} y m^{d} V$, prove that the summands of harmonic decomposition are eigenspaces of $L$, with some integer eigenvalues. The kernal of $L$ is the space $H_{d}$.

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