

Integration over Singular n -chains and Stokes' Theorem

If ω is a k -form on $[0, 1]^k$, then $\omega = f(x_1, \dots, x_k)dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k$ for a unique function, $f: [0, 1]^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

We have already defined the Riemann integral of f over $[0, 1]^k$, $\int_{[0,1]^k} f$. We now define:

$$\int_{[0,1]^k} \omega = \int_{[0,1]^k} f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k = \int_{[0,1]^k} f$$

Note on notation:

$$\int_{[0,1]^k} f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k = \int_{[0,1]^k} f dx_1 \dots dx_k$$

Ex. Let $\omega = (x + y)dx \wedge dy$ on $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$

$$\int_{[0,1]^2} \omega = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) dx dy$$

We can evaluate this with Fubini's Theorem.

Def. If ω is a k -form on $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and c is a singular k -cube in A , then we define:

$$\int_c \omega = \int_{[0,1]^k} c^*(\omega).$$

Note: We have defined a singular k -cube as a map $c: [0, 1]^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. So if we have a k -form, ω , on $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, then we define:

$$\int_c \omega = \int_{[0,1]^k} c^*(\omega).$$

However, we don't need c to map $[0, 1]^k$ into \mathbb{R}^n . We can make the same definition for integration for $c': D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, where $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ and D is compact (but D is not necessarily $[0, 1]^k$).

We define:

$$\int_{c'} \omega = \int_D (c')^*(\omega)$$

Since $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ and compact, we can still use Fubini's Theorem to evaluate:

$$\int_D (c')^*(\omega).$$

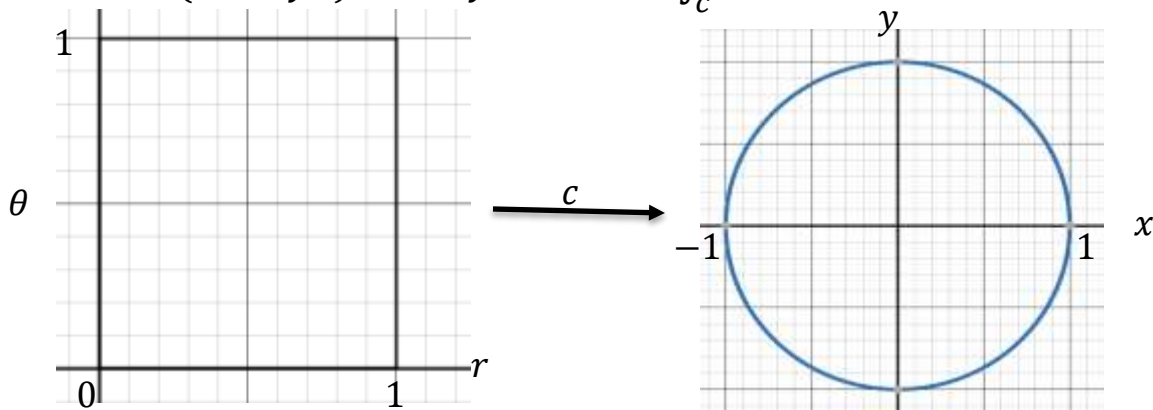
If c is a k -chain, then we write:

$$c = \sum_{i=1}^j a_i c_i$$

$$\int_c \omega = \sum_{i=1}^j a_i \int_{c_i} \omega.$$

Ex. Let $c: [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ by $c(r, \theta) = (r \cos 2\pi\theta, r \sin 2\pi\theta)$, so c maps the square $[0, 1]^2$ into the unit disk, D , in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Let $\omega = (x^2 + y^2)dx \wedge dy$ on D . Find $\int_c \omega$.



$$\int_c \omega = \int_{[0,1]^2} c^* \omega = \int_{[0,1]^2} c^*((x^2 + y^2)dx \wedge dy)$$

$$c^*((x^2 + y^2)dx \wedge dy) = [(x^2 + y^2) \circ c] c^*(dx) \wedge c^*(dy)$$

$$= (r^2 \cos^2 2\pi\theta + r^2 \sin^2 2\pi\theta) \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} d\theta \right) \wedge \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} d\theta \right)$$

$$c^*(\omega) = r^2 [(\cos 2\pi\theta)dr - (2\pi r \sin 2\pi\theta)d\theta] \wedge [(\sin 2\pi\theta)dr + (2\pi r \cos 2\pi\theta)d\theta]$$

$$= r^2 [-2\pi r \sin^2(2\pi\theta) d\theta \wedge dr + (2\pi r \cos^2(2\pi\theta))dr \wedge d\theta]$$

$$= r^2 (2\pi r (\sin^2(2\pi\theta) + \cos^2(2\pi\theta)))dr \wedge d\theta$$

$$= 2\pi r^3 dr \wedge d\theta.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_c \omega &= \int_{[0,1]^2} 2\pi r^3 dr \wedge d\theta = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 2\pi r^3 dr d\theta \\ &= \int_0^1 \left. \frac{\pi r^4}{2} \right|_0^1 d\theta = \int_0^1 \frac{\pi}{2} d\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

In a 2nd year calculus course, here's how we would have evaluated the same integral:

$$\iint_D (x^2 + y^2) dx dy.$$

We would then change to polar coordinates, so

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \quad \text{and} \quad dx dy = r dr d\theta.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_D (x^2 + y^2) dx dy &= \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^1 (r^2)r dr d\theta \\ &= \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \left. \frac{r^4}{4} \right|_0^1 d\theta = \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \frac{1}{4} d\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

Notice that if we had let $c': [0,1] \times [0,2\pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ by $c'(r, \theta) = (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (c')^*((x^2 + y^2)dx \wedge dy) &= [(x^2 + y^2) \circ c'] (c')^*(dx) \wedge (c')^*(dy) \\
 &= (r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta) \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} d\theta \right) \wedge \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} d\theta \right) \\
 &= r^2[(\cos \theta)dr - (r \sin \theta)d\theta] \wedge [(\sin \theta)dr + (r \cos \theta)d\theta] \\
 &= r^2[-r \sin^2(\theta) d\theta \wedge dr + (r \cos^2(\theta))dr \wedge d\theta] \\
 &= r^2(r(\sin^2(\theta) + \cos^2(\theta))dr \wedge d\theta) \\
 &= r^3 dr \wedge d\theta.
 \end{aligned}$$

So we have the same integral as above:

$$\int_{c'} \omega = \int_{[0,1] \times [0,2\pi]} (c')^* \omega = \int_{\theta=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^1 r^3 dr d\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Our new definition of $\int_c \omega$ is going to allow us to do line integrals and surface integrals (as well as integrals over higher dimensional regions).

Ex. Evaluate the line integral: $\int_c (x^5 dx + y^2 dy + z dz)$, where c is the curve $c(t) = (t, t^2, t^3)$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$ and $\omega = x^5 dx + y^2 dy + z dz$.

$$\int_c (x^5 dx + y^2 dy + z dz) = \int_0^1 c^* \omega.$$

$$\begin{aligned} c^*(x^5 dx + y^2 dy + z dz) &= (x^5 \circ c)c^*(dx) + (y^2 \circ c)c^*(dy) + (z \circ c)c^*(dz) \\ &= t^5 \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} dt \right) + t^4 \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} dt \right) + t^3 \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} dt \right) \\ &= t^5(dt) + t^4(2t dt) + t^3(3t^2 dt) = 6t^5 dt. \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_c (x^5 dx + y^2 dy + z dz) = \int_0^1 6t^5 dt = t^6 \Big|_0^1 = 1.$$

In a vector calculus course, that same integral might have been evaluated by:

$$\begin{aligned} c(t) &= (t, t^2, t^3) \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= 1 \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = 2t \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = 3t^2 \\ \int_c (x^5 dx + y^2 dy + z dz) &= \int_0^1 t^5 dt + t^4(2t)dt + t^3(3t^2)dt \\ &= \int_0^1 6t^5 dt = t^6 \Big|_0^1 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

The formula that one learns in second year calculus for the integral of a 2-form over a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 is very messy. If a surface, S , is parameterized by $c(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v))$, $(u, v) \in D$ and $\omega = Fdx \wedge dy + Gdy \wedge dz + Hdz \wedge dx$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \omega &= \iint_S Fdx \wedge dy + Gdy \wedge dz + Hdz \wedge dx \\ &= \iint_D \left[F(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} + G(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + H(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} \right] dudv \end{aligned}$$

where:

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix}, \text{ etc.}$$

This can be concisely summarized by:

$$\iint_S \omega = \iint_D c^*(\omega).$$

Ex. Find the surface integral:

$$\iint_S x \, dydz + y \, dx dy$$

where the surface S is given by:

$$c(u, v) = (u + v, u^2 - v^2, uv) ; (u, v) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1].$$

$$x = u + v \quad y = u^2 - v^2 \quad z = uv.$$

$$\begin{aligned} c^*(x \, dy \wedge dz + y \, dx \wedge dy) &= (x \circ c)c^*(dy) \wedge c^*(dz) + (y \circ c)c^*(dx) \wedge c^*(dy) \\ &= (u + v) \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} dv \right) \wedge \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} dv \right) \\ &\quad + (u^2 - v^2) \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} dv \right) \wedge \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} dv \right) \\ &= (u + v)(2udu - 2v dv) \wedge (vdu + u dv) \\ &\quad + (u^2 - v^2)(du + dv) \wedge (2udu - 2v dv) \\ &= (u + v)(2u^2 + 2v^2)du \wedge dv + (u^2 - v^2)(-2)(u + v)du \wedge dv \\ &= 2(u + v)[u^2 + v^2 - (u^2 - v^2)]du \wedge dv = (4uv^2 + 4v^3)du \wedge dv. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S x \, dydz + y \, dx dy &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (4uv^2 + 4v^3)du \, dv \\ &= \int_0^1 2u^2v^2 + 4uv^3 \Big|_0^1 dv = \int_0^1 2v^2 + 4v^3 dv \\ &= \frac{2}{3}v^3 + v^4 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{2}{3} + 1 = \frac{5}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

The relationship between d and ∂ shows up in Stokes' Theorem.

Stokes' Theorem: If ω is a $(k - 1)$ -form on an open set, $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and c is a k -chain in A , then:

$$\int_c d\omega = \int_{\partial c} \omega.$$

Proof: First let's prove this for $c = I^k$, so ω is a sum of $(k - 1)$ -forms of the type: $f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_l} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k$.

It is enough to show the theorem is true for each of these.

Recall that: $I_{(j,\alpha)}^k: I^k \rightarrow I^{k-1}$ by $I_{(j,\alpha)}^k(x) = (x_1, \dots, \alpha, \dots, x_k)$, where $\alpha = 0$ or 1 and is in the j^{th} place. So we have:

$$\begin{aligned} & (I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_l} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) \\ &= (f \circ I_{(j,\alpha)}^k) (I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (dx_1) \wedge \dots \wedge (I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (\widehat{dx_l}) \wedge \dots \wedge (I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (dx_k) \\ &= f(x_1, \dots, \alpha, \dots, x_k) dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_l} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k && \text{if } j = l \\ &= 0 && \text{if } j \neq l. \end{aligned}$$

This is because if $j \neq l$, then:

$$(I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (dx_j) = \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x_j} dx_j = 0.$$

Thus we have what we will call Equation #1:

If $j \neq l$, then:

$$\int_{[0,1]^{k-1}} (I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_l} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) = 0$$

If $j = l$, then:

$$= \int_{[0,1]^k} f(x_1, \dots, \alpha, \dots, x_k) dx_1 \dots dx_k.$$

This is because:

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, 1) dx dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, 1) dy dx = \int_0^1 y f(x, 1) \Big|_0^1 dx = \int_0^1 f(x, 1) dx.$$

Now let's expand:

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\partial I^k} f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{\alpha=0}^1 (-1)^{j+\alpha} \int_{I_{(j,\alpha)}^k} f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{\alpha=0}^1 (-1)^{j+\alpha} \int_{[0,1]^{k-1}} (I_{(j,\alpha)}^k)^* (f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) \end{aligned}$$

By Equation #1 we have:

$$\begin{aligned} &= (-1)^{l+1} \int_{[0,1]^k} f(x_1, \dots, 1, \dots, x_k) dx_1 \dots dx_k \\ &\quad + (-1)^l \int_{[0,1]^k} f(x_1, \dots, 0, \dots, x_k) dx_1 \dots dx_k. \end{aligned}$$

Now let's examine $\int_{I^k} d(f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{I^k} d(f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) &= \int_{I^k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_l} dx_l \wedge dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k \\ &= (-1)^{l-1} \int_{I^k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_l} dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k \\ &= (-1)^{l-1} \int_{I^k} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_l} dx_1 \dots dx_k. \end{aligned}$$

By Fubini's Theorem and the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

$$\begin{aligned}
&= (-1)^{l-1} \int_0^1 \dots \left(\int_0^1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_l} dx_l \right) dx_1 \dots \widehat{dx}_l \dots dx_k \\
&= (-1)^{l-1} \int_0^1 \dots \int_0^1 [f(x, \dots, 1, \dots, x_k) - f(x_1, \dots, 0, \dots, x_k)] dx_1 \dots \widehat{dx}_l \dots dx_k \\
&= (-1)^{l-1} \int_{[0,1]^k} f(x, \dots, 1, \dots, x_k) dx_1 \dots dx_k \\
&\quad + (-1)^l \int_{[0,1]^k} f(x, \dots, 0, \dots, x_k) dx_1 \dots dx_k .
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we have:

$$\int_{I^k} d(f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k) = \int_{\partial I^k} f dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_l \wedge \dots \wedge dx_k$$

So we can now write:

$$\int_{I^k} d\omega = \int_{\partial I^k} \omega .$$

For a singular k -cube since

$$\int_{\partial c} \omega = \int_{\partial I^k} c^* \omega$$

we have:

$$\int_c d\omega = \int_{I^k} c^* d\omega = \int_{I^k} d(c^* \omega) = \int_{\partial I^k} c^* \omega = \int_{\partial c} \omega$$

Finally, if c is a k -chain, $\sum_{i=1}^l a_i c_i$, we have:

$$\int_c d\omega = \sum_{i=1}^l a_i \int_{c_i} d\omega = \sum_{i=1}^l a_i \int_{\partial c_i} \omega = \int_{\partial c} \omega .$$

Ex. Use Stokes' Theorem to show that $\omega = \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} dx + \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} dy$ is closed but not exact on $\mathbb{R}^2 - (0, 0)$.

We already saw by direct calculation that $d\omega = 0$.

If $\omega = df$ on $\mathbb{R}^2 - (0, 0)$, then by Stokes' Theorem if

$c(t) = (\cos t, \sin t)$, $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ we get:

$$\int_c \omega = \int_c df = \int_{\partial c} f = 0; \quad \text{Since } \partial c = \phi, \text{ but:}$$

$$\int_c df = \int_{\partial c} \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} dx + \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} dy$$

$$c^*(\omega) = (-\sin t)(-\sin t)dt + (\cos t)(\cos t)dt = dt$$

$$\int_c \omega = \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi \neq 0$$

So ω is not exact on $\mathbb{R}^2 - (0, 0)$.

Ex. Evaluate $\int_c \omega$ where c is the unit circle and:

$$\omega = ((\sin x) e^x - \cos y)dx + (x \sin y + \cos^3 y)dy.$$

By Stokes' Theorem:

$$\int_c \omega = \int_D d\omega \quad \text{where } \partial D = c \quad (\text{i.e. } D \text{ is the unit disk}).$$

$d\omega = \sin y dy \wedge dx + \sin y dx \wedge dy = 0$, so we get:

$$\int_c \omega = \int_D 0 = 0.$$