

# Lecture 52: Why Stokes theorem works.

Last time:

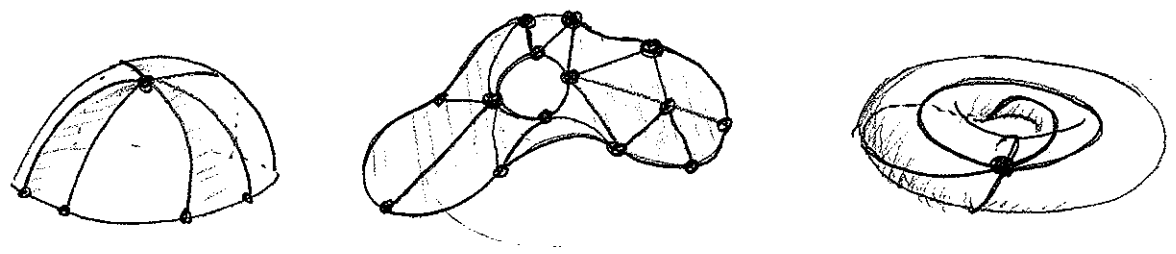
Stokes Theorem:  $M$  an  $n$ -manifold,  $\alpha$  an  $(n-1)$ -form on  $M$ . Then  $\int_{\partial M} \alpha = \int_M d\alpha$ .

[Review heuristic and physical justifications given for our variants of this. But now's the time to give a mathematical justification.]

Focus on surfaces ( $n=2$ ) just so we can visualize things easily. Turns out, the key case is

④ Stokes for  $\Delta$ s: Let  $T = \begin{matrix} (0,1) \\ \nearrow \\ \vec{0} \\ \searrow \\ (1,0) \end{matrix}$  and  $\alpha$  a 1-form on  $T$ . Then  $\int_{\partial T} \alpha = \int_T d\alpha$ .

Consider a general surface  $S$ . We can break it into  $\Delta$ s (with curved sides), call them  $T_1, \dots, T_K$



[Here edges are match up to other edges.]

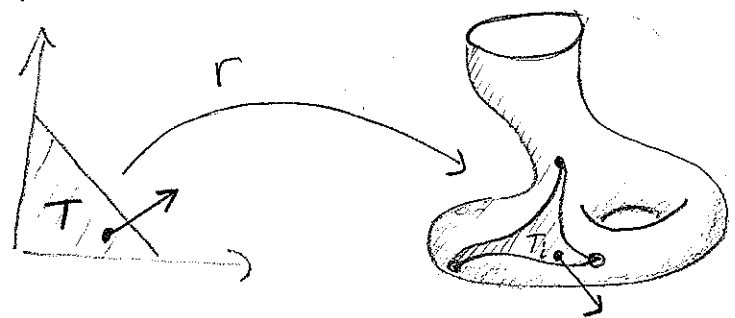
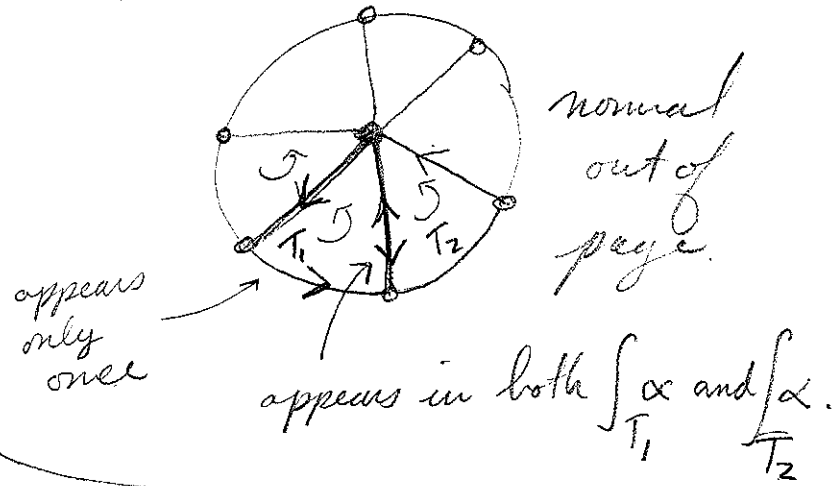
Now if  $\alpha$  is a 1-form on  $S$ , suppose the Stokes theorem holds for each  $T_i$ . Then

$$\int_S d\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^k \int_{T_i} d\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^k \int_{\partial T_i} \alpha = \int_S \alpha$$

By assumption

Since interior edges all appear twice with opposite orientations:

Now, the presumption that  $\int_{T_i} d\alpha = \int_{\partial T_i} \alpha$  actually follows from  $\textcircled{*}$  by choosing a param  $r: T \rightarrow T_i$



Then  $\int_{\partial T_i} \alpha = \int_{\partial T} r^*(\alpha)$

where  $r^*(\alpha)(\vec{v}) = \alpha_{r(u,v)}(D_r(\vec{v}))$   
in particular  $r^*(\alpha)(1,0) = \alpha(T_u)$   
etc.

Also define  $r^*(d\alpha)$  by  $r^*(d\alpha)(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = d\alpha(Dr(\vec{v}), Dr(\vec{w}))$

More concretely,  $r^*(d\alpha) = d\alpha(T_u, T_v) du dv$

So

$$\int_{\partial T_i} \alpha = \int_{\partial T} r^*(\alpha) \stackrel{\text{by } \star}{=} \int_T d(r^*(\alpha)) \stackrel{\text{omitted calculation}}{=} \int_T r^*(d\alpha) = \int_{T_i} d\alpha$$

as desired.

Proof of  $\star$  Write  $\alpha = \underbrace{F_1 dx}_{\alpha_1} + \underbrace{F_2 dy}_{\alpha_2} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$

if we know  $\int_{\partial T} \alpha_i = \int_T d\alpha_i$  then we'll done since

$$\int_{\partial T} \alpha = \int_{\partial T} \alpha_1 + \int_{\partial T} \alpha_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_T d\alpha = \int_T d\alpha_1 + \int_T d\alpha_2$$

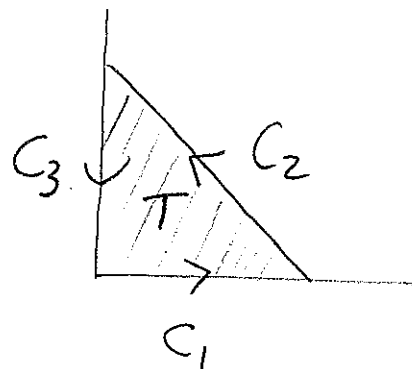
Lets do  $\alpha_2 = F_2 dy$ . Then  $d\alpha_2 = \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} dx dy$  and

so

$$\int_T d\alpha_2 = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y} \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} dx dy = \int_0^1 F_2(x, y) \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1-y} dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 F(1-y, y) dy - \int_0^1 F(0, y) dy + 0$$

$$= \int_{C_2} \alpha_2 + \int_{C_3} \alpha_2 + \int_{C_1} \alpha_2 = \int_{\partial T} \alpha_2$$



as needed. The case of  $\alpha_1$  is similar.

Closed and Exact Forms: [Recall conservative vector fields.]

An  $n$ -form  $\alpha$  is closed if  $d\alpha = 0$

it is exact if  $\alpha = d\beta$ .

Note: 1) Exact forms are closed, since  $d\alpha = d(d\beta) = 0$ .

2) If  $\alpha = F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz$ , consider  $\vec{F} = (F_1, F_2, F_3)$

Then  $\alpha$  is exact, i.e.  $\alpha = df$   $\iff$   $\vec{F} = \text{grad } f$

$\alpha$  is closed  $\iff$  curl  $\vec{F} = \vec{0}$  everywhere.