

Chapter 19

Stokes' theorem

We will next discuss a very beautiful result called Stokes' formula. This is actually a theorem, but we will not prove it, only state the result and discuss its applications. So for us it is only a formula, but still deep and beautiful.

- A **submanifold** \mathcal{S} is a subset of points in \mathcal{M} such that any point in \mathcal{S} has an open neighbourhood in \mathcal{M} for which there is some chart where $(n - m)$ coordinates vanish. \mathcal{S} is then m -dimensional. \square
- Suppose \mathcal{U} is a region of an oriented manifold \mathcal{M} . The **boundary** $\partial\mathcal{U}$ of \mathcal{U} is a submanifold of dimension $n - 1$ which divides \mathcal{M} in such a way that any curve joining a point in \mathcal{U} with a point in \mathcal{U}^c must contain a point in $\partial\mathcal{U}$.

Now suppose \mathcal{U} has an oriented smooth boundary $\partial\mathcal{U}$. Then $\partial\mathcal{U}$ is automatically an oriented manifold, by considering the restrictions of the charts on \mathcal{U} to $\partial\mathcal{U}$.

- Consider a smooth $(n - 1)$ form in \mathcal{M} . **Stokes' formula** says that

$$\int_{\mathcal{U}} d\omega = \int_{\partial\mathcal{U}} \omega. \quad (19.1)$$

If \mathcal{M} is a compact manifold with boundary $\partial\mathcal{M}$, this formula can be applied to all of \mathcal{M} . If ω vanishes outside some compact region we can again set $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{M}$. Also, \mathcal{U} can be a submanifold in another manifold, like a 2-surface in a 3-manifold. \square

Example: Let $\mathcal{U} = [0, 1]$. Then a function $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a 0-form, and $df = f'(x)dx$ is a 1-form. Take the orientation of \mathcal{M} to be from 0 to 1. Then $\partial\mathcal{M}$ consists of the points $x = 0$ and $x = 1$,

and Stokes' formula says that

$$\int_{\mathcal{M}} df = \int_{\partial\mathcal{M}} f$$

i.e.
$$\int_0^1 f'(x) dx = f(1) - f(0). \quad (19.2)$$

Example: Consider a 2-d disk D in \mathbb{R}^2 , with boundary ∂D . Take a 1-form A . Then Stokes' formula says

$$\int_{\partial D} A = \int_D dA. \quad (19.3)$$

Let us see this equation in a chart. We can write

$$\begin{aligned} A &= A_i dx^i \\ dA &= \partial_i A_j dx^i \wedge dx^j \end{aligned} \quad (19.4)$$

A evaluated on ∂D can be written as $A \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right)$ where $\frac{d}{dt}$ is tangent to ∂D . So we can write $A \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) = A_i \frac{dx^i}{dt} dt$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\partial D} A_i dx^i &= \int_D \partial_i A_j dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \int_D (\partial_1 A_2 - \partial_2 A_1) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \\ &= \int_{\varphi(D)} (\partial_1 A_2 - \partial_2 A_1) d^2x. \end{aligned} \quad (19.5)$$

Similarly for higher forms on higher dimensional manifolds.

- **Gauss' divergence theorem** is a special case of Stokes' theorem. Before getting to Gauss' theorem, we need to make a new definition. Consider an n -form $\omega \neq 0$ on an n -dimensional manifold. We can write this in a chart as

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= f dx^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^n \\ &= \frac{1}{n!} f \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n} dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{\mu_n}. \end{aligned} \quad (19.6)$$

Given a vector field v , its contraction with ω is

$$\begin{aligned} \iota_v \omega = \omega(v, \dots) &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \omega_{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_n} v^{\mu_1} dx^{\mu_2} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_n} \\ &= f v^1 dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n - f v^2 dx^1 \wedge dx^3 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (19.7)$$

Then we can calculate

$$\begin{aligned} d(\iota_v \omega) = d\omega(v, \dots) &= \partial_1(f v^1) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n \\ &\quad + \partial_2(f v^2) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n \\ &\quad + \dots + \partial_n(f v^n) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n \\ &= \partial_\mu(f v^\mu) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n \\ &= \frac{1}{f} \partial_\mu(f v^\mu) \omega. \end{aligned} \quad (19.8)$$

In particular, if ω is the volume form, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= \frac{\sqrt{|g|}}{n!} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n} dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_n}, \\ d(\iota_v(\text{vol})) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu(v^\mu \sqrt{|g|})(\text{vol}). \end{aligned} \quad (19.9)$$

- This is called the **divergence** of the vector field v .

There is another expression for the divergence. Remember that given a vector field v , we can define a one-form, also called v , with components defined with the help of the metric,

$$v_\mu = g_{\mu\mu'} v^{\mu'} \quad (19.10)$$

Consider $\star v$, which has components

$$\begin{aligned} (\star v)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-1}} &= \sqrt{|g|} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-1} \mu} g^{\mu\mu'} v_{\mu'} \\ &= \sqrt{|g|} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-1} \mu} v^\mu. \end{aligned} \quad (19.11)$$

$$\Rightarrow \star v = \frac{\sqrt{|g|}}{(n-1)!} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-1} \mu} v^\mu dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_{n-1}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} d\star v &= \partial_{\mu_n} \left(\frac{\sqrt{|g|}}{(n-1)!} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-1} \mu} v^\mu \right) dx^{\mu_n} \wedge dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_{n-1}} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-1} \mu} \left(\partial_{\mu_n} \left(\sqrt{|g|} v^\mu \right) \right) dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_n} \end{aligned} \quad (19.12)$$

Both μ and μ_n must be different from $(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{n-1})$, so $\mu = \mu_n$. Thus in each term of the sum, the choice of $(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{n-1})$ automatically selects $\mu_n (= \mu)$, so a sum over (μ_1, \dots, μ_n) overcounts n times. So we can write

$$\begin{aligned} d\star v &= \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n} \left(\partial_\mu \left(\sqrt{|g|} v^\mu \right) \right) dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_n} \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu \left(\sqrt{|g|} v^\mu \right) (vol). \end{aligned} \quad (19.13)$$

Since this is an n -form in n dimensions, we can calculate from here that

$$\star d\star v = \frac{(-1)^{n+s-1}}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu \left(\sqrt{|g|} v^\mu \right), \quad (19.14)$$

where as before s is the signature of the manifold, i.e. the number of negative entries in the metric in a locally diagonal form.

Let us now go back to Stokes' formula. Take a region \mathcal{U} of \mathcal{M} which is covered by a single chart and has an orientable boundary $\partial\mathcal{U}$ as before. Then we find

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{U}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu \left(\sqrt{|g|} v^\mu \right) (vol) &= \int_{\mathcal{U}} d(\iota_v(vol)) \\ &= \int_{\partial\mathcal{U}} \iota_v(vol). \end{aligned} \quad (19.15)$$

Now suppose b is a 1-form normal to $\partial\mathcal{U}$, i.e. $b\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right) = 0$ for any vector $\frac{d}{dt}$ tangent to $\partial\mathcal{U}$, and α is an $(n-1)$ -form such that $b \wedge \alpha = (vol)$. Since all n -forms are proportional, α always exists. For the same reason, if $b \neq 0$ on $\partial\mathcal{U}$, it is unique up to a factor. And $b \neq 0$ on $\partial\mathcal{U}$ because $\partial\mathcal{U}$ is defined as the submanifold where one coordinate is constant, usually set to zero, so that one component of $\frac{d}{dt}$ vanishes at any point on $\partial\mathcal{U}$, and therefore the corresponding component of b can be chosen to be non-zero.

So b is unique up to a rescaling $b \rightarrow b' = fb$ for some nonvanishing function f . But we can always scale $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha' = f^{-1}\alpha$ so that $b' \wedge \alpha' = b \wedge \alpha$. Further, if we restrict α to $\partial\mathcal{U}$, i.e. if α acts only on tangent

vectors to $\partial\mathcal{U}$, we find that α is an $(n - 1)$ -form on an $(n - 1)$ -dimensional manifold, so it is unique up to scaling. Therefore, α is unique once b is given. Finally, for any vector v ,

$$\iota_v(\text{vol})\Big|_{\partial\mathcal{U}} = \iota_v(b \wedge \alpha)\Big|_{\partial\mathcal{U}} \quad (19.16)$$

is an $(n - 1)$ -form on $\partial\mathcal{U}$ which acts only on vectors tangent to $\partial\mathcal{U}$. Then

$$\iota_v(b \wedge \alpha)\Big|_{\partial\mathcal{U}} = b(v)\alpha\Big|_{\partial\mathcal{U}} \quad (19.17)$$

because all terms of the form $b \wedge \iota_v\alpha$ gives zero for any choice of $(n - 1)$ vectors on $\partial\mathcal{U}$.

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{U}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu(\sqrt{|g|}v^\mu)(\text{vol}) &= \int_{\partial\mathcal{U}} b(v)\alpha \\ &= \int_{\partial\mathcal{U}} (n_\mu v^\mu) \alpha. \end{aligned} \quad (19.18)$$

Usually b is taken to have norm 1. Then α is the volume form on $\partial\mathcal{U}$, and we can write

$$\int_{\mathcal{U}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu(\sqrt{|g|}v^\mu)(\text{vol}) = \int_{\partial\mathcal{U}} (n_\mu v^\mu) \sqrt{|g_{(\partial\mathcal{U})}|} d^{n-1}x. \quad (19.19)$$