

Electromagnetics and Differential Forms

Stokes' Theorem

In today's lecture we talk about:

- **Boundary operator**
- Stokes' theorem

The boundary of a Euclidean simplex

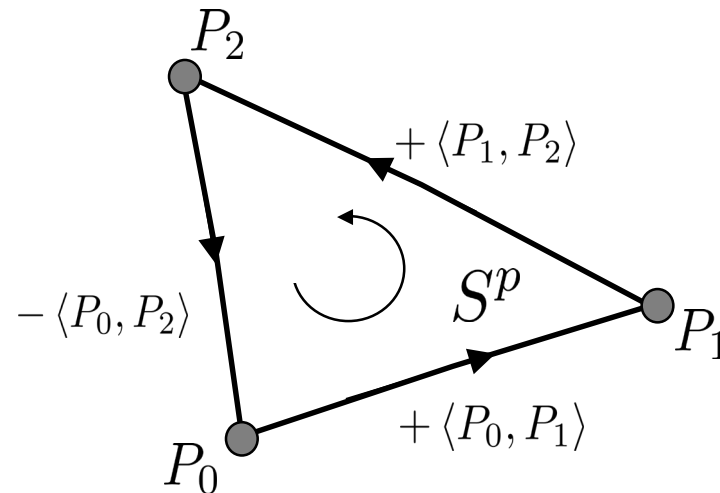
Let $S^p := \langle P_0, \dots, P_p \rangle$ be a simplex in \mathbb{R}^n .

The Euclidean $(p - 1)$ - chain

$$\partial S^p := \sum_{k=0}^p (-1)^k \langle P_0, \dots, P_{k-1}, P_{k+1}, \dots, P_p \rangle$$

is called the **boundary** of S^p .

A consistent orientation for the boundary is induced by the orientation of the simplex.



$$\begin{aligned} \partial \langle P_0, P_1, P_2 \rangle = & \\ & + \langle P_1, P_2 \rangle \\ & - \langle P_0, P_2 \rangle \\ & + \langle P_0, P_1 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

The boundary of a simplex on a manifold

Let \mathcal{S}^p be a p -simplex on a n -dimensional manifold M .

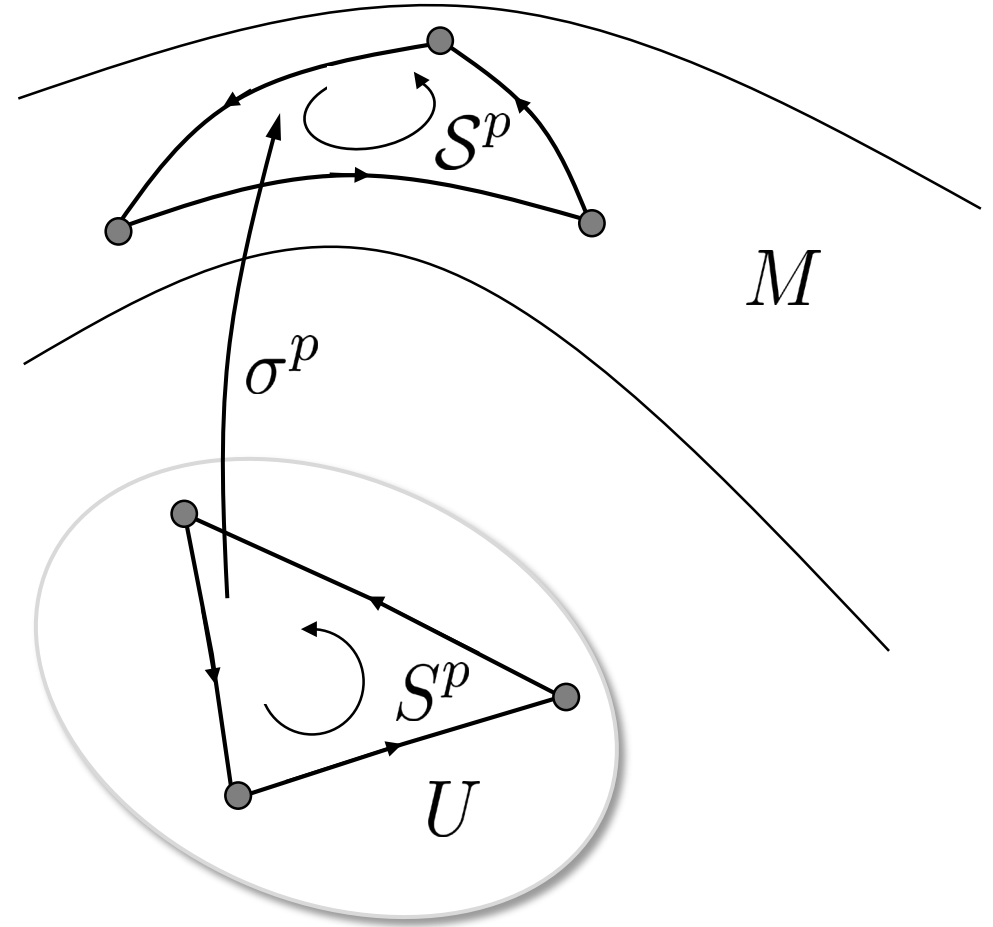
Let (S^p, U, σ^p) be a representation of \mathcal{S}^p .

Define the boundary of \mathcal{S}^p by

$$\partial \mathcal{S}^p := \sigma^p (\partial S^p)$$

The boundary $\partial \mathcal{S}^p$ is a $(p - 1)$ -chain on M .

This definition is independent of the representation.



The boundary operator for chains

The boundary operator is defined as

$$\partial : \mathcal{C}_p(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_{p-1}(M)$$
$$K = \sum_i \lambda_i \mathcal{S}_i^p \mapsto \partial K = \sum_i \lambda_i \partial \mathcal{S}_i^p$$

The operator is linear

$$\partial(K + \alpha K') = \partial K + \alpha \partial K' \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \forall K, K' \in \mathcal{C}_p(M)$$

space of p -chains
over M .

The operator commutes with smooth injective maps $\psi : M \rightarrow N$

$$\partial \psi(\mathcal{S}^p) = \partial \psi(\sigma^p(S^p)) = \partial \tilde{\sigma}^p(S^p) = \tilde{\sigma}^p(\partial S^p) = \psi(\sigma^p(\partial S^p)) = \psi(\partial \mathcal{S}^p)$$

Complex property of the boundary operator

The boundary of a boundary is zero!

$$\partial \circ \partial = 0$$

We already saw :

$$d \circ d = 0$$

We will see that these statements, viewed from a more abstract perspective, are equivalent.

The proof follows the following idea:

For a Euclidean simplex S^p , the terms

$$\langle P_0, \dots, P_{j-1}, P_{j+1}, \dots, P_{k-1}, P_{k+1}, \dots, P_p \rangle$$

appear twice with opposite signs in the sum. $\Rightarrow \partial \circ \partial S^p = 0$

\Rightarrow Generalize result with properties of boundary operator.

In today's lecture we talk about:

- Boundary operator
- **Stokes' theorem**

Stokes' theorem for integration on chains [9, p. 109]

Let ω be a $(p - 1)$ -form on a n -dimensional manifold M and K a p -chain on M .

If ω is continuously differentiable on M , then it holds

One can choose here the smallest open subset of M that contains \bar{K} . Such a set always exist due to the definition of simplices on M .

$$\int_K d\omega = \int_{\partial K} \omega$$

Remark:

It is important for ω to **not** have any singularities on K , even though only the boundary appears in the integral.

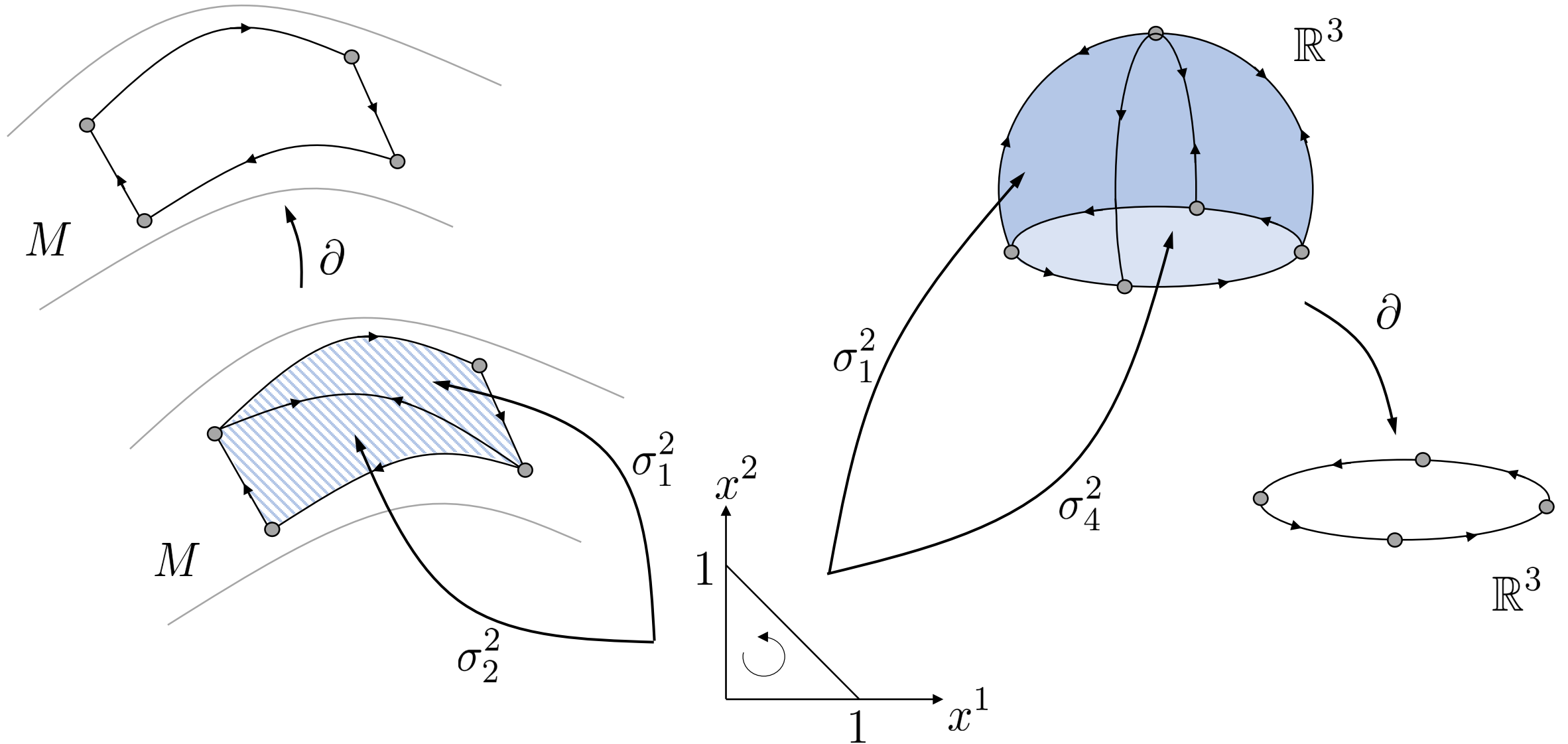
Remarks on Stokes' theorem

1. Problems can occur for infinite chains¹⁾.
Here one should additionally assume that ω has a **compact support** and that the chain is **locally finite**²⁾.
2. There is a more general version for integration over so-called regular domains on manifolds. See [4, p. 283].
3. Of course one does not need to calculate over all the simplices of the chain explicitly, if the domain and the boundary can be parametrized in a better fashion!
→ **Watch that orientations of K and ∂K are consistent!**

¹⁾ Finite chain: consists of finitely many simplices \mathcal{S}_i

²⁾ Locally finite chain: every compact subset of M meets only finitely many simplices \mathcal{S}_i .
On a compact manifold every locally finite chain is finite.

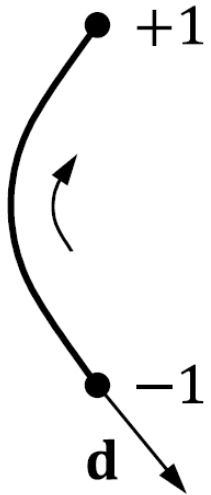
Intuitive representation of integration domains



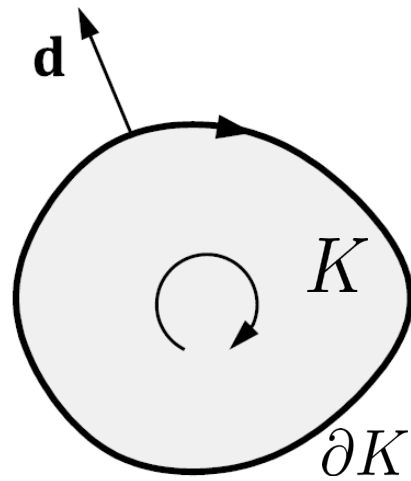
Intuitive orientation convention

The orientations of K and ∂K are connected by

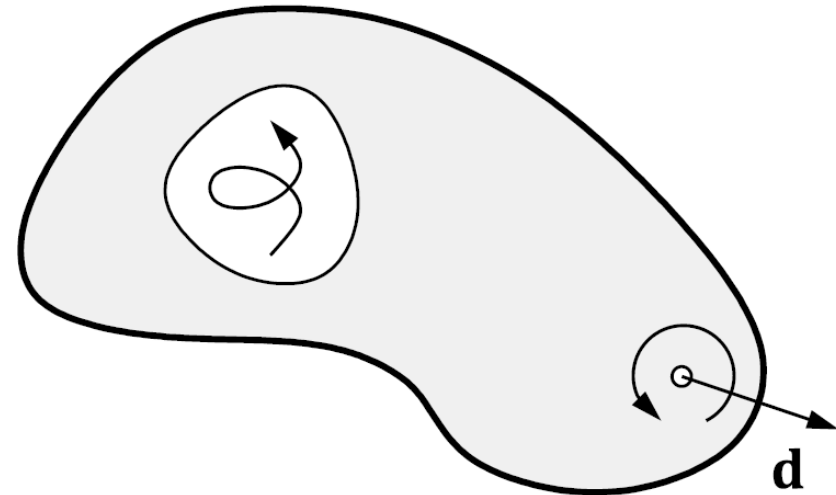
$$\text{Orientation of } K \sim \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Transverse direction } d \\ \text{from in} \rightarrow \text{out} \end{array} , \text{ Orientation of } \partial K \right)$$



(a)



(b)



(c)

Example: Fundamental theorem

Let M be a n -dimensional differentiable manifold.

Let $f \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ be a smooth function on M .

Let C be a path on the manifold starting at $P_1 \in M$ and ending at $P_2 \in M$.

w.l.o.g C can be represented as 1-simplex $(\langle 0, 1 \rangle, U, \sigma^1)$.

$$\Rightarrow \partial C = \sigma^1(\partial \langle 0, 1 \rangle) = \sigma^1(\langle 1 \rangle - \langle 0 \rangle) = \sigma^1(\langle 1 \rangle) - \sigma^1(\langle 0 \rangle) = P_2 - P_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C df = \int_{\partial C} f = f(P_2) - f(P_1)$$

Interpret f as 0-form.
Integration of 0-form over
0-chain (point set) is a point
evaluation.

Example: Fundamental theorem in \mathbb{R}^n

Let now $M = (\mathbb{R}^n, \cdot)$. We may then write

$$\int_C \text{grad } f \cdot ds = \int_C df = \int_{\partial C} f = f(P_2) - f(P_1)$$

The line integral of a gradient field depends only on the end points

Let $M = \mathbb{R}$ and f continuously differentiable such that $df = f' dx$
If then $C = [a, b]$ we get the fundamental theorem of real calculus :

$$\int_a^b f' dx = f(b) - f(a)$$

Example: Gauss' theorem in $(\mathbb{R}^3, \cdot, \times)$

Let $M = \mathbb{R}^3$ and b a smooth vector field on an open set, containing the closure of the volume $V \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.

With ${}^2b \in \mathcal{F}^2(M)$ and $d^2b = {}^3\text{div } b \in \mathcal{F}^3(M)$ we obtain **Gauss' theorem** from classical vector analysis :

$$\int_V \text{div } b \, d\tau = \int_V d^2b = \int_{\partial V} {}^2b = \int_{\partial V} b \cdot dA$$

It is actually sufficient to consider continuously differentiable vector fields.

Example: Stokes' theorem in $(\mathbb{R}^3, \cdot, \times)$

Let $M = \mathbb{R}^3$ and a a smooth vector field on an open set, containing the closure of the surface $A \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.

With ${}^1a \in \mathcal{F}^1(M)$ and $d^1a = {}^2(\mathbf{curl} a) \in \mathcal{F}^2(M)$ we obtain **Stokes' theorem** from classical vector analysis :

$$\int_A \mathbf{curl} a \cdot dA = \int_A d^1a = \int_{\partial A} {}^1a = \int_{\partial A} a \cdot ds$$

It is actually sufficient to consider continuously differentiable vector fields.

Maxwell's equations in terms of differential forms

In \mathbb{R}^3 we formulate Maxwell's equations with the electromagnetic forms.
Time t is treated as an additional parameter.

$$\mathcal{E} = {}^1E$$

$$\mathcal{B} = {}^2B$$

$$\mathcal{Q} = {}^3\rho$$

$$\mathcal{D} = {}^2D$$

$$\mathcal{H} = {}^1H$$

$$\mathcal{J} = {}^2J$$

Faraday's law
of induction

$$d \mathcal{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathcal{B}$$

$$d \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{Q}$$

Gauss's law

Ampère's
circuital law

$$d \mathcal{H} = \mathcal{J} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathcal{D}$$

$$d \mathcal{B} = 0$$

Gauss's law
for magnetism

Maxwell's equations in integral form

We can use Stokes' theorem to write Maxwell's equations in an integral form:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{E} = {}^1 E & \mathcal{B} = {}^2 B & \mathcal{Q} = {}^3 \rho \\ \mathcal{D} = {}^2 D & \mathcal{H} = {}^1 H & \mathcal{J} = {}^2 J \end{array}$$

Faraday's law
of induction

$$\int_{\partial A} \mathcal{E} = - \frac{d}{dt} \int_A \mathcal{B}$$

$$\int_{\partial V} \mathcal{D} = \int_V \mathcal{Q}$$

Gauss's law

Ampère's
circuital law

$$\int_{\partial A} \mathcal{H} = \int_A \mathcal{J} + \frac{d}{dt} \int_A \mathcal{D}$$

$$\int_{\partial V} \mathcal{B} = 0$$

Gauss's law
for magnetism

Literature

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