

MATH 750 NOTES

INTEGRATION ON CHAINS

MARIO L. GUTIERREZ ABED

ALGEBRAIC PRELIMINARIES

Definition. If V is a vector space (over \mathbb{R}), we will denote the k -fold product $V \times \cdots \times V$ by V^k . A function $T: V^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called **multilinear** if it is linear in each coordinate, that is, if for each i with $1 \leq i \leq k$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(v_1, \dots, v_i + v'_i, \dots, v_k) &= T(v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_k) + T(v_1, \dots, v'_i, \dots, v_k), \\ T(v_1, \dots, \alpha v_i, \dots, v_k) &= \alpha T(v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_k). \end{aligned}$$

A multilinear function $T: V^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **k -tensor** on V and the set of all k -tensors, which we denote by $\mathfrak{J}^k(V)$, becomes a vector space (over \mathbb{R}) if for $S, T \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ we define

$$\begin{aligned} (S + T)(v_1, \dots, v_k) &= S(v_1, \dots, v_k) + T(v_1, \dots, v_k) \\ (\alpha S)(v_1, \dots, v_k) &= \alpha \cdot S(v_1, \dots, v_k). \end{aligned}$$

There is also an operation connecting the various spaces $\mathfrak{J}^k(V)$:

If $S \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$ and $T \in \mathfrak{J}^\ell(V)$, then we define the **tensor product** $S \otimes T \in \mathfrak{J}^{k+\ell}(V)$ by

$$S \otimes T(v_1, \dots, v_k, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_{k+\ell}) = S(v_1, \dots, v_k) \cdot T(v_{k+1}, \dots, v_{k+\ell}).$$

Note that the order of the factors S and T is crucial here since $S \otimes T$ and $T \otimes S$ are far from equal. ★

Remark: Note that $\mathfrak{J}^1(V)$ is just the algebraic dual space V^* . The operation \otimes allows us to express the other vector spaces $\mathfrak{J}^k(V)$ in terms of $\mathfrak{J}^1(V)$. Note also that the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \in \mathfrak{J}^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is a 2-tensor.

Theorem 1. Let v_1, \dots, v_n be a basis for V , and let $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n$ be the dual basis $\varphi_i(v_j) = \delta_{ij}$. Then the set of all k -fold tensor products

$$\varphi_{i_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \varphi_{i_k} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i_1, \dots, i_k \leq n$$

1

is a basis for $\mathfrak{J}^k(V)$, which therefore has dimension n^k .

Remark: One important construction, familiar for the case of dual spaces, can also be made for tensors. If $f: V \rightarrow W$ is a linear transformation, then we can define another linear transformation $f^*: \mathfrak{J}^k(W) \rightarrow \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$ by

$$f^*T(v_1, \dots, v_k) = T(f(v_1), \dots, f(v_k))$$

for $T \in \mathfrak{J}^k(W)$ and $v_1, \dots, v_k \in V$. It is easy to verify that

$$f^*(S \otimes T) = f^*S \otimes f^*T.$$

Theorem 2. If T is an inner product on V , then there is a basis v_1, \dots, v_n for V such that $T(v_i, v_j) = \delta_{ij}$ (such a basis is called **orthonormal** with respect to T). Consequently there is an isomorphism $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow V$ such that $T(f(x), f(y)) = \langle x, y \rangle$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. In other words, $f^*T = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$.

Definition. A k -tensor $\omega \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$ is called **alternating** if

$$\omega(v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_k) = -\omega(v_1, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_k)$$

for all $v_1, \dots, v_k \in V$. (Note that in this equation v_i and v_j are interchanged and all other v 's are left fixed.) The set of all alternating k -tensors is clearly a subspace $\Lambda^k(V)$ of $\mathfrak{J}^k(V)$. ★

How do we turn any tensor into an alternating tensor? The answer is in the following definition:

Definition. If $T \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$, then we define the **alternator** of T , denoted $\text{Alt}(T)$, by

$$\text{Alt}(T)(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} \text{sgn}(\sigma) \cdot T(v_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, v_{\sigma(k)}),$$

where S_k is the set of all permutations of the numbers from 1 to k . ★

Theorem 3. We have the following results:

- 1) If $T \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$, then $\text{Alt}(T) \in \Lambda^k(V)$.
- 2) If $\omega \in \Lambda^k(V)$, then $\text{Alt}(\omega) = \omega$.
- 3) If $T \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$, then $\text{Alt}(\text{Alt}(T)) = \text{Alt}(T)$.

Remark: To determine the dimension of $\Lambda^k(V)$, we would like to have a theorem analogous to *Theorem 1*. Of course, note that if $\omega \in \Lambda^k(V)$ and $\eta \in \Lambda^\ell(V)$, then $\omega \otimes \eta$ is usually not in $\Lambda^{k+\ell}(V)$ (in other words, this tensor product may or may not result in an alternating tensor). Hence, we define a new product as follows:

Definition. The *wedge product* $\omega \wedge \eta \in \Lambda^{k+\ell}(V)$ is defined by

$$\omega \wedge \eta = \frac{(k+\ell)!}{k! \ell!} \text{Alt}(\omega \otimes \eta).$$

(The reason for the strange coefficient will appear later.)

★

Proposition 1. Let $\omega \in \Lambda^k(V)$, $\eta \in \Lambda^\ell(V)$, and let α be a scalar. Then the wedge product has the following properties:

$$\begin{aligned} (\omega_1 + \omega_2) \wedge \eta &= \omega_1 \wedge \eta + \omega_2 \wedge \eta, \\ \omega \wedge (\eta_1 + \eta_2) &= \omega \wedge \eta_1 + \omega \wedge \eta_2, \\ \alpha \omega \wedge \eta &= \omega \wedge \alpha \eta = \alpha(\omega \wedge \eta), \\ \omega \wedge \eta &= (-1)^{k\ell} \eta \wedge \omega, \\ f^*(\omega \wedge \eta) &= f^*(\omega) \wedge f^*(\eta). \end{aligned}$$

Remark: The equation $(\omega \wedge \eta) \wedge \theta = \omega \wedge (\eta \wedge \theta)$ is also true but it requires more work. It is presented in the proposition below along with some other properties:

Proposition 2. We have the following results:

1) If $S \in \mathfrak{J}^k(V)$, $T \in \mathfrak{J}^\ell(V)$, and $\text{Alt}(S) = 0$, then

$$\text{Alt}(S \otimes T) = \text{Alt}(T \otimes S) = 0.$$

2) For any tensors ω , η , θ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Alt}(\text{Alt}(\omega \otimes \eta) \otimes \theta) &= \text{Alt}(\omega \otimes \eta \otimes \theta) \\ &= \text{Alt}(\omega \otimes \text{Alt}(\eta \otimes \theta)). \end{aligned}$$

3) If $\omega \in \Lambda^k(V)$, $\eta \in \Lambda^\ell(V)$, and $\theta \in \Lambda^m(V)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} (\omega \wedge \eta) \wedge \theta &= \omega \wedge (\eta \wedge \theta) \\ &= \frac{(k+\ell+m)!}{k! \ell! m!} \text{Alt}(\omega \otimes \eta \otimes \theta). \end{aligned}$$

Remark: Now we have gathered the tools necessary to craft a theorem analogous to *Theorem 1* in order to determine the dimension of $\Lambda^k(V)$.

Theorem 4. *If v_1, \dots, v_n is a basis for the vector space V , with dual basis $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n$, then the set of all*

$$\varphi_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \varphi_{i_k} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \dots \leq i_k \leq n$$

is a basis for $\Lambda^k(V)$, which therefore has dimension

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

Remark: If V has dimension n , then it follows from *Theorem 4* that $\Lambda^n(V)$ has dimension 1. Thus all alternating n -tensors on V are multiples of any nonzero one. Since the determinant is an example of such a member of $\Lambda^n(\mathbb{R}^n)$, it is not surprising to find it in the following theorem:

Theorem 5. *Let v_1, \dots, v_n be a basis for the vector space V , and let $\omega \in \Lambda^n(V)$. If $w_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij} v_j$ are n vectors in V , then*

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(w_1, \dots, w_n) &= \omega \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{1j} v_j, \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{nj} v_j \right) \\ &= \det(\alpha_{ij}) \cdot \omega(v_1, \dots, v_n). \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Define $\eta \in \mathfrak{J}^n(\mathbb{R}^n)$ by

$$\eta((\alpha_{11}, \dots, \alpha_{1n}), \dots, (\alpha_{n1}, \dots, \alpha_{nn})) = \omega \left(\sum \alpha_{1j} v_j, \dots, \sum \alpha_{nj} v_j \right).$$

Clearly $\eta \in \Lambda^n(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Thus $\eta = \lambda \cdot \det$, for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, and furthermore,

$$\lambda = \eta(e_1, \dots, e_n) = \omega(v_1, \dots, v_n). \quad \square$$

Remark: This theorem shows that a nonzero $w \in \Lambda^n(V)$ splits all the bases of V into two disjoint groups:

- those with $\omega(v_1, \dots, v_n) > 0$,
- and those for which $\omega(v_1, \dots, v_n) < 0$.

If v_1, \dots, v_n and w_1, \dots, w_n are two bases and $A = (\alpha_{ij})$ is defined by $w_i = \sum_j \alpha_{ij} v_j$, then v_1, \dots, v_n and w_1, \dots, w_n are in the same group iff $\det(A) > 0$.

This criterion is independent of ω and can always be used to divide the bases of V into two disjoint groups. Either of these two groups is called an **orientation** for V . The orientation to which a basis v_1, \dots, v_n belongs is denoted $[v_1, \dots, v_n]$ and the other orientation is denoted $-[v_1, \dots, v_n]$. In \mathbb{R}^n we define the **usual orientation** to be $[e_1, \dots, e_n]$.

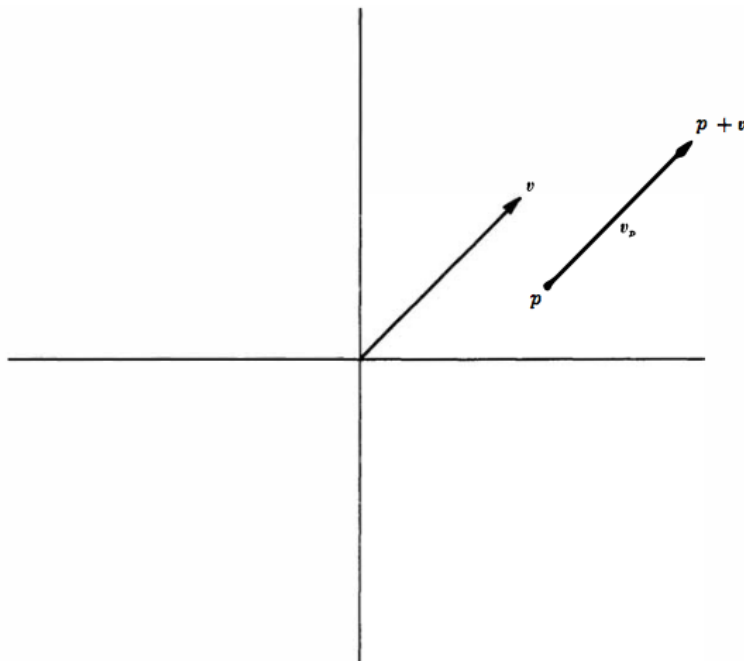
FIELDS & FORMS

Definition. If $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the set of all pairs (p, v) , for $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, is denoted \mathbb{R}_p^n , and called the *tangent space* of \mathbb{R}^n at p . ★

Remark 1: This set is made into a vector space in the most obvious way, by defining

$$\begin{aligned} (p, v) + (p, w) &= (p, v + w), \\ \alpha \cdot (p, v) &= (p, \alpha v). \end{aligned}$$

A vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is often pictured as an arrow from 0 to v . The vector $(p, v) \in \mathbb{R}_p^n$ on the other hand may be pictured as an arrow with the same direction and length, but with initial point p (see figure below).



This arrow goes from p to the point $p + v$, and we therefore define $p + v$ to be the end point of (p, v) . We will usually write (p, v) as v_p , which is read as “the vector v at p ”.

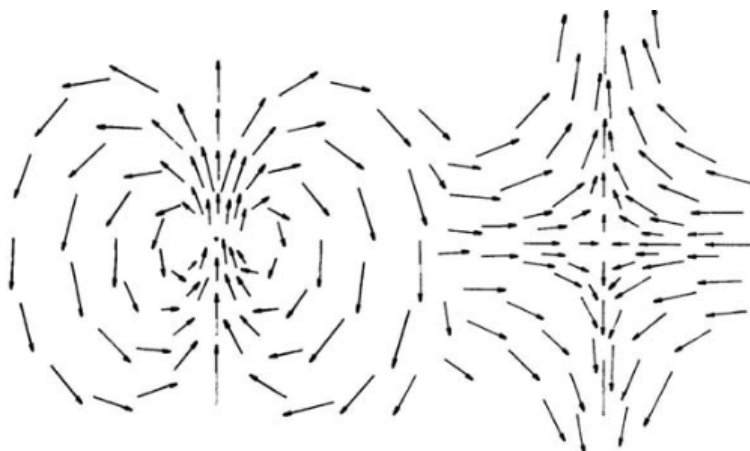
Remark 2: The vector space \mathbb{R}_p^n is so closely allied to \mathbb{R}^n that many of the structures on \mathbb{R}^n have analogues on \mathbb{R}_p^n . In particular, the usual inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_p$ for \mathbb{R}_p^n is defined by

$$\langle v_p, w_p \rangle_p = \langle v_p, w_p \rangle,$$

and the usual orientation for \mathbb{R}_p^n is

$$[(e_1)_p, \dots, (e_n)_p].$$

Remark 3: Any operation which is possible in a vector space may be performed in each \mathbb{R}_p^n , and most of this section is merely an elaboration of this theme. About the simplest operation in a vector space is the selection of a vector from it. If such a selection is made in each \mathbb{R}_p^n , then we obtain a *vector field* (see figure below).



To be precise, we give the following definition:

Definition. A **vector field** is a function F such that $F(p) \in \mathbb{R}_p^n$ for each $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$. For each p , there are numbers $F^1(p), \dots, F^n(p)$ such that

$$F(p) = F^1(p) \cdot (e_1)_p + \dots + F^n(p) \cdot (e_n)_p.$$

We thus obtain n component functions $F^i: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. ★

Remark: Operations on vectors yield operations on vector fields when applied at each point separately. For example, if F and G are vector fields and f is a function, then we

define

$$\begin{aligned}(F + G)(p) &= F(p) + G(p), \\ \langle F, G \rangle(p) &= \langle F(p), G(p) \rangle, \\ (f \cdot F)(p) &= f(p)F(p).\end{aligned}$$

Definition. We define the **divergence** of F , denoted $\operatorname{div}(F)$, as $\operatorname{div}(F) = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i F^i$. Using standard notation, we define the operator

$$\nabla = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i \cdot e_i.$$

Then we can write $\operatorname{div}(F) = \langle \nabla, F \rangle$. ★

Definition. For $n = 3$, we have

$$(\nabla \times F)(p) = (D_2 F^3 - D_3 F^2)(e_1)_p + (D_3 F^1 - D_1 F^3)(e_2)_p + (D_1 F^2 - D_2 F^1)(e_3)_p.$$

The vector field $\nabla \times F$ is called the **curl** of F , and it is denoted $\operatorname{curl}(F)$. ★