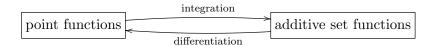
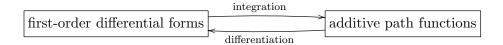
11 From path functions to differential forms

11a	Why path functions	183
11b	Some properties of path functions	185
11c	First-order differential forms emerge	187
11d	Example: winding number	192
11e	Higher-order differential forms	194

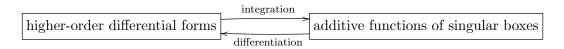
The relation



was treated in Sections 6 and 8. A similar relation



is treated here, and generalized:



... this chapter may seem rather abstract and artificial ... the best procedure for the moment is simply to regard differential forms as completely new mathematical objects...

Corwin and Szczarba, p. 487

... a k-form ω is some sort of mapping $\omega: \{k\text{-surfaces in } A\} \to \mathbb{R}.$

Shurman, p. 404.

11a Why path functions

Life is a path function. You begin life, you end life—that's not so interesting, right? But quality of life is a path function. It's the path that you take from the beginning to the end, the integral of that path, that's the special part.

Christopher Edwards

By a path (in \mathbb{R}^n) we mean a function $\gamma:[t_0,t_1]\to\mathbb{R}^n$ (real numbers $t_0< t_1$ may depend on the path) of class C^1 ; that is, continuous on $[t_0,t_1]$, differentiable on (t_0,t_1) , with uniformly continuous derivative $\gamma'(\cdot)$.

But sometimes we admit piecewise C^1 paths. A path is called *closed* if $\gamma(t_0) = \gamma(t_1)$.

A path may describe the motion of a body (a car, aircraft, ship, submarine, planet, particle etc); $\gamma(t)$ is the position of the body at time t.

For a car, the fuel consumption is roughly proportional to the energy required to overcome resistance, namely, air resistance and rolling resistance. This energy is a function Ω of a path;

$$\Omega(\gamma) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} |F(t)| v(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \,,$$

where $v(t) = |\gamma'(t)|$ is the speed of the car, and F(t) is the resistance force. In a reasonable approximation,¹ the air resistance is of the form $c_2v^2 + c_1v$ (viscous and wind resistance), and the rolling resistance is a constant, c_0 . Thus,

$$\Omega(\gamma) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (c_2 |\gamma'(t)|^2 + c_1 |\gamma'(t)| + c_0) |\gamma'(t)| dt.$$

For a planet or a particle resistance is usually negligible, but external fields (usually gravitational and/or electromagnetic) do a work (energy exchange)

$$\Omega(\gamma) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \langle F_{\gamma}(t), \gamma'(t) \rangle dt$$

where $F_{\gamma}(t)$ is the force vector. Its dependence on γ is often of the form $F_{\gamma}(t) = F(\gamma(t))$ for a given vector field F; that is, $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$.

And the most famous path function is, of course, the length,

$$\Omega(\gamma) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} |\gamma'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t.$$

11a1 Exercise. ² Derive the energy conservation

$$\frac{1}{2}m|\gamma'(t_1)|^2 - \frac{1}{2}m|\gamma'(t_0)|^2 = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \langle F_{\gamma}(t), \gamma'(t) \rangle dt$$

from the Newton's second law of motion

$$m\gamma''(t) = F_{\gamma}(t)$$
.

¹Wikipedia, "Fuel economy in automobiles" and "Drag (physics)".

²Shifrin, Sect. 8.3.

11b Some properties of path functions

Path functions may be roughly classified according to presence or absence of the following properties.

ADDITIVITY: for every path $\gamma: [t_0, t_1] \to \mathbb{R}^n$,

(11b1)
$$\Omega(\gamma|_{[t_0,t]}) + \Omega(\gamma|_{[t_t,t_1]}) = \Omega(\gamma) \quad \text{for all } t \in (t_0,t_1).$$

All path functions mentioned in Sect. 11a are additive.

STATIONARITY: for every path $\gamma:[t_0,t_1]\to\mathbb{R}^n$,

(11b2)
$$\Omega(\gamma(\cdot - s)) = \Omega(\gamma) \text{ for all } s \in \mathbb{R};$$

here $\gamma(\cdot - s)$ is the time shifted path $t \mapsto \gamma(t - s)$ for $t \in [t_0 + s, t_1 + s]$.

Non-examples: for an aircraft, a night flight may differ in fuel consumption from a similar day flight; for a particle, external field sources may change in time.

For a stationary Ω we may restrict ourselves to the case $t_0 = 0$.

Symmetry and antisymmetry (for stationary Ω only): for every path $\gamma:[0,t_1]\to\mathbb{R}^n$,

(11b3)
$$\Omega(\gamma_{-1}) = \Omega(\gamma);$$
 symmetry; or

(11b4)
$$\Omega(\gamma_{-1}) = -\Omega(\gamma);$$
 antisymmetry

here the inverse path $\gamma_{-1}: t \mapsto \gamma(t_1 - t)$ for $t \in [0, t_1]$.

Every stationary path function Ω is the sum of its symmetric part $\gamma \mapsto (\Omega(\gamma) + \Omega(\gamma_{-1})/2)$ and antisymmetric part $\gamma \mapsto (\Omega(\gamma) - \Omega(\gamma_{-1})/2)$; and if Ω is additive then its symmetric part and antisymmetric part are also additive (think, why).

NO WAITING CHARGE:

(11b5)
$$\gamma(\cdot) = \text{const (that is, } \gamma'(\cdot) = 0) \text{ implies } \Omega(\gamma) = 0.$$

PARAMETRIZATION INVARIANCE:

(11b6)
$$\Omega(\gamma \circ \varphi) = \Omega(\gamma)$$

whenever $\gamma:[t_0,t_1]\to\mathbb{R}^n$ is a path and $\varphi:[s_0,s_1]\to[t_0,t_1]$ an increasing diffeomorphism (sometimes, only piecewise). In this case the path $\gamma\circ\varphi:[s_0,s_1]\to\mathbb{R}^n$ is called *equivalent* to γ .

Clearly, parametrization invariance implies stationarity.

11b7 Exercise. Consider path functions of the form

(11b8)
$$\Omega: \gamma \mapsto \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(t, \gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$$

for arbitrary continuous functions $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$.

- (a) For each of the properties defined above give a sufficient condition in terms of f.
 - (b) Are your conditions necessary?

11b9 Exercise. ¹ Determine the work $\int \langle F(\gamma(t)), \gamma'(t) \rangle dt$ done on a particle moving along γ in \mathbb{R}^3 through the force field F(x, y, z) = (1, -x, z), where γ is

- (a) the line segment from (0,0,0) to (1,2,1);
- (b) the unit circle in the plane z = 1 with center (0, 0, 1) beginning and ending at (1, 0, 1) and starting toward (0, 1, 1).

11b10 Exercise. ² The same for $F(x, y, z) = (x^2, y^2, z^2)$ and $\gamma(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, at)$, $t \in [0, t_1]$ (the arc of helix).

The following property holds for a very restricted but very important class of path functions.

Given paths $\gamma, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots : [t_0, t_1] \to \mathbb{R}^n$, we define convergence, $\gamma_k \to \gamma$, as follows:

(11b11)
$$\forall t \in [t_0, t_1] \ \gamma_k(t) \to \gamma(t) ,$$
$$\exists L \ \forall k \ \gamma_k \in \operatorname{Lip}(L) ,$$

The condition $\gamma_k \in \text{Lip}(L)$ is equivalent to $\forall t \ |\gamma'(t)| \leq L$ (with one-sided derivatives when needed). Note that this convergence is stronger than the uniform convergence.

CONTINUITY:

(11b12)
$$\gamma_k \to \gamma \text{ implies } \Omega(\gamma_k) \to \Omega(\gamma).$$

Significantly, the length is a discontinuous path function. A counterexample: $\gamma_k(t) = \left(t, \frac{1}{k} \sin kt\right)$ (or just $\gamma_k(t) = \frac{1}{k} \sin kt$).

All path functions mentioned in Sect. 11a become continuous if one stipulates convergence in C^1 for paths, that is, $\max_t |\gamma'_k(t) - \gamma'(t)| \to 0$. But we do not!

¹Corwin, Szczarba Sect. 13.3.

²Hubbard, Sect. 6.5.

11c First-order differential forms emerge

11c1 Definition. Let Ω be a stationary additive path function, and $f: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ a continuous function. We say that f is the *derivative* of Ω (symbolically, $f = D\Omega$) if

(11c2)
$$\Omega(\gamma) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$$

for every path γ .

Such f is unique (if exists), since

$$f(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \Omega(\gamma|_{[t_0, t]}) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0+} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \Omega(\gamma|_{[t, t+\varepsilon]}).$$

If such f exists, we say that Ω is continuously differentiable (or that $D\Omega$ exists), and denote f(x, h) by $(D_h\Omega)_x$.¹

11c3 Proposition. If a stationary additive path function Ω is continuous and $D\Omega$ exists then for every x the function $h \mapsto (D_h\Omega)_x$ is affine (that is, the function $h \mapsto (D_h\Omega)_x - (D_0\Omega)_x$ is linear).

11c4 Lemma. The following two conditions on a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ are equivalent:

- (a) $f(\theta x + (1 \theta)y) = \theta f(x) + (1 \theta)f(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\theta \in (0, 1)$;
- (b) f is affine; that is, the function $x \mapsto f(x) f(0)$ is linear.

Proof. We define q(x) = f(x) - f(0).

(b) \Longrightarrow (a): $f(\theta x + (1-\theta)y) - f(0) = g(\theta x + (1-\theta)y) = \theta g(x) + (1-\theta)g(y) = \theta (f(x) - f(0)) + (1-\theta)(f(y) - f(0)) = \theta f(x) + (1-\theta)f(y) - f(0).$ (a) \Longrightarrow (b):

First, we have $g(\theta x) + f(0) = f(\theta x) = f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)0) = \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(0) = \theta g(x) + f(0)$, that is, $g(\theta x) = \theta g(x)$ for $\theta \in (0, 1)$ and therefore for $\theta \in (0, \infty)$ (since $(1/\theta)g(x) = g((1/\theta)x)$).

Second, $g(\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}y) + f(0) = f(\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}y) = \frac{1}{2}f(x) + \frac{1}{2}f(y) = \frac{1}{2}g(x) + \frac{1}{2}g(y) + f(0)$, and we get additivity: g(x + y) = g(x) + g(y).

Third, g(x) + g(-x) = g(0) = 0, thus $g(\theta x) = \theta g(x)$ also for negative θ .

11c5 Lemma. Let $\theta \in (0,1)$ and $T_k = \bigoplus_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\frac{i}{k}, \frac{i+\theta}{k}\right]$. Then $\int_{T_k} f \to \theta \int_{\mathbb{R}} f (as k \to \infty)$ for every Riemann integrable $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.

¹The same condition may be imposed on an arbitrary path function, and then it may be called "additivity, stationarity and continuous differentiability".



Proof. The claim holds when f is the indicator of an interval, since in this case $|\int_{T_k} f - \theta \int_{\mathbb{R}} f| \leq \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{k}$. By linearity the claim holds for all step functions. By sandwich, it holds for all integrable functions.

Now we prove the proposition admitting piecewise C^1 paths. For the other case see Remark 11c7 afterwards.

Proof of Prop. 11c3.

First,

(11c6)
$$\gamma_k \to \gamma$$
 implies $\int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t), \gamma'_k(t)) dt \to \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$,

since $\Omega(\gamma_k) \to \Omega(\gamma)$ by continuity of Ω , and $\sup_t |f(\gamma(t), \gamma'_k(t)) - f(\gamma_k(t), \gamma'_k(t))| \to 0$ due to uniform continuity of f on bounded sets. By 11c4 it is sufficient to prove that

$$(D_h\Omega)_{x_0} = \theta(D_{h_1}\Omega)_{x_0} + (1-\theta)(D_{h_2}\Omega)_{x_0}$$

whenever $h = \theta h_1 + (1 - \theta)h_2$, $\theta \in (0, 1)$, and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We construct paths $\gamma, \gamma_k : [0, t_1] \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\gamma(0) = \gamma_{k}(0) = x_{0},
\gamma'(t) = h \text{ for all } t \in (0, t_{1}),
\gamma'_{k}(t) = \begin{cases} h_{1} & \text{for } t \in (0, t_{1}) \cap T_{k}^{\circ}, \\ h_{2} & \text{for } t \in (0, t_{1}) \setminus T_{k}, \end{cases}$$

 T_k being as in Lemma 11c5.

We have $\gamma_k(\frac{i}{k}) = \gamma(\frac{i}{k})$ (for integer i such that $\frac{i}{k} \in [0, t_1]$), since $\int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} \gamma_k'(t) dt = \int_{i/k}^{(i+1)/k} \gamma'(t) dt$; thus, $\sup_t |\gamma_k(t) - \gamma(t)| \le \theta |h_1|/k \to 0$; and $\gamma_k \in \operatorname{Lip}(\max(|h_1|, |h_2|))$. Thus, $\gamma_k \to \gamma$.

By (11c6),

$$\int_0^{t_1} f(x_0 + th, \gamma'_k(t)) dt \to \int_0^{t_1} f(x_0 + th, h) dt.$$

We have

$$\int_0^{t_1} f(x_0 + th, \gamma'_k(t)) dt = \int_{[0,t_1] \cap T_k} f(x_0 + th, h_1) dt + \int_{[0,t_1] \setminus T_k} f(x_0 + th, h_2) dt.$$

By Lemma 11c5, in the limit $k \to \infty$ we get

$$\int_0^{t_1} f(x_0 + th, h) dt = \theta \int_0^{t_1} f(x_0 + th, h_1) dt + (1 - \theta) \int_0^{t_1} f(x_0 + th, h_2) dt.$$

We see that the continuous function

$$x \mapsto f(x, h) - \theta f(x, h_1) - (1 - \theta) f(x, h_2)$$

has zero integral on every straight interval of direction h. It follows easily that this function vanishes everywhere.

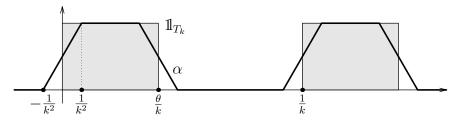
11c7 Remark. If paths are required to be C^1 (rather than piecewise C^1), the proposition still holds; here is why. Instead of

$$\gamma_k' = \mathbb{1}_{T_k} h_1 + (1 - \mathbb{1}_{T_k}) h_2$$

we take

$$\tilde{\gamma}_k' = \alpha h_1 + (1 - \alpha) h_2$$

where α is such a piecewise linear approximation of $\mathbb{1}_{T_k}$:



Still, $\tilde{\gamma}_k(\frac{i}{k}) = \gamma(\frac{i}{k})$, since the integral of α over the period is equal to θ/k . As before, $\tilde{\gamma}_k \to \gamma$. And $\tilde{\gamma}_k$ is of class C^1 . It remains to check that

$$\left| \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t), \tilde{\gamma}_k'(t)) dt - \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t), \gamma_k'(t)) dt \right| \to 0 \quad \text{as } k \to \infty.$$

We note that $\tilde{\gamma}'_k = \gamma'_k$ (and therefore the difference vanishes) outside a set of 1-dimensional volume $O(\frac{1}{k})$. On this set, the difference is O(1), since both $|\gamma'_k|$ and $|\tilde{\gamma}'_k|$ never exceed $\max(|h_1|, |h_2|)$, and f is bounded on a bounded set.

11c8 Exercise. Assume that an additive path function Ω is continuous, and satisfies

$$\Omega(\gamma) = F(|\gamma(t_1)|) - F(|\gamma(t_0)|)$$

(where F is a given function) in two cases: first, for all γ of the form $\gamma(t) = \varphi(t)x$ ("radial"), and second, for all γ such that $|\gamma(\cdot)| = \text{const}$ ("tangential"). Prove that the same formula holds for all γ .

11c9 Definition. A first-order differential form of class C^m on \mathbb{R}^n is a function $\omega : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ of class C^m such that for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the function $\omega(x,\cdot)$ is linear.

For brevity we say just "1-form".

Every 1-form ω leads to an additive path function Ω ,

(11c10)
$$\Omega(\gamma) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \omega(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) dt = \int_{\gamma} \omega;$$

note the convenient notation $\int_{\gamma} \omega$. This Ω satisfies the "no waiting charge" condition (11b5).

Now Proposition 11c3 may be reformulated: if an additive path function Ω is continuous and $D\Omega$ exists then

$$\forall \gamma \quad \Omega(\gamma) = \int_{\gamma} \omega + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t)) dt$$

for some 1-form ω of class C^0 and some continuous function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$. Indeed, $f(x) = (D_0\Omega)_x$ and $\omega(x,h) = (D_h\Omega)_x - (D_0\Omega)_x$.

11c11 Exercise. Prove that the symmetric part of Ω is $\gamma \mapsto \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t)) dt$ and the antisymmetric part is $\gamma \mapsto \int_{\gamma} \omega$.

Note that the symmetric part (if not identically zero) violates the "no waiting charge" condition (11b5), while the antisymmetric part satisfies this condition.

11c12 Exercise. The path function $\gamma \mapsto \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(\gamma(t)) dt$ is continuous for arbitrary continuous $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$.

Prove it.

The path function $\gamma \mapsto \int_{\gamma} \omega$ is continuous for arbitrary 1-form ω ; we'll prove it much later.

Traditionally one denotes the coordinates h_1, \ldots, h_n of the vector h by dx_1, \ldots, dx_n and writes

$$\omega = f_1 dx_1 + \dots + f_n dx_n, \quad \text{or}$$

$$\omega(x) = \omega(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 + \dots + f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_n$$

rather than

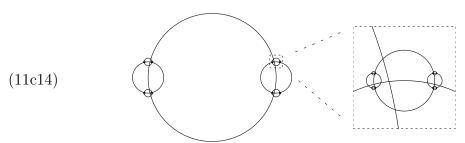
$$\omega(x_1, \dots, x_n; dx_1, \dots, dx_n) = f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 + \dots + f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_n.$$

In this notation,

$$\int_{\gamma} (f_1(x) dx_1 + \dots + f_n(x) dx_n) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (f_1(\gamma(t)) d\gamma_1(t) + \dots + f_n(\gamma(t)) d\gamma_n(t))$$
for $\gamma(t) = (\gamma_1(t), \dots, \gamma_n(t))$.

11c13 Exercise. Prove that the path function $\gamma \mapsto \int_{\gamma} \omega$ is parametrization

A curve is often defined as an equivalence class of paths. Then, by 11c13, a 1-form may be integrated over a curve. But be warned: such "curve" need not be piecewise smooth (since $\gamma'(\cdot)$ may vanish on an infinite set) even if paths are C^1 . On the picture below you see what may happen to the set $\gamma([t_0, t_1])$ for $\gamma \in C^1$.



11c15 Exercise. ¹ Prove that the following pairs of paths are equivalent:

- (a) $\gamma_1(t) = (\sin t, \cos t), \ t \in [0, 2\pi]; \ \gamma_2(t) = (-\cos t, \sin t), \ t \in [\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{2}];$ (b) $\gamma_1(t) = (2\cos t, 2\sin t), \ t \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]; \ \gamma_2(t) = (\frac{2-2t^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{4t}{1+t^2}), \ t \in [0, 1].$

11c16 Exercise. ² Compute $\int_{\gamma} \omega$ for $\omega(x,y) = x dx - y dy$ over the following paths:

- (a) $\gamma(t) = (\cos \pi t, \sin \pi t), t \in [0, 1];$
- (b) $\gamma(t) = (1 t, 0), t \in [0, 2];$
- (c) $\gamma(t) = (1 t, 1 |1 t|), t \in [0, 2].$

11c17 Exercise. ³ The same for $\omega(x, y, z) = yz dx + xz dy + xy dz$ and

- (a) $\gamma(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t, 2t), t \in [0, 3];$
- (b) $\gamma(t) = (1, 0, t), t \in [0, 6].$

11c18 Exercise. ⁴ The same for $\omega(x,y) = y dx + xy dy$ and a closed curve that traverses the ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ once in the "counterclockwise" direction.

¹Corwin, Szczarba Sect. 13.1.

²Devinatz, Sect. 9.1.

³Devinatz, Sect. 9.1.

⁴Devinatz, Sect. 9.1.

11c19 Exercise. ¹ Integrate the 1-form y dx on \mathbb{R}^3 along the intersection of the unit sphere and the plane x + y + z = 0, oriented counterclockwise as viewed from high above the xy-plane.²

11d Example: winding number

Every point $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ is $(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)$ for $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and some θ , but θ is not unique. We note that

$$\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\} = U_1 \cup U_2 \cup U_3 \cup U_4,$$

$$U_1 = \{(x,y) : x > 0\}, \quad U_2 = \{(x,y) : y > 0\},$$

$$U_3 = \{(x,y) : x < 0\}, \quad U_4 = \{(x,y) : y < 0\}$$

and define functions $\theta_i: U_i \to \mathbb{R}$ for i = 1, 2, 3, 4 by

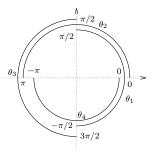
$$\theta_1(x,y) = \arcsin \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, \quad \theta_2(x,y) = \arccos \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}},$$

$$\theta_3(x,y) = \pi - \arcsin \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}, \quad \theta_4(x,y) = -\arccos \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

(see also Sect. 4a), then

$$\theta_1 = \theta_2 \text{ on } U_1 \cap U_2, \quad \theta_2 = \theta_3 \text{ on } U_2 \cap U_3,$$

 $\theta_3 = \theta_4 + 2\pi \text{ on } U_3 \cap U_4, \quad \theta_4 = \theta_1 \text{ on } U_4 \cap U_1.$



They conform only up to a constant; but their derivatives (or gradients) do conform,

$$D\theta_i = D\theta_j \text{ on } U_i \cap U_j$$
.

A calculation gives

$$\forall (x,y) \in U_i \quad \nabla \theta_i(x,y) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} (-y,x),$$

that is, for all $x = (x_1, x_2) \in U_i$, $h = (h_1, h_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$(D_h \theta_i)_x = \frac{\det(x, h)}{|x|^2} = \frac{1}{x_1^2 + x_2^2} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & h_1 \\ x_2 & h_2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

¹Shifrin, Sect. 8.3.

²Hint: find an orthonormal basis for the plane.

We introduce a 1-form ω on $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ by

$$\omega(x,h) = (D_h \theta_i)_x$$
 whenever $x \in U_i$.

That is,

$$\omega(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{x_1^2 + x_2^2} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & dx_1 \\ x_2 & dx_2 \end{vmatrix}; \qquad \omega = \frac{-y \, dx + x \, dy}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

It is easy to guess that $\int_{\gamma} \omega$ is the angle of rotation (around the origin), and therefore

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega \in 2\pi \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{for all closed paths } \gamma \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}.$$

Here is a way to the proof.

11d1 Exercise. (a) If $\gamma:[t_0,t_1]\to U_i$ then $\int_{\gamma}\omega=\theta_i(\gamma(t_1))-\theta_i(\gamma(t_0));$

(b) for every $\gamma: [t_0, t_1] \to \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ there exists a partition $t_0 < s_1 < \cdots < s_k < t_1$ of $[t_0, t_1]$ and $i_0, \ldots, i_k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ such that $\gamma([t_0, s_1]) \subset U_{i_0}$, $\gamma([s_1, s_2]) \subset U_{i_1}, \ldots, \gamma([s_{k-1}, s_k]) \subset U_{i_{k-1}}, \gamma([s_k, t_1]) \subset U_{i_k};^1$

(c) every $\gamma: [t_0, t_1] \to \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ satisfies $\theta_{i_1}(\gamma(t_1)) - \theta_{i_0}(\gamma(t_0)) - \int_{\gamma} \omega \in 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$ whenever $\gamma(t_0) \in U_{i_0}, \gamma(t_1) \in U_{i_1};$

(d) if $\gamma(t_0) = \gamma(t_1)$ then $\int_{\gamma} \omega \in 2\pi \mathbb{Z}$. Prove it.

The integer $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\gamma} \omega$ is called the winding number (or index) of a close path γ on $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ around 0. The winding number of γ around another point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \gamma([t_0, t_1])$ may be defined as the winding number of the shifted path $t \mapsto \gamma(t) - x_0$ around 0. This is an integer-valued continuous function of x_0 defined on the open set $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \gamma([t_0, t_1])$; therefore it is constant on each connected component of this open set (recall Sect. 1c). The proof of the continuity is simple: if $x_k \to x_0$ then

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} \omega(\gamma(t) - x_k, \gamma'(t)) dt \to \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \omega(\gamma(t) - x_0, \gamma'(t)) dt$$

since $\omega(x,h) = \frac{\det(x,h)}{|x|^2}$ is continuous in x (for a given h), uniformly outside a neighborhood of 0.

It would be interesting to integrate over all $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ the winding number around x_0 . This could give us a formula for calculating the area of a planar domain via integral over the boundary of this domain. The function $x \mapsto \frac{\det(x,h)}{|x|^2}$ is unbounded (near 0), with unbounded support, which leads to an

¹Hint: continuity of γ is enough, differentiability does not help.

improper integral. It converges near 0, but diverges on infinity (try polar coordinates). Thus, the right choice of exhaustion is important. It is futile to nullify $\omega(x,h)$ for large x, but it is wise to integrate $\omega(\gamma(t)-x_0,\gamma'(t))$ over not too large x_0 . It appears that¹

$$\int_{|x_0| \le R} \omega(x - x_0, h) \to \pi \det(x, h) \quad \text{as } R \to \infty;$$

thus, the integrated winding number is $\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \det(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$, the half of the integral over γ of the 1-form (-ydx + xdy). We'll return to this form later.

11d2 Exercise. ² Compute $\int_{\gamma} \omega$ for $\omega(x,y) = \frac{-y \, dx + x \, dy}{2}$ and γ that bounds the triangle with vertices (0,0), (a,0), (b,c) (a,b,c>0) and traverses its boundary once in the "counterclockwise" direction.

11e Higher-order differential forms

11e1 Definition. A singular k-cube in \mathbb{R}^n is a mapping $\Gamma : [0,1]^k \to \mathbb{R}^n$ of class C^1 ; that is, Γ is continuous on $[0,1]^k$, differentiable on $(0,1)^k$, and its derivative $D\Gamma$ is uniformly continuous (that is, extends by continuity to the boundary of the cube).

Similarly we may use any closed box in \mathbb{R}^k , not just the cube; then we have a singular k-box.

11e2 Example. A singular 2-box in \mathbb{R}^2 : [Sh:Sect.9.13]

$$\Gamma(r,\theta) = (r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta)$$
 for $(r,\theta) \in [0,1] \times [0,2\pi]$.

Note that this is not a homeomorphism.

11e3 Example. A singular 2-box in \mathbb{R}^3 :

$$\Gamma(\varphi, \theta) = (\sin \theta \sin \varphi, \sin \theta \cos \varphi, \cos \theta) \text{ for } (\varphi, \theta) \in [0, 2\pi] \times [0, \pi].$$

Also, not a homeomorphism.

A singular 1-box is nothing but a path.

A singular 2-box may be thought of as a path in the space of paths. Even in two ways. Or, as a parametrized surface. But this "surface" may be rather strange (recall the one-dimensional example (11c14)) and/or degenerated (even to a single point).

¹Try to check it, if you are ambitious enough.

²Fleming, Sect. 6.4.

A function Ω of a singular k-box is called additive if

$$\Omega(\Gamma) = \sum_{C \in P} \Omega(\Gamma|_C)$$

for every partition P of a box B (defined as in Sect. 6). For k = 1 this is (11b1).

Similarly to (11c2) we consider Ω of the form

(11e4)
$$\Omega(\Gamma) = \int_{B} f(\Gamma(u), (D_{1}\Gamma)_{u}, \dots, (D_{k}\Gamma)_{u}) du;$$

here $(D_1\Gamma)_x, \ldots, (D_k\Gamma)_x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are partial derivatives of Γ , and $f: \mathbb{R}^n \times (\mathbb{R}^n)^k \to \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function.

Again, we wonder what can be said about f if Ω is continuous in the following sense:

(11e5)
$$\Gamma_j \to \Gamma \text{ implies } \Omega(\Gamma_j) \to \Omega(\Gamma),$$

where convergence of singular k-cubes (or boxes) $\Gamma, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, \cdots : [0, 1]^k \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined by

$$\forall u \in [0,1]^k \ \Gamma_j(u) \to \Gamma(u),$$

 $\exists L \ \forall j \ \Gamma_j \in \operatorname{Lip}(L).$

(For k = 1 this is (11b11)).

We consider first the case k=2. Similarly to Prop. 11c3 we have the following.

11e6 Proposition. If Ω satisfies (11e4) and is continuous then for all $x, h_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the function $h_2 \mapsto f(x, h_1, h_2)$ is affine.

Proof. Similarly to (11c6), (11e7)

$$\Gamma_j \to \Gamma$$
 implies $\int_B f(\Gamma(u), (D_1\Gamma_j)_u, (D_2\Gamma_j)_u) du \to \int_B f(\Gamma(u), (D_1\Gamma)_u, (D_2\Gamma)_u) du$.

Again, by 11c4 it is sufficient to prove that

$$f(x_0, h_1, h_2) = \theta f(x_0, h_1, h_2') + (1 - \theta) f(x_0, h_1, h_2'')$$

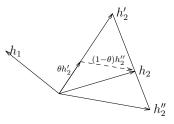
whenever $h_2 = \theta h_2' + (1 - \theta) h_2''$, $\theta \in (0, 1)$, and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Given a box $B = [0, U_1] \times [0, U_2] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, we construct $\Gamma, \Gamma_i : B \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

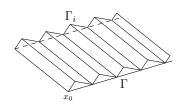
$$\Gamma(0,0) = \Gamma_j(0,0) = x_0,$$

$$(D_1\Gamma)_u = (D_1\Gamma_j)_u = h_1 \quad \text{for all } u \in B^{\circ},$$

$$(D_2\Gamma)_u = h_2 \quad \text{for all } u \in B^{\circ},$$

$$(D_2\Gamma_j)_u = \begin{cases} h'_2 & \text{for } u \in B^{\circ} \cap (\mathbb{R} \times T_j^{\circ}), \\ h''_2 & \text{for } u \in B^{\circ} \setminus (\mathbb{R} \times T_j), \end{cases}$$





 T_j being as in Lemma 11c5. These Γ_j are not singular boxes (since they are only piecewise C^1), but still, (11e7) applies to Γ_j , since there exist (by the argument of 11c7) singular boxes $\tilde{\Gamma}_j$ such that $\tilde{\Gamma}_j \to \Gamma$ and

$$\left| \int_{B} f\left(\Gamma(u), (D_{1}\tilde{\Gamma}_{j})_{u}, (D_{2}\tilde{\Gamma}_{j})_{u}\right) du - \int_{B} f\left(\Gamma(u), (D_{1}\Gamma_{j})_{u}, (D_{2}\Gamma_{j})_{u}\right) du \right| \to 0.$$

Similarly to the proof of 11c3 we get

$$\int_{0}^{U_{2}} \left(\int f(x_{0} + u_{1}h_{1} + u_{2}h_{2}, h_{1}, (D_{2}\Gamma_{j})_{x_{0} + u_{1}h_{1} + u_{2}h_{2}}) du_{1} \right) du_{2} \rightarrow$$

$$\rightarrow \theta \int_{0}^{U_{2}} \left(\int f(x_{0} + u_{1}h_{1} + u_{2}h_{2}, h_{1}, h'_{2}) du_{1} \right) du_{2} +$$

$$+ (1 - \theta) \int_{0}^{U_{2}} \left(\int f(x_{0} + u_{1}h_{1} + u_{2}h_{2}, h_{1}, h''_{2}) du_{1} \right) du_{2}.$$

We conclude that the continuous function

$$x \mapsto f(x, h_1, h_2) - \theta f(x, h_1, h_2') - (1 - \theta) f(x, h_1, h_2'')$$

has zero integral on every parallelepiped, and therefore vanishes everywhere.

Assuming in addition that $\Gamma(\cdot) = \text{const implies } \Omega(\Gamma) = 0$ we get f(x, 0, 0) = 0, but still, $f(x, h_1, 0)$ need not vanish. Here is an appropriate generalization of the "no waiting charge" condition (11b5):

(11e8) if $\Gamma(B)$ is contained in a (k-1)-dimensional affine subspace of \mathbb{R}^n then $\Omega(\Gamma) = 0$.

Taking $\Gamma(u_1, u_2) = x_0 + u_1 h_1$ we see that (11e8) implies $f(x, h_1, 0) = 0$. Thus, for every x, $f(x, h_1, h_2)$ is linear in h_2 for each h_1 ; similarly it is linear in h_1 for each h_2 ; that is,

condition (11e8) implies that $f(x,\cdot,\cdot)$ is a bilinear form;

$$f(x, h_1, h_2) = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} c_{i,j}(x)(h_1)_i(h_2)_j.$$

Further, taking $\Gamma(u_1, u_2) = x_0 + u_1 h + u_2 h$ we see that f(x, h, h) = 0 for all h (and x). It means that the bilinear form is antisymmetric,

$$f(x, h_2, h_1) = -f(x, h_1, h_2);$$

indeed,

$$\underbrace{f(x, h_1 + h_2, h_1 + h_2)}_{=0} = \underbrace{f(x, h_1, h_1)}_{=0} + f(x, h_1, h_2) + f(x, h_2, h_1) + \underbrace{f(x, h_2, h_2)}_{=0}.$$

Generalization to $k = 3, 4, \dots$ is straightforward.

First, recall a notion from linear algebra: a (multillear) k-form¹ on \mathbb{R}^n is a function $L:(\mathbb{R}^n)^k \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $L(x_1,\ldots,x_k)$ is separately linear in each of the k variables $x_1,\ldots,x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Further, L is called antisymmetric² if it changes its sign under exchange of any pair of arguments.

11e9 Exercise. The following three conditions on a multililear k-form L on \mathbb{R}^n are equivalent:

- (a) L is antisymmetric;
- (b) $L(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = 0$ whenever $x_i = x_j$ for some $i \neq j$;
- (c) $L(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = 0$ whenever vectors x_1, \ldots, x_k are linearly dependent.

Now we generalize 11c9 and 11e6.

11e10 Definition. A differential form of order³ k and of class C^m on \mathbb{R}^n is a function $\omega : \mathbb{R}^n \times (\mathbb{R}^n)^k \to \mathbb{R}$ of class C^m such that for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the function $\omega(x, \cdot, \dots, \cdot)$ is an antisymmetric multillear k-form on \mathbb{R}^n .

For brevity we say "differential k-form" or just "k-form".

11e11 Proposition. If a function Ω of a singular k-box in \mathbb{R}^n is of the form (11e4), satisfies (11e5) and (11e8), then the function f from (11e4) is a k-form (of class C^0).

Similarly to (11c10) we define the integral of a k-form ω over a singular k-box Γ ,

(11e12)
$$\int_{\Gamma} \omega = \int_{B} \omega \left(\Gamma(u), (D_{1}\Gamma)_{u}, \dots, (D_{k}\Gamma)_{u} \right) du$$

(recall (11e4)) and observe that $\Gamma \mapsto \int_{\Gamma} \omega$ is an additive function of a singular box. Now, Prop. 11e11 gives a sufficient condition for Ω to be the integral of some ω .

¹Called also multililear form (or function) of degree (or order) k.

²Or "skew symmetric", or "alternating".

³Or "degree".

A k-form on \mathbb{R}^n may be thought of as a mapping from \mathbb{R}^n to the vector space of all antisymmetric multililear k-forms on \mathbb{R}^n . What is the dimension of this space?

First, k = 1. A linear form is uniquely determined by its values on the basis vectors e_1, \ldots, e_n of \mathbb{R}^n , and these values are arbitrary; thus, linear forms are an n-dimensional space.

Second, k = 2. An antisymmetric bilinear form is uniquely determined by its values on the pairs (e_i, e_j) for i < j, and these values are arbitrary; thus, bilinear forms are a space of dimension $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$.

Similarly, antisymmetric multililear k-forms are a space of dimension $\binom{n}{k}$. Differential 0-forms, as well as differential n-forms, are functions with 1-dimensional values, since $\binom{n}{0} = 1 = \binom{n}{n}$; basically, scalar functions. More exactly, a differential 0-form $\omega : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is itself a scalar function, while a differential n-form ω corresponds to a scalar function $x \mapsto \omega(x, e_1, \ldots, e_n)$.

11e13 Exercise. ¹ Find $\int_{\Gamma} \omega$ where

$$\omega(x, e_2, e_3) = x_1, \quad \omega(x, e_1, e_2) = \omega(x, e_1, e_3) = 0,$$

that is,

$$\omega(x, h, k) = x_1 \begin{vmatrix} h_2 & k_2 \\ h_3 & k_3 \end{vmatrix}$$
 for $x, h, k \in \mathbb{R}^3$,

and $\Gamma(u,v)=(u^2,u+v,v^3)$ for $u,v\in[-1,1].$

¹Hubbard, Sect. 6.2.

Index

1-form, 190	closed, 184
	path function
bilinear form, 196	additive, 185
convergence of paths, 186 convergence of singular boxes, 195 curve, 191	continuous, 186 no waiting charge, 185 parametrization invariance, 185 stationary, 185
derivative of path function, 187 differential form, first-order, 190 differential form, 197	symmetric and antisymmetric parts, 185 symmetric, antisymmetric, 185
index, 193 integral of 1-form, 190 of form, 197 inverse path, 185	singular box, 194 singular box function additive, 194 continuous, 195 singular cube, 194
k-form, 197	winding number, 193
length, 184	$(D_1\Gamma)_x, \dots, (D_k\Gamma)_x, 195$ $(D_h\Omega)_x, 187$
multililear form, 197 antisymmetric, 197	$dx_1, \dots, dx_n, 190$ $\Gamma_j \to \Gamma, 195$ $\gamma_k \to \gamma, 186$
no waiting charge higher dimension, 196	$egin{array}{l} \gamma_{-1}, \ 185 \ \int_{\Gamma} \omega, \ 197 \ \int_{\gamma} \omega, \ 190 \end{array}$
path, 183	$\Omega(\Gamma)$, 195