

Notes on Differential Forms

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1 Tensor Algebra

1.1 Manifolds and Local Coordinates

Let M be an n -dimensional smooth orientable manifold without boundary. Then locally, at any point $x_0 \in M$, there is a neighborhood such that it can be diffeomorphically mapped to a region in the Euclidean n -dimensional space \mathbb{R}^n with the coordinates x^μ , where $\mu = 1, \dots, n$. What follows is a list of useful formulas in that local coordinate chart with these local coordinates.

1.2 Tangent and Cotangent Spaces

The tangent space $T_{x_0}M$ at the point x_0 is a vector space spanned by the basis

$$e_\mu = \partial_\mu = \partial/\partial x^\mu \quad (1)$$

(coordinate basis). A tangent vector v can be represented by a n -tuple v^μ , i.e.

$$v = v^\mu e_\mu. \quad (2)$$

The cotangent space $T_{x_0}^*M$ at the point x_0 is a vector space of linear maps

$$\alpha : T_{x_0}M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad v \mapsto \langle \alpha, v \rangle, \quad (3)$$

spanned by the basis

$$\omega^\mu = dx^\mu \quad (4)$$

(coordinate basis). This basis is dual to the basis e_ν in the sense that

$$\langle \omega^\nu, e_\mu \rangle = \delta_\mu^\nu. \quad (5)$$

A cotangent vector α can be represented by a n -tuple α^μ ; then

$$\alpha = \alpha_\mu \omega^\mu \quad (6)$$

and

$$\langle \alpha, v \rangle = \alpha_\mu v^\mu. \quad (7)$$

(Recall that a summation over repeated indices is performed.)

1.3 Tensors of Type (p, q)

A tensor of type (p, q) is a real valued multilinear map

$$A : \underbrace{T_{x_0}^* M \times \cdots \times T_{x_0}^* M}_p \times \underbrace{T_{x_0} M \times \cdots \times T_{x_0} M}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{R}. \quad (8)$$

A basis in the vector space of tensors of type (p, q) can be defined by

$$e_{\mu_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{\mu_p} \otimes \omega^{\nu_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \omega^{\nu_q}. \quad (9)$$

Then a tensor of the type (p, q) is represented by the components

$$A_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_q}^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_p}, \quad (10)$$

so that

$$A = A_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_q}^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} e_{\mu_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{\mu_p} \otimes \omega^{\nu_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes \omega^{\nu_q}. \quad (11)$$

1.4 Riemannian Metric

A Riemannian metric is a symmetric tensor of the type $(0, 2)$ whose components $g_{\mu\nu}$ are given by a symmetric nondegenerate positive definite matrix $g_{\mu\nu}$. The Euclidean metric is given just by the Kronecker delta symbol, i.e.

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu = \nu, \\ 0 & \text{if } \mu \neq \nu. \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

The Riemannian metric defines an inner product of vectors by

$$(v, w) = g_{\mu\nu} v^\mu w^\nu, \quad (13)$$

and one-forms

$$(\alpha, \beta) = g^{\mu\nu} \alpha_\mu \beta_\nu, \quad (14)$$

where $g^{\mu\nu}$ is the matrix inverse to the matrix $g_{\mu\nu}$. It establishes an isomorphism between the tangent vectors and the covectors (one-forms) by

$$\alpha_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} v^\nu, \quad v^\mu = g^{\mu\nu} \alpha_\nu. \quad (15)$$

Similarly, one defines the operation of raising and lowering indices of any tensor of type (p, q) .

1.5 Differential Forms

A tensor α of type $(0, s)$ is called *skew-symmetric* or (*anti-symmetric*) if it changes sign when the order of any two of its arguments is reversed, i.e.

$$\alpha_{\dots\mu_i\dots\mu_j\dots} = -\alpha_{\dots\mu_j\dots\mu_i\dots} . \quad (16)$$

The skew-symmetric tensors of type $(0, p)$ (called *p-forms* or differential forms) form a subspace of

$$\underbrace{T_{x_0}^* M \otimes \dots \otimes T_{x_0}^* M}_p . \quad (17)$$

For simplicity we will denote it by Λ_p .

Let S_p be the permutation group of integers $(1, \dots, p)$. The *signature* $\text{sgn}(\sigma)$ (or *sign*) of a permutation $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & p \\ \sigma(1) & \dots & \sigma(p) \end{pmatrix} \in S_p$ is defined to be $+1$ if σ is even and -1 if σ is odd. Then for any p -form α there holds

$$\alpha_{\mu_{\sigma(1)}\dots\mu_{\sigma(p)}} = \text{sgn}(\sigma)\alpha_{\mu_1\dots\mu_p} . \quad (18)$$

Therefore, a p -form α is given by its components $\alpha_{\mu_1\dots\mu_p}$ where

$$1 \leq \mu_1 < \mu_2 < \dots < \mu_{p-1} < \mu_p \leq n . \quad (19)$$

The other components are given by symmetry, and symmetry gives no relations among the components with increasing indices. From this it is evident that the dimension of the space of p -forms in an n -dimensional manifold M is

$$\dim \Lambda_p = \binom{n}{p} \quad (20)$$

for any $0 \leq p \leq n$ and is zero for any $p > n$. In other words, $\Lambda_p = \{0\}$ if $p > n$. In particular, Λ_0 is one-dimensional for $p = 0$ and $p = n$.

1.6 Exterior Product

For any tensor T of type $(0, p)$ we define the *alternating* (or *anti-symmetrization*) operator Alt . In components the antisymmetrization will be denoted by square brackets, i.e.

$$(\text{Alt } T)_{\mu_1\dots\mu_p} = T_{[\mu_1\dots\mu_p]} = \frac{1}{p!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_p} \text{sgn}(\sigma) T_{\mu_{\sigma(1)}\dots\mu_{\sigma(p)}} , \quad (21)$$

where the summation is taken over the $p!$ permutations of $(1, \dots, p)$.

Since the tensor product of two skew-symmetric tensors is not a skew-symmetric tensor to define the algebra of antisymmetric tensors we need to define the *anti-symmetric tensor product* called the *exterior (or wedge) product*. If α is an p -form and β is an q -form then the wedge product of α and β is an $(p + q)$ -form $\alpha \wedge \beta$ defined by

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = \frac{(p + q)!}{p!q!} \text{Alt}(\alpha \otimes \beta). \quad (22)$$

In components

$$(\alpha \wedge \beta)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{p+q}} = \frac{(p + q)!}{p!q!} \alpha_{[\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} \beta_{\mu_{p+1} \dots \mu_{p+q}]} \cdot \quad (23)$$

The wedge product has the following properties

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma &= \alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma) && \text{(associativity)} \\ \alpha \wedge \beta &= (-1)^{\deg(\alpha)\deg(\beta)} \beta \wedge \alpha && \text{(anticommutativity)} \\ (\alpha + \beta) \wedge \gamma &= \alpha \wedge \gamma + \beta \wedge \gamma && \text{(distributivity)}, \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

where $\deg(\alpha) = p$ denotes the degree of an p -form α .

A basis of the space Λ_p is

$$\omega^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{\mu_p}, \quad (1 \leq \mu_1 < \dots < \mu_p \leq n). \quad (25)$$

An p -form α can be represented in one of the following ways

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} \omega^{\mu_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \omega^{\mu_p} \\ &= \frac{1}{p!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} \omega^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{\mu_p} \\ &= \sum_{\mu_1 < \dots < \mu_p} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} \omega^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{\mu_p}. \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

The exterior product of a p -form α and a q -form β can be represented as

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = \frac{1}{p!q!} \alpha_{[\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} \beta_{\mu_{p+1} \dots \mu_{p+q}]} \omega^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \omega^{\mu_{p+q}}. \quad (27)$$

1.7 Volume Element

The n -form

$$\varepsilon = \omega^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \omega^n \quad (28)$$

is called the *volume element*. The components of the volume form denoted by

$$\varepsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n} \quad (29)$$

are given by so called *completely anti-symmetric Levi-Civita symbol* (or *alternating symbol*)

$$\varepsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n) \text{ is an even permutation of } (1, \dots, n), \\ -1 & \text{if } (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n) \text{ is an odd permutation of } (1, \dots, n), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (30)$$

Furthermore, the space of n -forms Λ_n is one-dimensional. Therefore, any n -form α is represented as

$$\alpha = f \omega^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \omega^n, \quad (31)$$

with some scalar f . The n -form

$$\sqrt{|g|} \omega^1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \omega^n, \quad (32)$$

where

$$|g| = \det g_{\mu\nu}, \quad (33)$$

and $g_{\mu\nu}$ is the Riemannian metric, is called the Riemannian volume element.

1.8 Interior Product

The *interior product* of a vector v and a p -form α is a $(p-1)$ -form $i_v \alpha$ defined by

$$(i_v \alpha)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{p-1}} = \frac{1}{(p-1)!} v^\mu \alpha_{\mu \mu_1 \dots \mu_{p-1}}. \quad (34)$$

One can prove the following useful formula for the interior product of a vector v and the wedge product of a p -form α and a q -form β

$$i_v(\alpha \wedge \beta) = (i_v \alpha) \wedge \beta + (-1)^p \alpha \wedge (i_v \beta). \quad (35)$$

1.9 The Star Operator (Duality)

The star operator $*$ maps any p -form α to a $(n - p)$ -form $*\alpha$ defined by

$$(*\alpha)_{\mu_{p+1}\dots\mu_n} = \frac{1}{p!} \varepsilon_{\mu_1\dots\mu_p\mu_{p+1}\dots\mu_n} \sqrt{|g|} g^{\mu_1\nu_1} \dots g^{\mu_p\nu_p} \alpha_{\nu_1\dots\nu_p}. \quad (36)$$

The operator $*$ satisfies an important identity: for any p -form α there holds

$$*^2\alpha = (-1)^{p(n-p)}\alpha. \quad (37)$$

Notice that if n is odd then $*^2 = 1$ for any p .

1.9.1 Examples (\mathbb{R}^3)

In the case of three-dimensional Euclidean space the metric is $g_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}$, the bases of p -forms are:

$$1, \quad dx, \quad dy, \quad dz, \quad dx \wedge dy, \quad dx \wedge dz, \quad dy \wedge dz, \quad dx \wedge dy \wedge dz. \quad (38)$$

The star operator acts on these forms by

$$*1 = dx \wedge dy \wedge dz, \quad (39)$$

$$*dx = dy \wedge dz, \quad *dy = -dx \wedge dz, \quad *dz = dx \wedge dy, \quad (40)$$

$$*(dx \wedge dy) = dz, \quad *(dy \wedge dz) = dx, \quad *(dx \wedge dz) = -dy, \quad (41)$$

$$*(dx \wedge dy \wedge dz) = 1. \quad (42)$$

So, any 2-form

$$\alpha = \alpha_{12}dx \wedge dy + \alpha_{13}dx \wedge dz + \alpha_{23}dy \wedge dz \quad (43)$$

is represented by the dual 1-form

$$*\alpha = \alpha_{12}dz - \alpha_{13}dy + \alpha_{23}dx, \quad (44)$$

that is

$$(*\alpha)_\mu = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{\mu\nu\lambda} \alpha^{\nu\lambda} \quad (45)$$

$$(*\alpha)_1 = \alpha_{23}, \quad (*\alpha)_2 = \alpha_{31}, \quad (*\alpha)_3 = \alpha_{12}, \quad (46)$$

and any 3-form α

$$\alpha = \alpha_{123} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz \quad (47)$$

is represented by the dual 0-form

$$*\alpha = \frac{1}{3!} \varepsilon_{\mu\nu\lambda} \alpha^{\mu\nu\lambda} = \alpha_{123}. \quad (48)$$

Now, let α and β be two 1-forms

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 dx + \alpha_2 dy + \alpha_3 dz, \quad \beta = \beta_1 dx + \beta_2 dy + \beta_3 dz. \quad (49)$$

Then

$$*\beta = \beta_1 dy \wedge dz + \beta_2 dz \wedge dx + \beta_3 dx \wedge dz \quad (50)$$

and

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = (\alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1) dx \wedge dy + (\alpha_1 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_1) dx \wedge dz + (\alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2) dy \wedge dz, \quad (51)$$

$$\alpha \wedge (*\beta) = (\alpha_1 \beta_1 + \alpha_2 \beta_2 + \alpha_3 \beta_3) dx \wedge dy \wedge dz. \quad (52)$$

Therefore,

$$*(\alpha \wedge \beta) = (\alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1) dz - (\alpha_1 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_1) dy + (\alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2) dx, \quad (53)$$

$$*[\alpha \wedge (*\beta)] = \alpha_1 \beta_1 + \alpha_2 \beta_2 + \alpha_3 \beta_3, \quad (54)$$

or

$$\boxed{*(\alpha \wedge \beta) = \alpha \times \beta}, \quad (55)$$

$$\boxed{*[\alpha \wedge (*\beta)] = \alpha \cdot \beta}. \quad (56)$$

2 Tensor Analysis

3 Exterior Derivative (Gradient)

The *exterior derivative* of a p -form is a $(p+1)$ -form with the components

$$\begin{aligned} (d\alpha)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{p+1}} &= (p+1) \partial_{[\mu_1} \alpha_{\mu_2 \dots \mu_{p+1}]} \\ &= \sum_{q=1}^{p+1} (-1)^{q-1} \partial_{\mu_q} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{q-1} \mu_{q+1} \dots \mu_{p+1}}. \end{aligned} \quad (57)$$

It is a linear map satisfying the conditions:

$$d(\alpha \wedge \beta) = d\alpha \wedge \beta + (-1)^{\deg(\alpha)} \alpha \wedge d\beta, \quad (58)$$

$$d^2 = 0. \quad (59)$$

For any n -form α (a p -form with rank equal to the dimension of the manifold $p = n$) the exterior derivative vanishes

$$d\alpha = 0. \quad (60)$$

One can prove the following important property of the exterior derivative of the wedge product of a p -form α and a q -form β (product rule)

$$d(\alpha \wedge \beta) = (d\alpha) \wedge \beta + (-1)^p \alpha \wedge (d\beta). \quad (61)$$

3.1 Examples in \mathbb{R}^3

Zero-Forms. For a 0-form f we have

$$(df)_\mu = \partial_\mu f, \quad (62)$$

so that

$$\boxed{df = \text{grad } f}. \quad (63)$$

One-Forms. For a 1-form

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 dx + \alpha_2 dy + \alpha_3 dz \quad (64)$$

we have

$$(d\alpha)_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu \alpha_\nu - \partial_\nu \alpha_\mu \quad (65)$$

that is

$$d\alpha = (\partial_1 \alpha_2 - \partial_2 \alpha_1) dx \wedge dy + (\partial_2 \alpha_3 - \partial_3 \alpha_2) dy \wedge dz + (\partial_3 \alpha_1 - \partial_1 \alpha_3) dz \wedge dx. \quad (66)$$

Therefore

$$(*d\alpha)^\mu = \varepsilon^{\mu\nu\lambda} \partial_\nu \alpha_\lambda, \quad (67)$$

so that

$$*d\alpha = (\partial_2 \alpha_3 - \partial_3 \alpha_2) dx + (\partial_3 \alpha_1 - \partial_1 \alpha_3) dy + (\partial_1 \alpha_2 - \partial_2 \alpha_1) dz. \quad (68)$$

We see that

$$\boxed{*d\alpha = \text{curl } \alpha}. \quad (69)$$

Two-Forms. For a 2-form β there holds

$$(d\beta)_{\mu\nu\lambda} = \partial_\mu\beta_{\nu\lambda} + \partial_\nu\beta_{\lambda\mu} + \partial_\lambda\beta_{\mu\nu}, \quad (70)$$

or

$$d\beta = (\partial_1\beta_{23} + \partial_2\beta_{31} + \partial_3\beta_{12})dx \wedge dy \wedge dz. \quad (71)$$

Hence,

$$*d\beta = \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^{\mu\nu\lambda}\partial_\mu\beta_{\nu\lambda} = \partial_1\beta_{23} + \partial_2\beta_{31} + \partial_3\beta_{12}. \quad (72)$$

Now let α be a 1-form

$$\alpha = \alpha_1dx + \alpha_2dy + \alpha_3dz. \quad (73)$$

Then

$$*\alpha = \alpha_1dy \wedge dz - \alpha_2dx \wedge dz + \alpha_3dx \wedge dy, \quad (74)$$

and

$$d*\alpha = (\partial_1\alpha_1 + \partial_2\alpha_2 + \partial_3\alpha_3)dx \wedge dy \wedge dz, \quad (75)$$

or

$$*d*\alpha = \partial_1\alpha_1 + \partial_2\alpha_2 + \partial_3\alpha_3. \quad (76)$$

So,

$$\boxed{*d*\alpha = \operatorname{div} \alpha}. \quad (77)$$

3.2 Coderivative (Divergence)

Given a Riemannian metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ we also define the *co-derivative* of p -forms by

$$\delta = *^{-1}d* = (-1)^{pn+p+1} * d * . \quad (78)$$

That is the coderivative of a p -form α is the $(p-1)$ -form

$$\begin{aligned} (\delta\alpha)_{\mu_1\dots\mu_{p-1}} &= \frac{1}{(n-p+1)!}\varepsilon_{\mu_1\dots\mu_{p-1}\mu_p\dots\mu_n}\sqrt{|g|}g^{\nu\mu_p}g^{\nu_{p+1}\mu_{p+1}}\dots g^{\nu_n\mu_n} \\ &\quad (n-p+1)\partial_\nu\left(\frac{1}{p!}\varepsilon_{\nu_1\dots\nu_p\nu_{p+1}\dots\nu_n}\sqrt{|g|}g^{\nu_1\lambda_1}\dots g^{\nu_p\lambda_p}\alpha_{\lambda_1\dots\lambda_p}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (79)$$

It is easy to see that, since $*^2 = \pm 1$ and $d^2 = 0$, the coderivative has the following property

$$\delta^2 = 0. \quad (80)$$

From this definition, we can also see that, for any 0-form f (a function) $*f$ is an n -form and, therefore, $d * f = 0$ i.e. a coderivative of any 0-form is zero

$$\delta f = 0. \quad (81)$$

For a 1-form α , $\delta\alpha$ is a 0-form

$$\delta\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\mu \left(\sqrt{|g|} g^{\mu\nu} \alpha_\nu \right). \quad (82)$$

More generally, one can prove that for a p -form α

$$(\delta\alpha)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{p-1}} = g_{\mu_1 \nu_1} \dots g_{\mu_{p-1} \nu_{p-1}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \partial_\nu \left(\sqrt{|g|} g^{\nu\lambda} g^{\nu_1 \lambda_1} \dots g^{\nu_{p-1} \lambda_{p-1}} \alpha_{\lambda \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{p-1}} \right). \quad (83)$$

4 Integration of Differential Forms

Any differential n -form α can be integrated over the n -dimensional manifold M . One needs to introduce an atlas of local charts with local coordinates that cover the whole manifold. For simplicity, we will describe the integrals over a single chart only. That is we have local coordinates x^μ that map a region in the manifold M to a bounded region U in the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n . This region is supposed to have some nice boundary ∂U . The the integral

$$\int_U \alpha = \int_U \alpha_{1\dots n} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n \quad (84)$$

is just an ordinary multiple integral over the coordinates x^1, \dots, x^n , in the usual notation

$$\int_U \alpha = \int_U \alpha_{1\dots n}(x) dx^1 \dots dx^n \quad (85)$$

More generally, any differential p -form α can be integrated over a p -dimensional submanifold N of an n -dimensional manifold M . Since N itself is a manifold this case reduces to the case of integration of a n -form over a n -dimensional manifold. Clearly, it depends on the embedding of the submanifold N in the manifold M . If $x = (x^\mu) = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$, $\mu = 1, \dots, n$,

are the local coordinates on the manifold M and $u = (u^1, \dots, u^m) = (u^j)$, $j = 1, \dots, p$, are the local coordinates of the submanifold N , then

$$\int_N \alpha = \int_N \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_p}(x(u)) \frac{\partial x^{[\mu_1}}{\partial u^1} \dots \frac{\partial x^{\mu_p]}{\partial u^p} du^1 \wedge \dots \wedge du^p. \quad (86)$$

The general Stokes Theorem states that for any smooth $(n-1)$ -form α defined over a bounded region U of a n -dimensional manifold M (in particular, of \mathbb{R}^n) with a piecewise simple (no self-intersection) smooth boundary ∂U the following formula holds

$$\int_U d\alpha = \int_{\partial U} \alpha. \quad (87)$$

Here it is assumed that the orientation of ∂U is consistent with the orientation of U . The same formula holds for orientable manifolds with boundary.

4.1 Examples

One-forms. If $\alpha = \alpha_\mu dx^\mu$ is a one-form and U is a curve $x^\mu = x^\mu(t)$, $a \leq t \leq b$, then

$$\int_U \alpha = \int_a^b \alpha_\mu(x(t)) \frac{dx^\mu(t)}{dt} dt. \quad (88)$$

Two-forms. If $\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \alpha_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$ is a two-form and U is a surface $x^\mu = x^\mu(u)$, $u = (u^1, u^2) \in U$, then

$$\int_U \alpha = \int_U \frac{1}{2} \alpha_{\mu\nu}(x(u)) J^{\mu\nu}(x(u)) du^1 \wedge du^2, \quad (89)$$

where

$$J^{\mu\nu} = e_1^\mu e_2^\nu - e_1^\nu e_2^\mu, \quad (90)$$

where e_1 and e_2 are tangent vectors to the surface defined by

$$e_j^\mu = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial u^j}. \quad (91)$$

In three dimensional Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^3 one can represent the 2-forms α and J by their duals. The dual to the 2-form J is a one-form

$$*J = e_1 \times e_2 = n \sqrt{|g|}, \quad (92)$$

where n is the unit vector (normal to the surface since it is normal to both vectors e_1 and e_2), $|g| = \det g_{ij}$ and g_{ij} is the induced Riemannian metric on the surface defined as

$$\sum_1^3 (dx^\mu)^2 = g_{ij}(u) du^i du^j. \quad (93)$$

Therefore, the above formula simplifies to

$$\int_U \alpha = \int_U (*\alpha) \cdot n \sqrt{|g|} du^1 \wedge du^2. \quad (94)$$