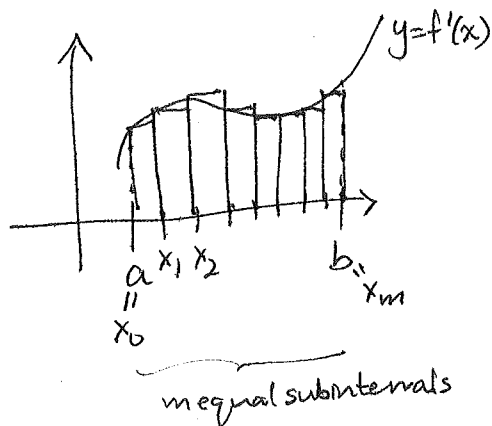


(124) What is slippery here is that the approximations " \approx " have ~~small~~ small errors, and the errors have to be summed over sums that have more and more terms, so one might worry that they don't stay arbitrarily small!

5/1/2017 REASSURANCE 1:

The book sketches its 2nd proof of Fund'l Thm. of Calculus, and bounds the errors ...



with $f \in C^2(U)$ for some $U \supset [a,b]$

Informally first, for m large

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx \quad \textcircled{A} \quad \approx \quad \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} f'(x_i)(x_{i+1}-x_i) \quad \textcircled{B_m} \quad \approx \quad \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i)) \quad \textcircled{C_m} = f(b) - f(a)$$

telescoping sum

because Mean Value Thm. gives some $c_i \in (x_i, x_{i+1})$ with $f(x_{i+1}) - f(x_i) = f'(c_i)(x_{i+1} - x_i)$, and $f \in C^1 \Rightarrow f'(c_i) \approx f'(x_i)$

To bound the errors, given $\epsilon > 0$, suffices to show $\exists M$ such that $\forall m \geq M$

$$|\textcircled{A} - \textcircled{B_m}| < \epsilon$$

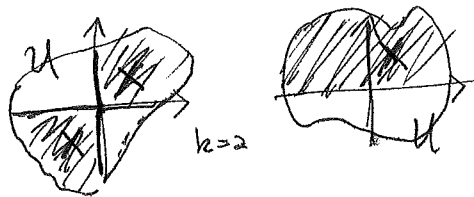
$$\text{and } |\textcircled{B_m} - \textcircled{C_m}| < \epsilon.$$

For $|\textcircled{A} - \textcircled{B_m}| < \epsilon$, this is just Riemann integrability of f' , which is continuous on $[a,b]$, since $f \in C^2(U)$ for $[a,b] \subset U$.

For $|\textcircled{B_m} - \textcircled{C_m}| < \epsilon$, use uniform continuity of f' on $[a,b]$ (f' is continuous, $[a,b]$ is compact) to choose M so $m \geq M$ implies $|f'(c_i) - f'(x_i)| \leq \epsilon$

$$\text{and then } |\textcircled{B_m} - \textcircled{C_m}| = \left| \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} f'(x_i)(x_{i+1}-x_i) - \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} f'(c_i)(x_{i+1}-x_i) \right| = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} |f'(x_i) - f'(c_i)| (x_{i+1}-x_i) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \epsilon (x_{i+1}-x_i) \leq \epsilon(b-a).$$

(125) REASSURANCE 2: The book proves a very special case where one can similarly bound the errors in PROP 6.9.7, where $k=n$ i.e. $X \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ and X is a union of closed quadrants intersected with $U \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ bounded



They then use this as a Lemma in the full proof in App. A.26, but there are a lot more technicalities, and one needs pull-backs of differential forms (which are not hard), etc.

§6.12 Closed versus exact forms & potentials

DEFIN (not in book) A k -form $\varphi \in A^k(U)$ for $U^{\text{open}} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called closed if $d\varphi = 0$
exact if $\varphi = d\omega$ for some $\omega \in A^{k+1}(U)$

EXAMPLES:

① Since $d(d\omega) = 0$, exact \Rightarrow closed always (but we'll see the converse depends on whether U has "holes" !)

② For $\vec{F}: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ a vector field
 or $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$)

$\varphi = W_{\vec{F}}$ closed means $\text{curl}(\vec{F}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
exact means $\vec{F} = \nabla f$ for some $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (potential)
 (or $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)

③ For example, if $\vec{F} = \frac{1}{x^2+y^2} \begin{pmatrix} -y \\ x \end{pmatrix}: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ (NOTE: $\varphi = d\theta$ where $\theta(\frac{y}{x}) = \tan^{-1}(\frac{y}{x})$ from polar coords)
 then we claim $\varphi \equiv W_{\vec{F}} = \frac{-y}{x^2+y^2} dx + \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} dy$ is closed, but not exact
 $\in A^1(U)$ where $U = \mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0,0)\}$

(126) Check: $d\varphi = d\left(-\frac{y}{x^2+y^2} dx + \frac{x}{x^2+y^2} dy\right)$

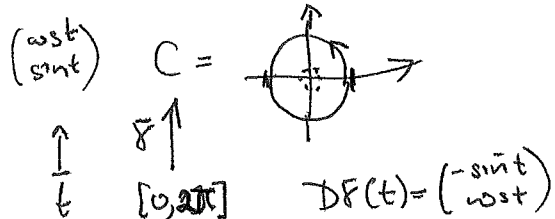
$$= \frac{(x^2+y^2)(-1) - (-y)(2y)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} dy \wedge dx + \frac{(x^2+y^2)(+1) - (x)(2x)}{(x^2+y^2)^2} dx \wedge y$$

$$= \frac{1}{(x^2+y^2)^2} \left[\underbrace{2(x^2+y^2)}_0 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 \right] dx \wedge dy = 0 \checkmark$$

So φ is closed.

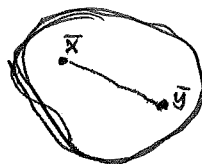
But $\varphi \neq df$ for some $f \in A^0(U)$, else one would have

$$0 = \int_C \varphi = \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\underbrace{-\sin t}_{\frac{-y}{x^2+y^2}} \cdot dx + \underbrace{\cos t}_{\frac{x}{x^2+y^2}} \cdot dy \right) dt = \int_0^{2\pi} dt = 2\pi$$

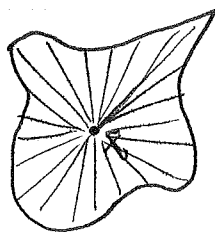


The key thing here was the "hole" at $(0,0)$ in U .

This can never happen if U is convex, i.e. $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in U \Rightarrow$ the line segment $[\bar{x}, \bar{y}] := \{t\bar{x} + (1-t)\bar{y} : t \in [0,1]\} \subset U$



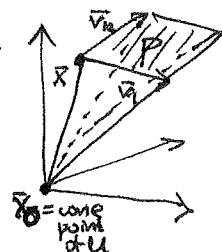
or even more generally if U is star-shaped, i.e. $\exists \bar{x}_0 \in U$ with $[\bar{x}_0, \bar{y}] \subset U \forall \bar{y} \in U$



for this reason...

DEFIN 6.12.7: Given a star-shaped $U^{\text{open}} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, one can define the cone operator $A^k(U) \xrightarrow{c} A^{k+1}(U)$
 $\varphi \longmapsto c\varphi$

by $c\varphi(P_{\bar{x}}(\bar{v}_1, \dots, \bar{v}_{k-1})) := \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h^{k-1}} \int_{\text{cone}(P_{\bar{x}}(h\bar{v}_1, \dots, h\bar{v}_{k-1}))} \varphi$ where $\text{cone}(P) =$



(124) and then...

THM 6.12.12 (Poincaré's lemma) For star-shaped $U^{\text{open}} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$,

any k -form $\varphi \in A^k(U)$ has

$$\varphi = d(c\varphi) + c(d\varphi)$$

and hence any closed k -form ($d\varphi=0$) has $\varphi = d(c\varphi)$ exact.

We don't have time to prove this, but it's not hard - see §6.12.