

# trial-exam-f24

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## 1 Written (Trial) Exam for 01002/01004 Mathematics 1b, Suggested Solutions

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```
[3]: from sympy import *
      from dtumathtools import *

      init_printing()
```

### 1.1 Exercise 1

We are given the two partial derivatives, so the following gradient, of a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

```
[4]: x, y = symbols("x y")
      fx = 6 * x - 6 * y
      fy = 6 * y**2 - 6 * x
      fx, fy
```

```
[4]: (6x - 6y, -6x + 6y2)
```

#### 1.1.1 (a)

Setting them equal to zero and solving for all solutions results in all stationary points:

```
[5]: statpt = solve([Eq(fx, 0), Eq(fy, 0)])
      statpt
```

```
[5]: [{x : 0, y : 0}, {x : 1, y : 1}]
```

So,  $f$  has the two stationary points,  $(0,0)$  and  $(1,1)$ .

#### 1.1.2 (b)

Second-order partial derivatives:

```
[6]: fxx = diff(fx, x)
      fxy = diff(fx, y)
      fyx = diff(fy, x)
      fyy = diff(fy, y)
```

```
fxx, fxy, fyx, fyy
```

[6]: (6, -6, -6, 12y)

We see that the two partial mixed double derivatives are equal. Since  $f$  also is defined on all of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , then  $f$  is two-time differentiable (smooth).

The Hessian matrix  $H_f(x, y)$ :

```
[7]: H = Lambda(tuple([x, y]), Matrix([[fxx, fxy], [fyx, fyy]]))
H(x, y)
```

[7]:  $\begin{bmatrix} 6 & -6 \\ -6 & 12y \end{bmatrix}$

With no boundary given, extrema can only be found at stationary points or exceptional points. Since  $f$  is smooth and defined on all of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , there are no exceptional points. So, we investigate the eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix at the stationary points:

```
[8]: H(0, 0).eigenvals()
```

[8]:  $\{3 - 3\sqrt{5} : 1, 3 + 3\sqrt{5} : 1\}$

The eigenvalues have different signs, so according to Theorem 5.2.4,  $(0, 0)$  is a saddle point.

```
[9]: lambdas = H(1, 1).eigenvals(multiple=True)
lambdas[0].evalf(), lambdas[1].evalf()
```

[9]: (2.29179606750063, 15.7082039324994)

The eigenvalues are both positive, indicating a local minimum at  $(1, 1)$ .

There are no more possible extremum points, so  $f$  has no maximum.

### 1.1.3 (c)

We are now informed that  $f(0, 0) = 1$ . For the 2nd-degree Taylor approximating expanded from  $x_0 = (0, 0)$ , we need the 1st-order and 2nd-order partial derivatives evaluated at  $(0, 0)$ :

$$\frac{\partial f(0, 0)}{\partial x} = 0, \frac{\partial f(0, 0)}{\partial y} = 0, \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial x^2} = 6, \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial y^2} = 0, \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial y \partial x} = -6$$

Setting up the approximation:

$$\begin{aligned} P_2(x, y) &= f(0, 0) + \frac{\partial f(0, 0)}{\partial x}(x-0) + \frac{\partial f(0, 0)}{\partial y}(y-0) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial x^2}(x-0)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial y^2}(x-0)^2 + \frac{\partial^2 f(0, 0)}{\partial x \partial y}(x-0)(y-0) \\ &= 1 + 0 + 0 + \frac{1}{2} 6x^2 + 0 - 6xy \\ &= 3x^2 - 6xy + 1 \end{aligned}$$

## 1.2 Exercise 2

A function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is given by  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f(x) = \sin(x)/x$  when  $x \neq 0$ .

### 1.2.1 (a)

3rd-degree Taylor polynomial of  $\sin(x)$  expanded from  $x_0 = 0$ :

```
[10]: sin(x).series(x, 0, 4)
```

```
[10]: x - x3 / 6 + O(x4)
```

So, the Taylor polynomial of degree 3 is  $P_3(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{6}$ .

```
[11]: P3 = x - x**3 / 6
P3, sin(x).series(x, 0, 4).removeO()
```

```
[11]: ( -x3 / 6 + x, -x3 / 6 + x )
```

### 1.2.2 (b)

The Taylor expansion (Taylor's limit formula) of  $\sin(x)$  is:

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \varepsilon(x)x^3$$

where  $\varepsilon(x)$  is an epsilon function.

We find the following limit value:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \varepsilon(x)x^3}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( 1 - \frac{x^2}{6} + \varepsilon(x)x^2 \right) = 1.$$

### 1.2.3 (c)

According to remark to theorem 3.1.1 in the note,  $f$  is continuous in all points in the interval  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ . In (b) we showed that  $\sin(x)/x$  converges towards 1 for  $x \rightarrow 0$ . By the given definition,  $f(0) = 1$ , and thus  $f(x) \rightarrow f(0)$  for  $x \rightarrow 0$ , so  $f$  is also continuous in  $x = 0$ .

### 1.2.4 (d)

Defining the function for  $]0, 1]$  :

```
[12]: def f(x):
      return sin(x) / x

f(x)
```

```
[12]:
```

$$\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$$

Computing a decimal approximation of  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$  using SymPy:

```
[13]: integrate(f(x), (x, 0, 1)).evalf()
```

```
[13]: 0.946083070367183
```

### 1.2.5 (e)

We will compute a Riemann sum as an approximation of the area under the graph of  $f$  by subdividing the interval  $[0, 1]$  into  $J = 30$  subintervals with equal widths of  $\Delta x_j = 1/30$  and finding the right-sum. For such a sum,  $x_j = j/J$  for  $j = 1, \dots, J$ :

```
[14]: j = symbols("j")

delta_xj = 1 / 30
J = 30
xj = j / J

Sum(f(xj) * delta_xj, (j, 1, 30)).evalf()
```

```
[14]: 0.943413033821518
```

Alternatively, using a for loop:

```
[15]: riemann_sum = 0
N = 30
for i in range(1, N + 1):
    riemann_sum += sin(i / N) / (i / N) * 1 / N

riemann_sum
```

```
[15]: 0.943413033821518
```

### 1.2.6 (f)

Computing  $\int_0^1 P_3(x) dx$ :

```
[16]: integrate(P3, (x, 0, 1)).evalf()
```

```
[16]: 0.458333333333333
```

This approximation of the integral is worse than the approximation using a Riemann sum in the previous question, since a Taylor polynomial of  $\sin(x)$  does not approximate  $f$  very well. However, it would have been sensible to use:

```
[17]: integrate(P3 / x, (x, 0, 1)).evalf()
```

```
[17]: 0.944444444444444
```

### 1.3 Exercise 3

Given matrix  $C_t$  where  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ :

```
[18]: t = symbols("t")
Ct = Matrix([[1, 2, 3, 4], [4, 1, 2, 3], [3, 4, 1, 2], [t, 3, 4, 1]])
Ct
```

```
[18]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ t & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

#### 1.3.1 (a)

The unitary matrix  $C_t^*$  is the transposed and conjugated matrix. Since  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , there are no non-real numbers involved, and the conjugation can be ignored. The unitary matrix is thus the transposed matrix,  $C_t^* = C_t^T$ :

```
[19]: Ct_uni = Ct.T
Ct_uni
```

```
[19]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & t \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

$C_t$  is a normal matrix if  $C_t C_t^* = C_t^* C_t$ , so if  $C_t C_t^T = C_t^T C_t$ , which is solved for  $t$ :

```
[20]: Ct_uni * Ct
```

```
[20]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} t^2 + 26 & 3t + 18 & 4t + 14 & t + 22 \\ 3t + 18 & 30 & 24 & 22 \\ 4t + 14 & 24 & 30 & 24 \\ t + 22 & 22 & 24 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

```
[21]: Ct * Ct_uni
```

```
[21]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 30 & 24 & 22 & t + 22 \\ 24 & 30 & 24 & 4t + 14 \\ 22 & 24 & 30 & 3t + 18 \\ t + 22 & 4t + 14 & 3t + 18 & t^2 + 26 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

```
[22]: solve(Eq(Ct * Ct_uni, Ct_uni * Ct))
```

```
[22]: 
$$\{t: 2\}$$

```

So, only for  $t = 2$  is  $C_t$  normal.

#### 1.3.2 (b) and (c)

Defining  $A = C_2$ :

```
[23]: A = Ct.subs(t, 2)
A
```

```
[23]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

Given eigenvectors:

```
[24]: v1 = Matrix([1, 1, 1, 1])
v2 = Matrix([1, I, -1, -I])
```

Treating  $A$  as a mapping matrix and mapping the eigenvectors:

```
[25]: A * v1, A * v2
```

```
[25]: 
$$\left( \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 - 2i \\ 2 - 2i \\ 2 + 2i \\ -2 + 2i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

```

From this we read the scaling factors, which are the eigenvalues corresponding to the given eigenvectors, to be  $\lambda_1 = 10$  and  $\lambda_2 = -2 - 2i$ :

```
[26]: lambda1 = 10
lambda2 = -2 - 2 * I
```

Check:

```
[27]: A * v1 == lambda1 * v1, A * v2 == simplify(lambda2 * v2)
```

```
[27]: (True, True)
```

### 1.3.3 (d)

Orthogonality is equivalent to an inner product of zero. The inner product of two complex vectors from  $\mathbb{C}^4$  is a dot product with one vector complex conjugated,  $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = v_1 \cdot \bar{v}_2$ :

```
[28]: v1.dot(v2.conjugate())
```

```
[28]: 0
```

We conclude that they are orthogonal,  $v_1 \perp v_2$ .

### 1.3.4 (e)

The norm is the root of the inner product of a vector with itself, e.g.  $\|v_1\| = \sqrt{\langle v_1, v_1 \rangle}$ . Since  $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}^4$  we can use the usual dot product without conjugation as the inner product for that one. We compute the norms of both eigenvectors:

```
[29]: sqrt(v1.dot(v1))
```

```
[29]: 2
```

```
[30]: sqrt(v2.dot(v2.conjugate()))
```

```
[30]: 2
```

As their norms are not 1, they are not normalized. The list  $v_1, v_2$  is hence orthogonal but *not* orthonormal.

## 1.4 Exercise 4

Given quadratic form  $q: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

```
[31]: def q(x1, x2):  
       return 2 * x1**2 - 2 * x1 * x2 + 2 * x2**2 - 4 * x1 + 2 * x2 + 2  
  
x1, x2 = symbols("x1,x2")  
q(x1, x2)
```

```
[31]: 2x12 - 2x1x2 - 4x1 + 2x22 + 2x2 + 2
```

### 1.4.1 (a)

For rewriting to matrix form  $q(x_1, x_2) = x^T A x + x^T b + c$ , then  $A$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  can be as follows:

```
[32]: A = Matrix([[2, -1], [-1, 2]])  
b = Matrix([-4, 2])  
c = 2  
A, b, c
```

```
[32]: ( ([ 2  -1], [-4], 2 )  
       ( [-1  2], [ 2], 2 ) )
```

Checking:

```
[33]: x = Matrix([x1, x2])  
  
simplify(list(x.T * A * x + x.T * b)[0] + c)
```

```
[33]: 2x12 - 2x1x2 - 4x1 + 2x22 + 2x2 + 2
```

```
[34]: simplify(list(x.T * A * x + x.T * b)[0] + c) == q(x1, x2)
```

```
[34]: True
```

### 1.4.2 (b)

We will now reduce the quadratic form  $q$  to new form called  $q_1$  without “mixed double terms” by changing the basis using an orthogonal change-of-basis matrix  $Q$  that changes from new to original coordinates, meaning  $\tilde{x} = Q^T x$ . Such  $Q$  consists of orthonormalized eigenvectors of  $A$  as columns.

```
[35]: A.eigenvects()
```

```
[35]: [(1, 1, [[1], [1]]), (3, 1, [[-1], [1]])]
```

$A$  has the two linearly independent eigenvectors:

```
[36]: v1 = Matrix([1, 1])
v2 = Matrix([-1, 1])
v1, v2
```

```
[36]: ([1, -1], [1, 1])
```

Also,  $A$  has a corresponding eigenvalue to each eigenvector:

```
[37]: lambda1 = 1
lambda2 = 3
lambda1, lambda2
```

```
[37]: (1, 3)
```

Since  $A$  is symmetric, then  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are orthogonal, according to Theorem xx. We normalize them:

```
[38]: q1 = v1.normalized()
q2 = v2.normalized()
q1, q2
```

```
[38]: ([sqrt(2)/2, sqrt(2)/2], [-sqrt(2)/2, sqrt(2)/2])
```

A change-of-basis matrix  $Q$  is then:

```
[39]: Q = Matrix.hstack(q1, q2)
Q
```

```
[39]: [sqrt(2)/2, -sqrt(2)/2]
[sqrt(2)/2, sqrt(2)/2]
```

This can also be found directly by

```
[40]: Qmat, Lamda = A.diagonalize(normalize=True)
Qmat
```

```
[40]:
```



$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

### 1.4.3 (c)

The new coordinates  $\tilde{x}$  are in code denoted by  $k$ :

```
[41]: k1, k2 = symbols("k1 k2")
      k = Matrix([k1, k2])
      k
```

```
[41]:  $\begin{bmatrix} k_1 \\ k_2 \end{bmatrix}$ 
```

In the new coordinates, the squared terms have coefficients equal to the eigenvalues of  $A$  that correspond to the eigenvectors in  $Q$ , which were found above, in the same order. We set up the new form  $q_1$  in the new coordinates, where the original linear terms from  $x^T b$  are changed to the new basis by performing  $\tilde{x}^T Q^T b$ :

```
[42]: q1 = lambda1 * k1**2 + lambda2 * k2**2 + list(k.T * Q.T * b)[0] + c
      q1
```

```
[42]:  $k_1^2 - \sqrt{2}k_1 + 3k_2^2 + 3\sqrt{2}k_2 + 2$ 
```

Check:

```
[43]: simplify(list(k.T * Q.T * A * Q * k + k.T * Q.T * b)[0] + c)
```

```
[43]:  $k_1^2 - \sqrt{2}k_1 + 3k_2^2 + 3\sqrt{2}k_2 + 2$ 
```

Factorizing by completing the square gives us the following suggestions to the constants:

```
[44]: alpha = 1
      gamma = sqrt(2) / 2
      beta = 3
      delta = -sqrt(2) / 2
      alpha, gamma, beta, delta
```

```
[44]:  $\left(1, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, 3, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)$ 
```

Setting up the suggested factorized form of  $q_1$  to see if it fits:

```
[45]: q1_fact = (
      alpha * (k1 - gamma) ** 2
      - alpha * gamma**2
      + beta * (k2 - delta) ** 2
      - beta * delta**2
      + 2
      )
      q1_fact
```

[45]: 
$$\left(k_1 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)^2 + 3\left(k_2 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right)^2$$

[46]: `expand(q1_fact)`

[46]: 
$$k_1^2 - \sqrt{2}k_1 + 3k_2^2 + 3\sqrt{2}k_2 + 2$$

[47]: `expand(q1_fact) == q1`

[47]: True

We see that the above listed four constants give us the wanted factorized form from the problem text, which is a correct factorization of  $q_1$ .

#### 1.4.4 (d)

We are informed that  $q_1$  in the new coordinates has a stationary point at  $(\gamma, \delta)$  with the values of the constants found in (c):

[48]: `k_statpt = Matrix([gamma, delta])`  
`k_statpt`

[48]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The point written in the original coordinates:

[49]: `x_statpt = Q * k_statpt`  
`x_statpt`

[49]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Hessian matrix of  $q$  is by definition  $H_q = 2A$ . Since the eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive at all points, then the eigenvalues of  $H_q$  are also positive at all points. Thus, also positive at any stationary points. According to Theorem 5.2.4, if the point  $(1, 0)$  is a stationary point, then two positive eigenvalues indicate that it is a local minimum.

### 1.5 Exercise 5

Given parametrization of a solid region, for  $u \in [0, 1], v \in [0, 1], w \in [0, \pi/2]$ :

[50]: `def r(u, v, w):`  
 `return Matrix([v * u**2 * cos(w), v * u**2 * sin(w), u])`

`u, v, w = symbols("u v w")`  
`r(u, v, w)`

[50]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u^2 v \cos(w) \\ u^2 v \sin(w) \\ u \end{bmatrix}$$

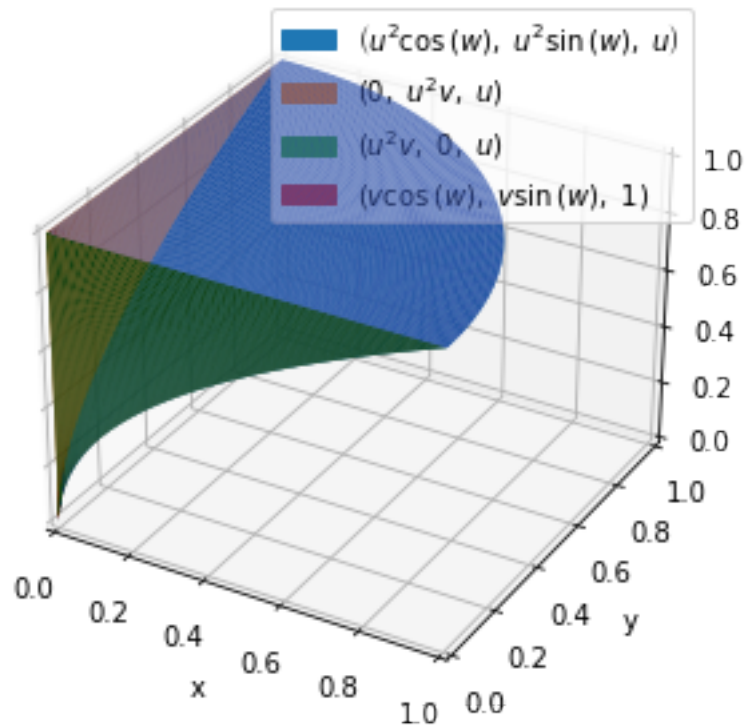
We note that  $r$  is injective within the interior of the given parameter intervals.

### 1.5.1 (a)

Plotting the region:

```
[86]: from sympy.plotting import *

pa = dtuplot.plot3d_parametric_surface(
    *r(u, v, w).subs(v, 1), (u, 0, 1), (w, 0, pi / 2), show=False
)
pb = dtuplot.plot3d_parametric_surface(
    *r(u, v, w).subs(w, pi / 2), (u, 0, 1), (v, 0, 1), show=False
)
pc = dtuplot.plot3d_parametric_surface(
    *r(u, v, w).subs(w, 0), (u, 0, 1), (v, 0, 1), show=False
)
pd = dtuplot.plot3d_parametric_surface(
    *r(u, v, w).subs(u, 1),
    (v, 0, 1),
    (w, 0, pi / 2),
    {"color": "royalblue", "alpha": 0.7},
    show=False
)
(pa + pb + pc + pd).show()
```



The Jacobian matrix:

```
[51]: Jac_mat = Matrix.hstack(diff(r(u, v, w), u), diff(
      r(u, v, w), v), diff(r(u, v, w), w))
      Jac_mat
```

```
[51]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2uv \cos(w) & u^2 \cos(w) & -u^2 v \sin(w) \\ 2uv \sin(w) & u^2 \sin(w) & u^2 v \cos(w) \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

The Jacobian determinant:

```
[52]: Jac_det = simplify(Jac_mat.det())
      Jac_det
```

```
[52]:  $u^4 v$ 
```

### 1.5.2 (b)

Given vector field:

```
[53]: x, y, z = symbols("x y z")
      V = Matrix([x + exp(y * z), 2 * y - exp(x * z), 3 * z + exp(x * y)])
      V
```

```
[53]:
```

$$\begin{bmatrix} x + e^{yz} \\ 2y - e^{xz} \\ 3z + e^{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$

Given function:

```
[54]: f = Lambda(tuple((x, y, z)), diff(V[0], x) + diff(V[1], y) + diff(V[2], z))
      f(x, y, z)
```

[54]: 6

### 1.5.3 (c)

We see above that  $f$  is a constant and thus continuous function. A continuous function satisfying the conditions (I) and (II) on page 140, are guaranteed to be Riemann integrable, according to the remark after definition 6.3.1.

### 1.5.4 (d)

Since  $r$  is injective and since the Jacobian determinant is non-zero within the interior of the parameter intervals, then we can compute the volume integral of  $f$  over the solid region by integrating along the axis-parallel  $u, v, w$  region and adjusted by the Jacobian function, which is the absolute value of the Jacobian determinant in this case:

```
[55]: integrate(f(*r(u, v, w)) * abs(Jac_det), (u, 0, 1), (v, 0, 1), (w, 0, pi / 2))
```

[55]:  $\frac{3\pi}{10}$

## 1.6 Exercise 6

Given elevated surface:  $G = \{(x, y, h(x, y)) | 0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ , where  $h$  is given as:

```
[56]: def h(x, y):
      return 2 * x - y + 1

      x, y = symbols("x y")
      h(x, y)
```

[56]:  $2x - y + 1$

### 1.6.1 (a)

Parametrisation of  $G$ :

```
[59]: r = Lambda(tuple((u, v)), Matrix([u, v, h(u, v)]))

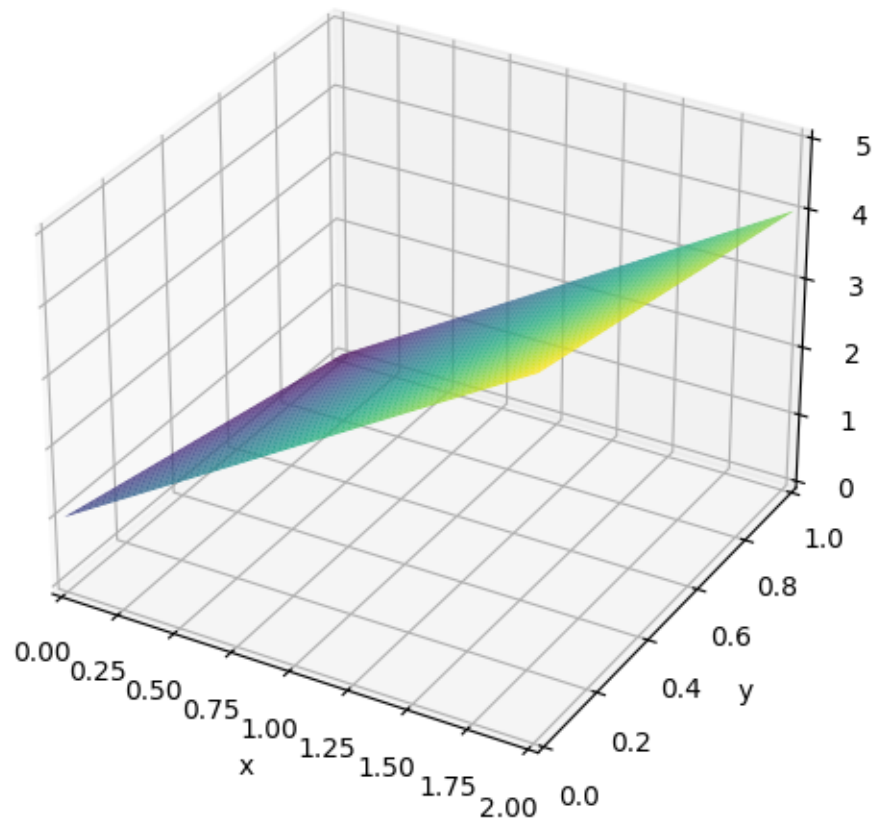
      u, v = symbols("u v")
      r(u, v)
```

[59]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 2u - v + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

wich parameter intervals  $u \in [0, 2], v \in [0, 1]$ . This parametrization is injective in the interior. Plot:

```
[62]: plot3d_parametric_surface(*r(u, v), (u, 0, 2), (v, 0, 1))
```



```
[62]: <sympy.plotting.plot.Plot at 0x1ade1d2a1e0>
```

Normal vector to the surface:

```
[63]: N = diff(r(u, v), u).cross(diff(r(u, v), v))
N
```

```
[63]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

The Jacobian function in case of surface integrals is the length (norm) of the normal vector:

```
[64]: Jac = N.norm()
      Jac
```

```
[64]:  $\sqrt{6}$ 
```

The area of  $G$  is found as a surface integral of the scalar 1 over the surface. Since  $r$  is injective and the Jacobian function is non-zero on the interior, then we will carry out the surface integral along  $u$  and  $v$  and adjust by the Jacobian:

```
[65]: integrate(Jac, (u, 0, 2), (v, 0, 1))
```

```
[65]:  $2\sqrt{6}$ 
```

### 1.6.2 (b)

The region is now cut in two by a vertical plane through the points  $(0, 1)$  and  $(2, 0)$ . This cuts the region in the  $(x, y)$  plane into two triangles, of which we denote the “lower” triangle by  $\Gamma_1$ . Parametrized, where  $u \in [0, 2], v \in [0, 1]$ :

```
[66]: s = Matrix([u, (1 - u/2) * v])
      s
```

```
[66]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v(1 - \frac{u}{2}) \end{bmatrix}$$

```

The elevated surface above  $\Gamma_1$  is denoted  $G_1$ . A parametrization of  $G_1$ , where  $u \in [0, 2], v \in [0, 1]$ :

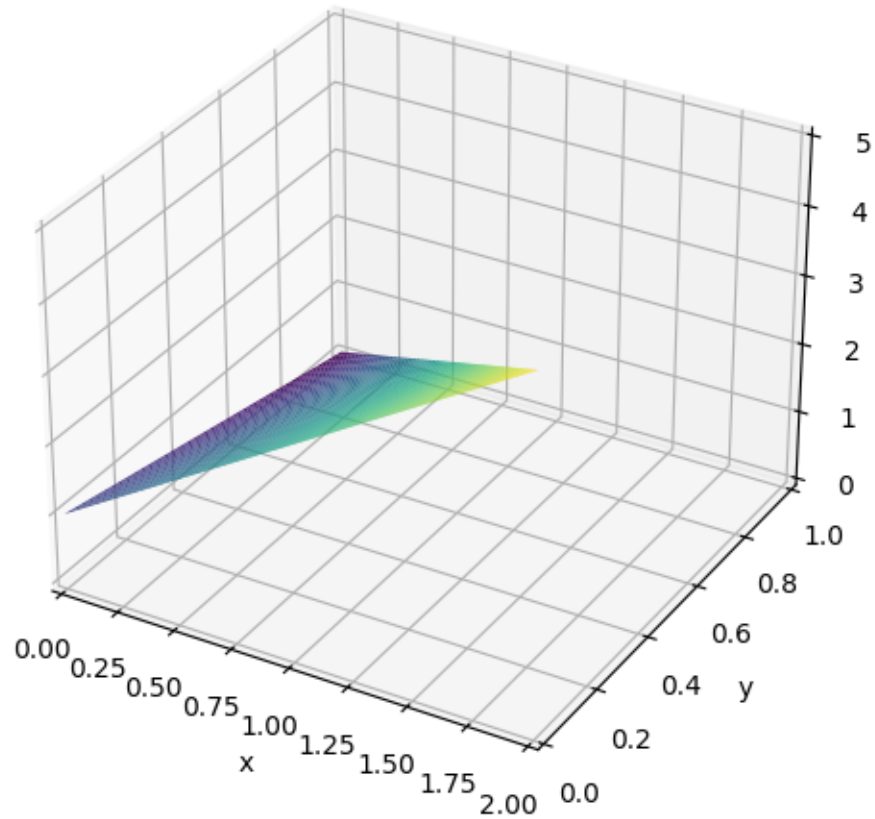
```
[67]: r1 = Lambda(tuple((u, v)), Matrix([*s, h(*s)]))
      r1(u, v)
```

```
[67]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} u \\ v(1 - \frac{u}{2}) \\ 2u - v(1 - \frac{u}{2}) + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

```

Plot:

```
[68]: plot3d_parametric_surface(*r1(u, v), (u, 0, 2), (v, 0, 1))
```



[68]: <sympy.plotting.plot.Plot at 0x1ade4632570>

Normal vector:

```
[69]: N1 = simplify(diff(r1(u, v), u).cross(diff(r1(u, v), v)))
N1
```

[69]: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} u - 2 \\ 1 - \frac{u}{2} \\ 1 - \frac{u}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Jacobian function:

```
[70]: simplify(N1.norm())
```

[70]: 
$$\frac{\sqrt{6} |u - 2|}{2}$$

Since  $u \leq 2$ , we simplify to:

```
[71]: Jac1 = -sqrt(6) * (u - 2)/2
Jac1
```



[71]: 
$$-\frac{\sqrt{6}(u-2)}{2}$$

### 1.6.3 (c)

Given function

```
[72]: def f(x, y, z):  
      return x + y + z - 1  
  
f(x, y, z)
```

[72]:  $x + y + z - 1$

Surface integral of  $f$  over  $G_1$  is performed over the parameter region since  $r_1$  is injective and the Jacobian function non-zero on the interior of  $\Gamma_1$ :

```
[73]: integrate(f(*r1(u, v)) * Jac1, (u, 0, 2), (v, 0, 1))
```

[73]:  $2\sqrt{6}$