## Chapter 9: Functions of Several Variables

Author: Meng-Gen Tsai Email: plover@gmail.com

**Exercise 9.1.** If S is a nonempty subset of a vector space X, prove (as asserted in Section 9.1) that the span of S is a vector space.

Denote the span of S by span(S).

Proof.

- (1) Since  $S \neq \emptyset$ , there is  $\mathbf{z} \in S$ . So  $1\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z} \in \text{span}(S) \neq \emptyset$ . (In fact,  $\text{span}(S) \supseteq S$ .)
- (2) If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \text{span}(S)$ , then there exist elements  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m, \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_n \in S$  and scalars  $a_1, \dots, a_m, b_1, \dots, b_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{x} = a_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + a_m \mathbf{x}_m,$$
  
$$\mathbf{y} = b_1 \mathbf{y}_1 + \dots + b_n \mathbf{y}_n.$$

Then

$$\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = a_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + a_m \mathbf{x}_m + b_1 \mathbf{y}_1 + \dots + b_n \mathbf{y}_n$$

is a linear combination of the elements of S. For any scalar c,

$$c\mathbf{x} = (ca_1)\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + (ca_m)\mathbf{x}_m$$

is again linear combination of the elements of S.

(3) By (1)(2), span(S) is a vector space.

*Note.* Any subspace of X that contains S must also contain span(S).

**Exercise 9.2.** Prove (as asserted in Section 9.6) that BA is linear if A and B are linear transformations. Prove also that  $A^{-1}$  is linear and invertible if A is invertible.

*Proof.* Use the notation in Definitions 9.6.

(1) Show that BA is linear if A and B are linear transformations. Let X, Y, Z be vector spaces,  $A \in L(X, Y)$  and  $B \in L(Y, Z)$ .

(a) Given any  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$ .

$$(BA)(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = B(A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2))$$
  
=  $B(A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2)$  (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $B(A\mathbf{x}_1) + B(A\mathbf{x}_2)$  (B is a linear transformation)  
=  $(BA)\mathbf{x}_1 + (BA)\mathbf{x}_2$ .

(b) For any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and scalar c,

$$(BA)(c\mathbf{x}) = B(A(c\mathbf{x}))$$
  
=  $B(cA\mathbf{x})$  (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $cB(A\mathbf{x})$  (B is a linear transformation)  
=  $c(BA)\mathbf{x}$ .

By (a)(b),  $BA \in L(X, Z)$ .

- (2) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is linear if A is invertible.
  - (a) Given any  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in X$ . Since A is surjective, there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  such that

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_1$$
$$\mathbf{y}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_2.$$

So

$$A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_1 = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_1) = \mathbf{x}_1$$
  
 $A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_2 = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{x}_2$ 

(by Definitions 9.4). Hence

$$A^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2) = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$= A^{-1}(A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2)) \quad (A \text{ is a linear transformation})$$

$$= \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 \qquad (Definitions 9.4)$$

$$= A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_1 + A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_2.$$

(b) For any  $\mathbf{y} \in X$  and scalar c, there is a corresponding  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  such that  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$  since A is surjective. So  $A^{-1}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$  by Definition 9.4. Hence

$$A^{-1}(c\mathbf{y}) = A^{-1}(cA\mathbf{x})$$
  
=  $A^{-1}(A(c\mathbf{x}))$  (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $c\mathbf{x}$  (Definitions 9.4)  
=  $cA^{-1}\mathbf{y}$ .

By (a)(b),  $A^{-1} \in L(X)$ .

- (3) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is invertible if A is invertible. It suffices to show that  $A^{-1}$  is injective and surjective.
  - (a) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is injective. Given any  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in X$ . Since A is surjective, there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  such that

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_1$$
$$\mathbf{y}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_2.$$

Suppose  $A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_1 = A^{-1}\mathbf{y}_2$ . So  $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_1) = A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}_2)$ , or  $\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_2$ , or  $\mathbf{y}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{y}_2$ .

(b) Show that  $A^{-1}$  is surjective. For any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ , there exists  $A\mathbf{x} \in X$  such that  $A^{-1}(A\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$  by Definitions 9.4.

**Exercise 9.3.** Assume  $A \in L(X,Y)$  and  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  only when  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . Prove that A is then 1-1.

*Proof.* Suppose  $A\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{y}$ . Since A is a linear transformation,  $A(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = A\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ . By assumption,  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ .  $\square$ 

Exercise 9.4. Prove (as asserted in Section 9.30) that null spaces and ranges of linear transformations are vector spaces.

*Proof.* Use the notation in Definitions 9.30. Suppose X, Y are vector spaces, and  $A \in L(X,Y)$ , as in Definition 9.6.

- (1) Show that  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  is a vector space in X.
  - (a) Note that  $\mathbf{0} \in X$ . Since  $A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{N}(A) \neq \emptyset$ .
  - (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) &= A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2 & \quad (A \text{ is a linear transformation}) \\ &= \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} & \quad (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{N}(A)) \\ &= \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned}$$

So  $\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ .

(c) Suppose  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$  and c is a scalar. Then

$$A(c\mathbf{x}) = cA\mathbf{x}$$
 (A is a linear transformation)  
=  $c\mathbf{0}$  ( $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ )  
=  $\mathbf{0}$ .

So  $c\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ .

By (a)(b)(c),  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  is a vector space.

- (2) Show that  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is a vector space in Y.
  - (a) Note that  $\mathbf{0} \in X$ . So  $A\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{R}(A) \neq \emptyset$ .
  - (b) Suppose  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ . Then there exist  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in X$  such that  $A\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{y}_1$  and  $A\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{y}_2$ . Hence

$$\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2$$
  
=  $A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2)$  (A is a linear transformation).

So  $\mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}_2 \in \mathscr{R}(A)$ .

(c) Suppose  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}(A)$  and c is a scalar. Then there exists  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ . Hence

$$c\mathbf{y} = cA\mathbf{x}$$
  
=  $A(c\mathbf{x})$  (A is a linear transformation).

So  $c\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ .

By (a)(b)(c),  $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is a vector space.

**Exercise 9.5.** Prove that to every  $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^1)$  corresponds a unique  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ . Prove also that  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}|$ . (Hint: Under certain conditions, equality holds in the Schwarz inequality.)

Proof.

- (1) Recall that  $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  is the standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (Definitions 9.1). Given any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , write  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  as  $\mathbf{x} = \sum x_i \mathbf{e}_i$ .
- (2) Show that y exists. Since A is a linear transformation,

$$A\mathbf{x} = A\left(\sum x_j \mathbf{e}_j\right)$$

$$= \sum x_j A \mathbf{e}_j$$

$$= (x_1, \dots, x_n) \cdot (A \mathbf{e}_1, \dots, A \mathbf{e}_n)$$

$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot \sum (A \mathbf{e}_j) \mathbf{e}_j.$$

Define  $\mathbf{y} = \sum (A\mathbf{e}_i)\mathbf{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  so that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ .

(3) Show that **y** is unique. Suppose there exists some  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z}$ . So

$$0 = A\mathbf{x} - A\mathbf{x}$$
$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z}$$
$$= \mathbf{x} \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z})$$

for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . In particular, take  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  to get

$$0 = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}) \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}) = |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}|^2$$

or y - z = 0 or y = z.

(4) Show that  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}|$ . By the Schwarz inequality (Theorem 1.37(d)),

$$|A\mathbf{x}| = |\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \le |\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}| \le |\mathbf{y}|$$

as  $|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$ . Take the sup over all  $|\mathbf{x}| \leq 1$  to get

$$||A|| \leq |\mathbf{y}|.$$

If  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $||A|| = |\mathbf{y}| = 0$ . If  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then the equality holds when  $\mathbf{x} = \frac{\mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . (Here  $|\mathbf{x}| = 1$ .)

**Exercise 9.6.** If f(0,0) = 0 and

$$f(x,y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$
 if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ ,

prove that  $(D_1f)(x,y)$  and  $(D_2f)(x,y)$  exist at every point of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , although f is not continuous at (0,0).

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{y(y^2 - x^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

Write

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f((x,y) + t(1,0)) - f(x,y)}{t}$$
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x+t,y) - f(x,y)}{t}.$$

If (x, y) = (0, 0),

$$(D_1 f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0 - 0}{t} = 0.$$

If  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ ,

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x+t,y) - f(x,y)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{(x+t)y}{(x+t)^2 + y^2} - \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{y(y^2 - x^2) - txy}{((x+t)^2 + y^2)(x^2 + y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{y(y^2 - x^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

(2) Show that

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{x(x^2 - y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

Similar to (1).

(3) Show that f is not continuous at (0,0). Note that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f\left(\frac{1}{n},\frac{1}{n}\right) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n}\cdot\frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{n^2}+\frac{1}{n^2}} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} f\left(\frac{1}{n},0\right) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{0}{\frac{1}{n^2}+0} = \lim_{n\to\infty} 0 = 0.$$

Hence the limit  $\lim_{(x,y)\to(0,0)} f(x,y)$  does not exist.

## Exercise 9.7. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

## Exercise 9.8. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

Exercise 9.9. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

Exercise 9.10. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 9.11.** If f and g are differentiable real functions in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , prove that

$$\nabla(fg) = f\nabla g + g\nabla f$$

and that

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{f}\right) = -\frac{1}{f^2} \nabla f$$

whenever  $f \neq 0$ .

Proof. Recall Example 9.18:

$$(\nabla(f))(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_i f)(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{e}_i.$$

(1) Show that  $\nabla(fg) = f\nabla g + g\nabla f$ . For any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$(\nabla(fg))(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_i(fg))(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} (g(D_if) + f(D_ig))(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i \qquad (Theorem 5.3(b))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} [g(\mathbf{x})(D_if)(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{x})(D_ig)(\mathbf{x})] \mathbf{e}_i$$

$$= g(\mathbf{x}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_if)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i + f(\mathbf{x}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (D_ig)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i$$

$$= g(\mathbf{x})(\nabla f)(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{x})(\nabla g)(\mathbf{x})$$

$$= (f\nabla g + g\nabla f)(\mathbf{x}).$$

(2) Show that

$$\nabla\left(\frac{1}{f}\right) = -\frac{1}{f^2}\nabla f$$

whenever  $f \neq 0$ . Note that  $\nabla(1) = 0$  since

$$\nabla(1)(\mathbf{x}) = \sum (D_i 1)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i = \sum (0)(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{e}_i = \sum 0\mathbf{e}_i = 0.$$

Hence as  $f \neq 0$ , we have

$$0 = \nabla(1)$$

$$= \nabla \left( f \frac{1}{f} \right) \qquad (f \neq 0)$$

$$= f \nabla \left( \frac{1}{f} \right) + \frac{1}{f} \nabla f \qquad ((1)),$$

or 
$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{f}\right) = -\frac{1}{f^2} \nabla f$$
.

Exercise 9.12. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

**Exercise 9.13.** Suppose  $\mathbf{f}$  is a differentiable mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  into  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $|\mathbf{f}(t)| = 1$  for every t. Prove that  $\mathbf{f}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}(t) = 0$ . Interpret this result geometrically.

Proof.

(1) Write  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$  as a vector-valued function. By Remarks 5.16,  $\mathbf{f}$  is differentiable if and only if each  $f_1, f_2, f_3$  is differentiable. So  $\mathbf{f}' = (f'_1, f'_2, f_3)'$ . Hence

$$|\mathbf{f}(t)| = 1 \text{ for every } t$$

$$\iff \mathbf{f}(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}(t) = 1$$

$$\iff f_1(t)^2 + f_2(t)^2 + f_3(t)^2 = 1$$

$$\iff 2f_1(t)f_1'(t) + 2f_2(t)f_2'(t) + 2f_3(t)f_3'(t) = 0$$

$$\iff f_1(t)f_1'(t) + f_2(t)f_2'(t) + f_3(t)f_3'(t) = 0$$

$$\iff (f_1(t), f_2(t), f_3(t)) \cdot (f_1'(t), f_2'(t), f_3'(t)) = 0$$

$$\iff \mathbf{f}(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}'(t) = \mathbf{f}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{f}(t) = 0.$$

(2) The vector  $\mathbf{f}'(t)$  is called the **tangent vector** (or **velocity vector**) of  $\mathbf{f}$  at t. Geometrically, given any mapping  $\mathbf{f}$  lying on the sphere  $S^2$ , its tangent vector at t is lying on the tangent plane of  $S^2$  at t.

**Exercise 9.14.** Define f(0,0) = 0 and

$$f(x,y) = \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}$$
 if  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$ .

- (a) Prove that  $D_1f$  and  $D_2f$  are bounded functions in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . (Hence f is continuous.)
- (b) Let **u** be any unit vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Show that the directional derivative  $(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0)$  exists, and that its absolute value is at most 1.
- (c)
- (d)

Proof of (a).

(1) Show that

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{x^2 (x^2 + 3y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

If 
$$(x, y) = (0, 0)$$
,

$$(D_1 f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(t,0) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t - 0}{t} = 1.$$

If  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ ,

$$(D_1 f)(x,y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x+t,y) - f(x,y)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{(x+t)^3}{(x+t)^2 + y^2} - \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{x^2 (x^2 + 3y^2) + tx(2x^2 + 3y^2) + t^2(x^2 + y^2)}{((x+t)^2 + y^2)(x^2 + y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{x^2 (x^2 + 3y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

(Or differentiate directly.)

(2) Show that  $(D_1 f)(x, y)$  is bounded. It suffices to show that  $(D_1 f)(x, y)$  is bounded if  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Write  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$  in the polar coordinates. (Here r > 0.) Hence

$$(D_1 f)(x, y) = \frac{x^2(x^2 + 3y^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} = \cos^2 \theta (\cos^2 \theta + 3\sin^2 \theta)$$

is bounded by  $1 \cdot (1+3) = 4$ .

(3) Show that

$$(D_2 f)(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0), \\ \frac{-2x^3y}{(x^2+y^2)^2} & \text{if } (x,y) \neq (0,0). \end{cases}$$

If (x, y) = (0, 0),

$$(D_2 f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(0,t) - f(0,0)}{t} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{0-0}{t} = 0.$$

If  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ ,

$$(D_2 f)(x, y) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(x, y + t) - f(x, y)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{x^3}{x^2 + (y + t)^2} - \frac{x^3}{x^2 + y^2}}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{-2x^3y - tx^3}{(x^2 + (y + t)^2)(x^2 + y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{-2x^3y}{(x^2 + y^2)^2}.$$

(Or differentiate directly.)

(4) Show that $(D_2f)(x,y)$ is bounded. Similar to (2).
Exercise 9.15
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.16
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.17
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.18
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.19

 ${\it Proof.}$ 

(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.20
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.21
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.22
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.23
Proof.
(1)
(2)

Exercise 9.24
Exercise 9.24
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.25
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.26
Exercise 9.26  Proof.
Proof.
Proof. (1)
Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2) □
Proof. (1) (2) □ Exercise 9.27
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.27  Proof.
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.27  Proof. (1)
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.27  Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2) □  Exercise 9.27  Proof. (1) (2)

(1)	
(2)	
Exercise 9.29.	
Proof.	
(1)	
(2)	
Exercise 9.30.	
Proof.	
(1)	
(2)	
Exercise 9.31.	
Proof.	
(1)	
(2)	