Chapter 9: Functions of Several Variables

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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. Suppose that f is a real-valued function defined in an open set $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and that the partial derivatives $D_1 f, \ldots, D_n f$ are bounded in E. Prove that f is continuous in E. (Hint: Proceed as in the proof of Theorem 9.21.)

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) In spite of this, prove that f is not differentiable at (0,0).

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

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

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).
- (5) Show that f is continuous. Apply Exercise 9.7 to (2)(4).

Proof of (b).

(1) Write $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2)$. The formula

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = (D_1f)(0,0)u_1 + (D_2f)(0,0)u_2 = u_1$$

might be false since we don't know if f is differentiable or not. Actually, we will show that $(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = u_1^3 \neq u_1$.

(2)

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{f(tu_1, tu_2) - f(0,0)}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\frac{t^3 u_1^3}{t^2 u_1^2 + t^2 u_2^2} - 0}{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} u_1^3 \qquad (|\mathbf{u}| = 1)$$

$$= u_1^3.$$

Also $|(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0)| = |u_1|^3 \le 1$ since $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$.

Proof of (d). (Reductio ad absurdum) If f were differentiable, then

$$(D_{\mathbf{u}}f)(0,0) = (D_1f)(0,0)u_1 + (D_2f)(0,0)u_2 = u_1$$

(Formula (40) in Chapter 9), contrary to (b). \Box

Exercise 9.15. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

Exercise 9.16. ...

Proof.

(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.17
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.18
Proof.
(1)
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Exercise 9.19
Proof.
(1)
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Exercise 9.20
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Exercise 9.21
Exercise 9.21
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.22
Proof.
(1)
(2)
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Exercise 9.23
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Proof. (1)
Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2)
Proof. (1) (2) □
Proof. (1) (2) □ Exercise 9.24
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(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.26
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.27
Proof.
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Exercise 9.28
Proof.
(1)
(2)
Exercise 9.29
Proof.
(1)
(2)

Exercise 9.30. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)

Exercise 9.31. ...

Proof.

- (1)
- (2)