# SUPER DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS 

Katsumi YAGI

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The theory of super differential manifolds has been developed in recent years by many authors. While there are several approaches to the subject, we shall take the so-called geometric approach, developed by Boyer-Gitler [2], DeWitt [3] and Rogers [4]. On the other hand, Bernshtein-Rosenfel'd [1] have introduced a differential calculus on an infinite dimensional Euclidean space. Regarding the super Euclidean space as a projective limit of a family of finite dimensional Euclidean spaces as [1], in this note we shall propose a super differential calculus as a foundation for the theory of super manifolds. The underlying principle is to describe the concept of super differential calculus in terms of a differential calculus on an infinite dimensional Euclidean space. This gives a reduction of a "super" argument to an ordinary one and leads to an easier and clearer understanding of the theory of super manifolds. In section 4 we obtain the Cauchy-Riemann equations for a super smooth function, first obtained in [2], which is rather simplified. In the last section the inverse mapping theorem is also obtained following our principle.

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## 1. Super numbers and super Euclidean spaces

Let $\left\{\zeta^{N}: N \geqq 1\right\}$ be a set of countably infinite distinct letters. These are fixed once for all. We denote by $\Lambda_{N}$ the Grassmann algebra of the vector space generated by $\left\{\zeta^{1}, \zeta^{2}, \cdots, \zeta^{N}\right\}$ over the real number field $\boldsymbol{R}$ where for $N=0, \Lambda_{0}$ denotes the real number field $\boldsymbol{R}$. The family $\left\{\Lambda_{N}: N \geqq 0\right\}$ and the natural projection of $\Lambda_{N}$ onto $\Lambda_{N-1}$ define the projective limit, denoted by $\Lambda$. In a natural way, $\Lambda$ can be identified with the algebra of all formal series of the following form:

$$
z=\sum_{K \in \Gamma} z_{K} \zeta^{K}
$$

where $\Gamma$ denotes the set of all $h$-tuples $K=\left(k_{1}, k_{2}, \cdots, k_{h}\right)$ of integers ( $h \geqq 0$ ) with $1 \leqq k_{1}<k_{2}<\cdots<k_{h}$ and $z_{k} \in \boldsymbol{R}$ and $\zeta^{K}=\zeta^{k_{1}} \zeta^{k_{2}} \cdots \zeta^{k_{h}}\left(\zeta^{\phi}=1 \in \boldsymbol{R}\right)$. The algebra
$\Lambda$ is called the super number algebra and an element of $\Lambda$ is called a super number. In super differential calculus, the super number algebra $\Lambda$ is comparable to the real number field in ordinary differential calculus. The natural projection $p_{N}$ of the projective limit $\Lambda$ onto $\Lambda_{N}$ maps the above $z \in \Lambda$ to the following $z_{N} \in \Lambda_{N}$ :

$$
z_{N}=\sum_{K \in \Gamma_{N}} z_{K} \zeta^{K}
$$

where $\Gamma_{N}=\left\{K=\left(k_{1}, k_{2}, \cdots, k_{h}\right) \in \Gamma: 1 \leqq k_{1}<k_{2}<\cdots<k_{h} \leqq N\right\}$. The algebra $\Lambda_{N}$ is called the $N$-th skeleton of the super number algebra $\Lambda$. In the case where $N=0$, the 0 -th skeleton $\Lambda_{0}=\boldsymbol{R}$ is called the body of the super number algebra $\Lambda$. The projection $p_{0}$ of $\Lambda$ onto the body $\boldsymbol{R}$ of $\Lambda$ will be denoted by $p_{B}$. For each super number $z \in \Lambda, p_{B}(z) \in \boldsymbol{R}$ is called the body of the super number $z$, denoted by $z_{B}$, and $z_{S}=z-z_{B}$ is called the soul of $z$. For each $K=\left(k_{1}, \cdots, k_{h}\right) \in \Gamma$, the parity $|K|$ of $K$ is defined by $|K|=h \bmod 2 \in \boldsymbol{Z}_{2}$. For $p \in \boldsymbol{Z}_{2}, \Gamma_{p}$ and $\Lambda_{p}$ are defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma_{p}=\{K \in \Gamma:|K|=p\} \\
& \Lambda_{p}=\left\{z \in \Lambda: z=\sum_{K \in \Gamma_{p}} z_{K} \zeta^{K}, z_{K} \in \boldsymbol{R}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\Lambda=\Lambda_{0}+\Lambda_{1}$ and $\Lambda_{p} \cdot \Lambda_{q} \subset \Lambda_{p+q}\left(p, q \in Z_{2}\right)$. If $z \in \Lambda_{p}$, then $|z|=p \in Z_{p}$ is called the parity of $z \in \Lambda$. If the parity of $z \in \Lambda$ is 0 (1), then the super number $z$ is said to be even (odd) or commutative (anti-commutative), resp. Since $\Lambda_{N}$ $(N \geqq 0)$ is a real vector space of $2^{N}$ dimension, $\Lambda_{N}$ has a natural topology, and hence the projective limit $\Lambda$ has the projective limit topology, with which $\Lambda$ is a Frechet space and the projection $p_{N}$ of $\Lambda$ onto $\Lambda_{N}$ is continuous and open for $N \geqq 0$.

Remark. The notation, $\Lambda_{0}$ and $\Lambda_{1}$, does have some ambiguity: that is, $\Lambda_{0}$ $\left(\Lambda_{1}\right)$ denotes the 0 -th ( 1 -st) skeleton of $\Lambda$ and also the set of all even (odd) super numbers, resp. In general, there will be no confusion. However, in those cases where there may be some doubt, the set of all even (odd) super numbers will be denoted by $\Lambda_{c}\left(\Lambda_{a}\right)$.

Remark. In a later argument the following simple fact will be often applied: If $z$ is in $\Lambda$ and $z \cdot w=0$ for each odd super number $w$ there, then $z=0$.

The super Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ of dimension $(m \mid n)$ is, by definition, the product space $\left(\Lambda_{0}\right)^{m} \times\left(\Lambda_{1}\right)^{n}$ where are $m$ copies of $\Lambda_{0}=\Lambda_{c}$ and $n$ copies of $\Lambda_{1}=\Lambda_{a}$. The projection $p_{N}$ of $\Lambda$ onto $\Lambda_{N}$ induces the projection of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ onto $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ which is, by definition, the product space $\left(\left(\Lambda_{0}\right)_{N}\right)^{m} \times\left(\left(\Lambda_{1}\right)_{N}\right)^{n}$ where $\left(\Lambda_{p}\right)_{N}=$ $p_{N}\left(\Lambda_{p}\right)\left(p \in \boldsymbol{Z}_{2}\right)$. The space $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ is called the $N$-th skeleton of the super Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$, which is a $2^{N-1}(m+n)$ dimensional real vector space for $N \geqq 1$ and the ordinary $m$-dimensional real Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m}$ for $N=0$ (the 0 -th skeleton
of the super Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ is called the body of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Moreover $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ can be regarded as the projective limit of the family $\left\{\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m n}: n \geqq 0\right\}$ of finite dimensional real vector spaces. Then the super Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ is a Frechet space and the projection $p_{N}$ of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ onto $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ is continuous and open for each $N \geqq 0$. The image $p_{N}(z)\left(p_{N}(U)\right)$ of $z \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ (a subset $U$ of $\left.\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}\right)$ by the projection $p_{N}$ is denoted by $z_{N} \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}\left(U_{N} \subset \boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}\right.$, called the $N$-th skeleton of $U$ ), resp. On the super Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ sometimes we consider another topology, the coarse topology, with respect to which an open set in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ is an inverse image of an open set in the body $\boldsymbol{R}^{m}$ by the projection $p_{B}$. An open set in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ with respect to the coarse topology will be called a $C$-open set. Unless otherwise stated, we consider the Frechet topology on $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$.

The projection of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}=\left(\Lambda_{0}\right)^{m} \times\left(\Lambda_{1}\right)^{n}$ onto the $i$-th component $\Lambda_{p}(p=0$ (1) if $1 \leqq i \leqq m(m+1 \leqq i \leqq m+n)$, resp.) will be denoted by $z^{i}$ (for $\left.1 \leqq i \leqq m+n\right)$. For $1 \leqq i \leqq m(m+1 \leqq i \leqq m+n)$, sometimes $z^{i}$ will be denoted by $x^{\mu}\left(\theta^{p}\right)$, resp. where $1 \leqq \mu \leqq m$ and $1 \leqq p \leqq n$. Thus as usual, each $\boldsymbol{z} \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ can be written as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
z & =\left(z^{1}, \cdots, z^{m+n}\right)=\left(z^{i}\right) \\
& =\left(x^{1}, \cdots, x^{m}, \theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n}\right)=\left(x^{\mu}, \theta^{p}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The parity $|i|$ of the coordinate index $i$ is defined as follows: $|i|=0(1)$ if $1 \leqq i \leqq$ $m(m+1 \leqq i \leqq m+n)$. On the $N$-th skeleton $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}(N \geqq 0)$, we consider the following natural coordinate system $\left\{z_{K}^{i}: 1 \leqq i \leqq m+n, K \in \Gamma_{N},|K|=|i|\right\}$. For each $z=\left(z^{i}\right) \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$, the component $z^{i}$ can be written as follows:

$$
z^{i}=\sum_{K \in \Gamma_{p}} z_{K}^{i} \zeta^{K} \quad \text { where } \quad p=|i|
$$

Thus $z_{N}=\left(z_{N}^{i}\right) \in \boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ has the coordinate $\left\{z_{K}^{i}: 1 \leqq i \leqq m+n, K \in \Gamma_{N},|K|=|i|\right\}$. Formally $\left\{z_{K}^{i}: 1 \leqq i \leqq m+n, K \in \Gamma,|K|=|i|\right\}$ can be considered as a natural coordinate system of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$.

Let $\phi(t)$ be a $\Lambda$-valued function defined on an interval $I$ in $\boldsymbol{R}$. Then $\phi(t)$ can written as follows:

$$
\phi(t)=\sum_{K \in \Gamma} \phi_{K}(t) \zeta^{K}
$$

where $\phi_{K}(t)$ is a real valued function on $I$ for each $K \in \Gamma$. We can prove the following with respect to the Frechet topology:

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow a} \phi(t)=\sum_{K \in \Gamma}\left(\lim _{t \rightarrow a} \phi_{K}(t)\right) \zeta^{K}
$$

Thus $\phi(t)$ is continuous with respect to the Frechet topology if and only if $\phi_{K}(t)$ is continuous in the usual sense for each $K \in \Gamma$. The differentiation and integral of such $\phi(t)$ are defined as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \phi^{\prime}(t)=\sum_{K \in \Gamma} \phi_{K}^{\prime}(t) \zeta^{K} \\
& \int_{a}^{b} \phi(t) d t=\sum_{K \in \Gamma}\left(\int_{a}^{b} \phi_{K}(t) d t\right) \zeta^{K}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\phi(t)$ is written in the above form. We have the following.
Lemma 1.1. Let $\phi(t)$ and $\Phi(t)$ be continuous $\Lambda$-valued functions on an interval $[a, b]$ in $\boldsymbol{R}$. Then

1) $\int_{a}^{b} \phi(t) d t$ exists,
2) if $\Phi^{\prime}(t)=\phi(t)$ on $[a, b]$ then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} \phi(t) d t=\Phi(b)-\Phi(a),
$$

3) if $c \in \Lambda$ is constant then $\int_{a}^{b} \phi(t) \cdot c d t=\left(\int_{a}^{b} \phi(t) d t\right) \cdot c$.

## 2. $\boldsymbol{C}^{\infty}$-functions on $\boldsymbol{R}^{\boldsymbol{m} \mid \boldsymbol{n}}$

A real-valued function $f$ defined on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ is said to be admissible on $U$ if there exists some $N \geqq 0$ and a real-valued function $\phi$ defined on the $N$-skeleton $U_{N}$ of $U$ such that $f=\phi \circ p_{N}$ on $U$. Since $U_{N}$ is an open set of a finite dimensional Euclidean space $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$, the notion of $C^{r}$-function on $U_{N}$ is well-defined as usual. In the above case, $f$ is said to be $C^{r}(0 \leqq r \leqq \infty)$ if and only if $\phi$ is so. When $f$ is $C^{r}(r \geqq 1)$, then the partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z_{L}^{i}}$ is canonically well-defined for each $1 \leqq i \leqq m+n, L \in \Gamma$ and $|L|=|i|$.

Let $f$ be a $\Lambda$-valued function defined on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Then $f$ can be written in the following form:

$$
f(z)=\sum_{K \in \Gamma} f_{K}(z) \zeta^{K} \quad(z \in U)
$$

where $f_{K}$ is a real-valued function on $U$. If each $f_{K}(K \in \Gamma)$ is admissible ( $C^{r}$ ) on $U$, then $f$ is said to be admissible ( $C^{r}$ ) on $U$, respectively. When $f$ is $C^{r}(r \geqq 1)$ on $U$, its partial derivatives are defined as follows:

$$
\frac{\partial f}{\partial z_{L}^{i}}=\sum_{K \in \Gamma} \frac{\partial f_{K}}{\partial z_{L}^{i}} \zeta^{K}
$$

where $f$ is in the above form and $|i|=|L|$. A $\Lambda$-valued function $f$ on $U$ is said to be projectable if for each $N \geqq 0$ there exists a $\Lambda_{N}$-valued function $f_{N}$ defined on $U_{N}$ in $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ such that $p_{N} \circ f=f_{N} \circ p_{N}$ on $U . f_{N}$ is called the $N$-th projection of $f$. Obviously a projectable function on $U$ is admissible on $U$.

## 3. $\boldsymbol{G}^{\infty}$-functions on $\boldsymbol{R}^{\boldsymbol{m} \mid \boldsymbol{n}}$

Let $f$ be a $\Lambda$-valued function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Then $f$ is said
to be $G^{1}$ on $U$ if and only if there exist $\Lambda$-valued continuous functions $F_{i}(1 \leqq i$ $\leqq m+n)$ on $U$ such that

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq m+n} F_{i}(z) \cdot h^{i}
$$

for each $z \in U$ and $h=\left(h^{i}\right) \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ where $f(z+t h)$ is considered as a $\Lambda$-valued function with one real variable $t \in \boldsymbol{R}$. If $f$ is $G^{1}$ on $U$, then these $F_{i}$ exist uniquely, and there also exist $\Lambda$-valued continuous functions $G_{i}$ on $U$ such that

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq m+n} h^{i} \cdot G_{i}(z)
$$

for each $z \in U$ and $h=\left(h^{i}\right) \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. These $F_{i}$ and $G_{i}$ will be denoted as follows:

$$
F_{i}(z)=f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial z^{i}}(z), \quad G_{i}(z)=\frac{\vec{\partial}}{\partial z^{i}} f(z)
$$

These are called the super partial derivatives of $f$. For $r \geqq 2, f$ is said to be $G^{r}$ if all super partial derivatives are $G^{r-1}$. And $f$ is siad to be $G^{\infty}$ or super smooth if $f$ is $G^{r}$ for all $r \geqq 1$.

Theorem 1. Let f be a $\Lambda$-valued function on a convex open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. If $f$ is $G^{1}$ on $U$, then $f$ is projectable and $C^{1}$ on $U$.

Proof. Let $z$ and $z+h$ be in $U$. Then $z+t h$ is also in $U$ for $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$ since $U$ is convex. We have the following for $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$ :

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq m+n} F_{i}(z+t h) \cdot h^{i}
$$

Thus by Lemma 1.1, we have the following.

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(z+h)-f(z) & =\left.\int_{0}^{1} \frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t} d t \\
& =\sum_{1 \leq i \leq m+n}\left(\int_{0}^{1} F_{i}(z+t h) d t\right) \cdot h^{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore if $z$ and $w$ are in $U$ and $z_{N}=w_{N}$, then we have $f(z)_{N}=f(w)_{N}$. This implies that $f$ is projectable and in particular $f$ is admissible on $U$. Let $\zeta_{(i)}^{K}$ be the element of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ whose $i$-th component is $\zeta^{K}$ and whose other components are zero where $|i|=|K|$. Then we have

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f(z)=\left.\frac{d}{d t} f\left(z+t \zeta_{(i)}^{K}\right)\right|_{t=0}=F_{i}(z) \cdot \zeta^{K}
$$

Thus the admissible function $f$ is $C^{1}$ on $U$. This completes the proof.

## 4. Cauchy-Riemann equations

Let $f$ be a $\Lambda$-valued $C^{\infty}$ function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ which is $G^{1}$ on $U$. Then as shown in the proof of Theorem 1, we obtain the following:

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f(z)=f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial z^{i}}(z) \cdot \zeta^{K}
$$

where $1 \leqq i \leqq m+n, K \in \Gamma$ and $|i|=|K|$.
These equations imply the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K}^{\mu}} f(z)=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}^{\mu}} f(z) \cdot \zeta^{K} \\
& \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}^{\text {b }}} f(z) \cdot \zeta^{H}+\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{H}^{\phi}} f(z) \cdot \zeta^{L}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

where $|K|=0,|L|=|H|=1,1 \leqq \mu \leqq m$ and $1 \leqq p \leqq n$. These equations are called the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

Theorem 2. Let $f$ be a $\Lambda$-valued $C^{\infty}$ function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Then $f$ is $G^{1}$ on $U$ if and only if $f$ satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations on $U$.

Proof. We have already shown that a $G^{1}$ function satisfies the CauchyRiemann equations. Now suppose that $f$ satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations on $U$. To show that $f$ is $G^{1}$ on $U$, we have to construct continuous functions $F_{i}(1 \leqq i \leqq m+n)$ on $U$ such that

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0}=\sum_{1 \leqq i \leqq m+n} F_{i}(z) \cdot h^{i}
$$

for $z \in U$ and $h \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. First for $1 \leqq \mu \leqq m$, let

$$
F_{\mu}(z)=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}^{\mu}} f(z) \quad(\text { for } z \in U)
$$

On the other hand $F_{p}(z)(m+1 \leqq p \leqq m+n)$ can not be defined directly. Applying Lemma 4.4 below for $\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{K}^{p}} f(z): K \in \Gamma_{1}\right\}$ while $m+1 \leqq p \leqq m+n$ and $z \in U$ are fixed, there exists $F_{p}(z)$ in $\Lambda$ such that

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{K}^{p}} f(z)=F_{p}(z) \cdot \zeta^{K} \quad \text { for each } \quad K \in \Gamma_{1} .
$$

Now we shall prove that

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq m+n} F_{i}(z) \cdot h^{i}
$$

for $z \in U$ and $h \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Since $f$ is admissible, for any $N \geqq 0$ there exist some $L \geqq N$ and a $\Lambda_{N}$-valued $C^{\infty}$ function $f_{L}$ on $U_{L}$ in $\boldsymbol{R}_{L}^{m \mid n}$ such that $f(z)_{N}=f_{L}\left(z_{L}\right)$ for each $z \in U$. Then we can show that if $K \in \Gamma_{L}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f_{L}\left(z_{L}\right)=\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f(z)\right)_{N}$ and otherwise $\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f_{L}\left(z_{L}\right)=0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0}\right)_{N}=\left.\frac{d}{d t}(f(z+t h))_{N}\right|_{t=0} \\
& \quad=\left.\frac{d}{d t} f_{L}\left(z_{L}+t h_{L}\right)\right|_{t=0} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i} \sum_{K} \frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f_{L}\left(z_{L}\right) \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{K}^{i} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i} \sum_{K}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f(z)\right)_{N} \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{K}^{i} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i} \sum_{K}\left(F_{i}(z) \cdot \zeta^{K}\right)_{N} \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{K}^{i} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i} \sum_{K}\left(F_{i}(z)\right)_{N} \cdot\left(\zeta^{K}\right)_{N} \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{K}^{i} \\
& =\sum_{i}\left(F_{i}(z)\right)_{N} \cdot \sum_{K}\left(\zeta^{K}\right)_{N} \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{K}^{i} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i}\left(F_{i}(z)\right)_{N} \cdot \sum_{K}\left(\zeta^{K} \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{K}^{i}\right)_{N} \\
& \quad=\sum_{i}\left(F_{i}(z)\right)_{N} \cdot\left(h_{L}\right)_{N}^{i} \\
& =\sum_{i}\left(F_{i}(z)\right)_{N} \cdot\left(h_{N}\right)^{i} \\
& =\left(\sum_{i} F_{i}(z) \cdot h^{i}\right)_{N} \quad \text { for any } \quad N \geqq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we have

$$
\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0}=\sum_{1 \leqq i \leq m+n} F_{i}(z) \cdot h^{i}
$$

The continuity of $F_{i}(z)$ can be seen easily.
Lemma 4.4. Let $\left\{\xi_{Q} \in \Lambda: Q \in \Gamma_{1}\right\}$ be a set of super numbers such that $\xi_{Q} \zeta^{R}$ $+\xi_{R} \zeta^{Q}=0$ for any $R$ and $Q \in \Gamma_{1}$. Then there exists a unique super number $\xi \in \Lambda$ such that $\xi_{Q}=\xi \cdot \zeta^{Q}$ for each $Q \in \Gamma_{1}$.

Proof. First we consider only the family $\left\{\xi_{(i)}: i=1,2, \cdots\right\}$. Let $\xi_{(i)}=\sum_{s \in \Gamma} a_{s}^{i}$ $\zeta^{s}$. Since $\xi_{(i)} \zeta^{i}=0$, we have $\sum_{i \notin S \in \Gamma} a_{S}^{i} \zeta^{s}=0$. Therefore each $\xi_{(i)}$ can be written uniquely as follows: $\xi_{(i)}=\left(\sum_{i \notin S \in \Gamma} b_{s}^{i} \zeta^{s}\right) \zeta^{i}$ for some $b_{s}^{i} \in \boldsymbol{R}$. Then the condition that $\xi_{(i)} \zeta^{j}=\xi_{(j)} \zeta^{i}$ holds for any $i$ and $j$ implies that $b_{s}^{i}=b_{s}^{j}$ for $i, j \notin S \in \Gamma$. Letting $b_{s}=b_{s}^{i}$ for $i \notin S \in \Gamma, \xi=\sum_{S \in \Gamma} b_{s} \zeta^{s}$ is well-defined and furthermore $\xi_{(i)}=\xi \zeta^{i}$ holds
for each $i$. This $\xi$ satisfies the above condition for each $Q \in \Gamma_{1}$.
Theorem 3. Let $f$ be a $\Lambda$-valued $C^{\infty}$ function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Iff is $G^{1}$ on $U$, then is $G^{\infty}$ on $U$.

Proof. Let $f$ be $G^{1}$ on $U$. Then $f$ satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations on $U$. Since $f$ is $C^{\infty}$ on $U, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}^{v}} f(z)$ also satisfies the same equations and hence $f \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{v}}(z)$ is $G^{1}$ on $U$. Similarly $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{J}^{q}} f(z)=f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial \theta^{q}} \cdot \zeta^{J}$ is also $G^{1}$ on $U$. Therefore the following equations hold for any $J \in \Gamma_{1}$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K}^{\mu}}\left(f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial \theta^{q}}\right)(z) \cdot \zeta^{J}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}^{\mu}}\left(f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial \theta^{q}}\right)(z) \cdot \zeta^{K} \cdot \zeta^{J} \\
\left\{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}^{p}}\left(f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial \theta^{q}}\right)(z) \cdot \zeta^{H}+\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{H}^{p}}\left(f \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial \theta^{q}}\right)(z) \cdot \zeta^{L}\right\} \cdot \zeta^{J}=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus $f \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta^{q}}(z)$ satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations on $U$ and hence it is $G^{1}$ on $U$. Therefore $f(z)$ is $G^{2}$ on $U$. By induction it can be seen that $f(z)$ is $G^{\infty}$ on $U$.

Remark. This assertion seems to contradict the theorem in [1]. In our argument we take $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ as base space while their space in [1] is the $N$-th skeleton $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. By considering the projective limit $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ of the family $\left\{\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}\right\}$ the argument is rather simplified.

## 5. $\boldsymbol{Z}$-expansion of $\boldsymbol{G}^{\infty}$ functions

First we consider $G^{\infty}$ functions on $\boldsymbol{R}^{o \mid n}$ : i.e., $G^{\infty}$ functions with only odd variables.

Lemma 5.1. Let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{\circ \mid n}$. Then $f$ can be written as follows:

$$
f\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n}\right)=\sum_{P} C_{P} \theta^{P}
$$

where $P=\left(p_{1}, \cdots, p_{k}\right), 1 \leqq p_{1}<\cdots<p_{k} \leqq n, \theta^{P}=\theta^{p_{1}} \cdots \theta^{p_{k}}$ and $C_{P} \in \Lambda$ is constant. In particular any $G^{\infty}$ function on a connected open set in $\boldsymbol{R}^{\circ{ }^{\prime n}}$ can be extended to the whole space $\boldsymbol{R}^{\circ \mid n}$ uniquely.

Proof. First we consider the case where $f$ has only one odd variable. Let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{o 11}$. Thus we have

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}} f(\theta)=f \frac{\overleftarrow{d}}{d \theta}(\theta) \cdot \zeta^{L}
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{H}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}} f(\theta)=\left(f \frac{\overleftarrow{d}}{d \theta} \frac{\overleftarrow{d}}{d \theta}\right)(\theta) \cdot \zeta^{L} \cdot \zeta^{H}
$$

Since $|H|=|L|=1$, we have

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{H}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}} f(\theta)=-\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{H}} f(\theta)
$$

Thus we have

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{H}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{L}} f(\theta)=0 \quad \text { for any } H, L \in \Gamma_{1} .
$$

This implies that each component $f_{K}(\theta)$ of $f(\theta)=\sum_{K} f_{K}(\theta) \cdot \zeta^{K}$ is a polynomial of degree 1 with variables $\left\{\theta_{L}: L \in \Gamma_{K}\right\}$. Then $f \frac{\overleftarrow{d}}{d \theta}(\theta) \cdot \zeta^{K}=\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{K}} f(\theta)$ is constant for any $K \in \Gamma_{1}$. Thus $f \frac{\overleftarrow{d}}{d \theta}(\theta)$ is constant, denoted by $a \in \Lambda$. Then $(f(\theta)-a \theta) \frac{\overleftarrow{d}}{d \theta}=0$. This shows that $f(\theta)=a \theta+b$ for some $b \in \Lambda$. Now let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ function on an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{\circ \mid n}$. While $\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}$ are fixed, $f\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots\right.$, $\theta^{n-1}, \theta^{n}$ ) is a $G^{\infty}$ function with one odd variable $\theta^{n}$. Thus we have the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n}\right)=g\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}\right) \cdot \theta^{n}+h\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}\right) \\
& f \frac{\stackrel{\partial}{\partial}}{\partial \theta^{n}}\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n}\right)=g\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $g$ is $G^{\infty}$ on $\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}$ and hence $h$ is also $G^{\infty}$ on $\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n-1}$. By induction we can show that $f\left(\theta^{1}, \cdots, \theta^{n}\right)$ can be written in the above form.

Now we consider $G^{\infty}$ functions on $\boldsymbol{R}^{m l o}$ : i.e., $G^{\infty}$ functions with only even variables.

## Lemma 5.2. Let f be a $G^{\infty}$ function on a C-open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid o}$ which vanishes

 identically on the body $U_{B}$ of $U$. Then $f$ vanishes identically on $U$.Proof. Clearly it is sufficient to consider the case of only one even variable. Let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ function on a $C$-open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{10}$. Let $t$ be an arbitrary point in $U_{B}$. We shall consider the behavior of $f$ on $p_{B}^{-1}(t)$. Let $z \in p_{B}^{-1}(t)$ and $z_{N}=$ $p_{N}(z)$. Then $\left\{x_{K}: \phi \neq K \in \Gamma_{N},|K|=0\right\}$ is a coordinate for $\left(p_{B}^{-1}(t)\right)_{N}$ as the ordinary Euclidean space. Let $f_{N}$ be the $N$-th projection of $f$. Then $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K}} f_{N}$ $\left(z_{N}\right)=\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}} f_{N}\left(z_{N}\right) \cdot \zeta^{K}$ for $K \in \Gamma_{N}$ and $|K|=0$. If $K_{1}, \cdots, K_{h} \in \Gamma_{N},\left|K_{j}\right|=0$ and none of them is $\phi$ and $2 h>N$, then $\zeta^{K_{1} \ldots \zeta^{K}}{ }^{K_{h}}=0$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K_{1}}} \cdots \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K_{h}}} f_{N}\left(z_{N}\right)=0$.

This implies that $f_{N}$ is a polynomial on $\left(p_{B}^{-1}(t)\right)_{N} . \quad$ Moreover for any $h \geqq 0$,

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K_{1}}} \cdots \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K_{k}}} f_{N}(t)=\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}}\right)^{h} f_{N}(t) \cdot \zeta^{K_{1}} \ldots \zeta^{K_{h}} .
$$

Since $f$ vanishes identically on the body $U_{B}$, we have

$$
\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{\phi}}\right)^{h} f=0 \quad \text { on } \quad U_{B}
$$

and hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K_{1}}} \cdots \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{K_{h}}} f_{N}(t)=0 \quad \text { for any } \quad h \geqq 0 \text { and } \\
& \phi \neq K_{1}, \cdots, K_{h} \in \Gamma_{N},\left|K_{j}\right|=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the polynomial $f_{N} \mid\left(p_{B}^{-1}(t)\right)_{N}$ must vanish identically and hence $f_{N} \equiv 0$ on $U_{N}$. This holds for any $N \geqq 0$. Thus $f \equiv 0$ on $U$.

Let $U$ be a $C$-open set in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m 10}$ and $\phi$ a $\Lambda$-valued $C^{\infty}$ function on the body $U_{B}$ of $U$. Then the so-called $Z$-expansion $\tilde{\phi}$ of $\phi$ is defined as follows: For any $x=\left(x^{\mu}\right) \in U$,

$$
\tilde{\phi}(x)=\sum_{I} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I} \phi\right)\left(x_{B}\right) \cdot x_{S}^{I}
$$

where $x_{B}=\left(x_{B}^{\mu}\right)$ is the body of $x$ and $x_{S}=x-x_{B}$ and $I=\left(i_{1}, \cdots, i_{m}\right)$ and $x_{S}^{I}=\left(x_{S}^{1}\right)^{i_{1}}$ $\cdots\left(x_{S}^{m}\right)^{i_{m}}$ and $I!=i_{1}!\cdots i_{m}!$ and $D_{t}^{I}=\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{i_{1}}}\right)^{i_{1}} \cdots\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{i_{m}}}\right)^{i_{m}}$ and $t=\left(t^{\mu}\right)$ denotes the canonical coordinate on the body $\boldsymbol{R}^{m}$ of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$.

Lemma 5.3. Let $U$ be a $C$-open set of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid o}$ and $\phi(t)$ a $\Lambda$-valued $C^{\infty}$ function on the body $U_{B}$ of $U$. Then the $Z$-expansion $\tilde{\phi}(x)$ is $G^{\infty}$ on $U$. Moreover for $1 \leqq \mu \leqq m$

$$
\tilde{\phi} \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial x^{\mu}}(x)=\frac{\vec{\partial}}{\partial x^{\mu}} \tilde{\phi}(x)=\left(\widetilde{\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{\mu}} \phi}\right)(x)
$$

Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.\frac{d}{d t} \widetilde{\phi}(x+t h)\right|_{t=0}= & \left.\frac{d}{d t} \sum_{I} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I} \phi\right)\left(x_{B}+t h_{B}\right) \cdot\left(x_{s}+t h_{S}\right)^{I}\right|_{t=0} \\
= & \sum_{I, \mu} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{\mu}}\right) \phi\right)\left(x_{B}\right) \cdot h_{B}^{\mu} \cdot x_{S}^{I} \\
& +\sum_{I, \mu} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I} \phi\right)\left(x_{B}\right) \cdot i_{\mu} \cdot h_{S}^{\mu} \cdot x_{S}^{I-(\mu)} \\
= & \sum_{I, \mu} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{\mu}}\right) \phi\right)\left(x_{B}\right) \cdot x_{S}^{I} \cdot\left(h_{B}^{\mu}+h_{S}^{\mu}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
=\sum_{\mu} \sum_{I} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{\mu}}\right) \phi\right)\left(x_{B}\right) \cdot x_{S}^{I} \cdot h^{\mu} .
$$

Therefore we have

$$
\tilde{\phi} \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial x^{\mu}}(x)=\sum_{I} \frac{1}{I!}\left(D_{t}^{I}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{\mu}}\right) \phi\right)\left(x_{B}\right) \cdot x_{S}^{I}
$$

Hence $\tilde{\phi}(x)$ is $G^{\infty}$ on $U$.
Combining the above lemmas, we obtain the following theorem.
Theorem 4. Let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ function on a $C$-open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Then there exist $\Lambda$-valued $C^{\infty}$ functions $\phi_{P}\left(P=\left(p_{1}, \cdots, p_{k}\right), 1 \leqq p_{1}<\cdots<p_{k} \leqq n\right)$ on $U_{B}$ such that

$$
f(z)=f(x, \theta)=\sum_{P} \tilde{\phi}_{P}(x) \cdot \theta^{P}
$$

where $z=(x, \theta) \in U$. Moreover this expression is unique.

## 6. The linear groups

Regarding $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ as a real vector space, a linear mapping $\Phi$ of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{\bar{m} \mid \bar{n}}$ is said to be projectable if for each $N \geqq 0$, there exists a linear mapping $\Phi_{N}$ of $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{\bar{m} \mid n}$ such that $\Phi_{N} \circ p_{N}=p_{N} \circ \Phi$ on $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. In this case $\Phi_{N}$ is called the $N$-th projection of $\Phi$. Let $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ denote the set of all projectable linear mappings of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{\bar{m} \mid \bar{n}}$ and $M_{N}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ the set of all $N$-th projections $\Phi_{N}$ of $\Phi \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$. Then $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ can be identified with the projective limit of the family $\left\{M_{N}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)\right\}$ in a canonical way. In case of $m=\bar{m}$ and $n=\bar{n}$, these sets will be denoted by $M(m \mid n)$ and $M_{N}(m \mid n)$ respectively, which form algebras over $\boldsymbol{R}$. The set of all invertible elements of $M(m \mid n)$ (resp. $\left.M_{N}(m \mid n)\right)$ is denoted by $\mathcal{G} l(m \mid n)\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.\mathcal{G} l_{N}(m \mid n)\right)$. Then $\mathcal{G} \ell(m \mid n)$ and $\mathcal{G} l_{N}(m \mid n)$ are groups, and moreover $\mathcal{G} \ell_{N}(m \mid n)$ is a closed subgroup of the general linear group $G L\left(\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}\right)$ over the vector space $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$. Furthermore $\mathcal{G l}(m \mid n)$ can be identified with the projective limit of the family $\left\{\mathcal{G}_{N}(m \mid n)\right\}$, which is called the general linear group over the vector space $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$.

Lemma 6.1. Let $\Phi$ be in $M(m \mid n)$. Then $\Phi$ is in $g l(m \mid n)$ if and only if $\Phi_{N}$ is in $q_{N}(m \mid n)$ for all $N \geqq 0$.

Proof. Suppose that $\Phi_{N}$ is in $g_{N}(m \mid n)$ for any $N \geqq 0$. Let $z \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ be in the kernel of $\Phi$. Then $\Phi_{N}\left(z_{N}\right)=(\Phi(z))_{N}=0$ for any $N \geqq 0$. Thus $z_{N}=0$ for any $N \geqq 0$ and hence $z=0$. This shows that $\Phi$ is injective. Let $w$ be an arbitrary element in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Then for each $N \geqq 0$, there exists a unique element $z_{N} \in$ $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ such that $\Phi_{N}\left(z_{N}\right)=w_{N}$. Then $\left\{z_{N}\right\}$ defines an element $z \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ such that $z_{N}=p_{N}(z)$ for each $N \geqq 0$ and moreover $\Phi(z)=w$. Thus $\Phi$ is surjective. The
converse is obvious.
Now we regard $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ as the set of all $(m+n)$-column vectors whose first $m$ components are even super numbers and last $n$ components are odd super numbers. We denote by $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ the set of all $(\bar{m}+\bar{n}, m+n)$ matrices of the following form.

$$
\phi=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A & B \\
C & D
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $A, B, C$ and $D$ are $(\bar{m}, m),(\bar{m}, n),(\bar{n}, m)$ and $(\bar{n}, n)$ matrices, respectively and components of $A$ and $D$ are even and components of $B$ and $C$ are odd. For each $\phi \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ and $N \geqq 0$, we define a matrix $\phi_{(N)}$ by

$$
\phi_{(N)}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{N} & B_{N} \\
C_{N} & D_{N}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $A_{N}, B_{N}, C_{N}$ and $D_{N}$ denote the matrices whose components are the $N$-th projections of those of $A, B, C$ and $D$. When $N=0, \phi_{(0)}$ will be also denoted by $\phi_{B}$, called the body of $\phi$. For $p \in \boldsymbol{Z}_{2}$ and $N \geqq 0$, we define $\left(\Lambda_{p}\right)_{N}^{\prime}$ as follows;

$$
\left(\Lambda_{p}\right)_{N}^{\prime}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
\left(\Lambda_{p}\right)_{N} & \text { if } & p \equiv N \bmod 2 \\
\left(\Lambda_{p}\right)_{N} / \boldsymbol{R} \cdot \chi_{N} & \text { if } & p \equiv N \bmod 2
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\chi_{N}=\zeta^{1} \cdots \zeta^{N} \in \Lambda_{N}$.
Now for each $\phi \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ and $N \geqq 0$, we define a matrix $\phi_{N}$ by

$$
\phi_{N}=\binom{A_{N}\left(B_{N}\right)^{\prime}}{C_{N}\left(D_{N}\right)^{\prime}}
$$

where $(B)^{\prime}$ and $\left(D_{N}\right)^{\prime}$ denote the matrices whose components are the projections of those of $B_{N}$ and $D_{N}$ into $\left(\Lambda_{1}\right)_{N}^{\prime}$ and $\left(\Lambda_{0}\right)_{N}^{\prime}$, resp. We define $M_{(N)}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ and $M_{N}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{(N)}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)=\left\{\phi_{(N)}: \phi \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)\right\} \\
& M_{N}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)=\left\{\phi_{N}: \phi \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then in a natural way $M_{N}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ acts on $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ on the left hand side effectively. Moreover we have the following commutative diagram:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n) & \stackrel{i}{\rightarrow} & M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n) \\
p_{(N)} \swarrow p_{N} & \downarrow p_{N} \\
M_{(N)}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n) \xrightarrow{\pi} M_{N}(m|\bar{n}, \underline{m}| n) \xrightarrow{i} M_{N}(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)
\end{array}
$$

where both $i$ are natuarl imbeddings. In particular when $N=1$ or 0 and $\phi$
is a matrix in the above form,

$$
\phi_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{B} & 0 \\
C_{1} & D_{B}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \phi_{B}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A_{B} & 0 \\
0 & D_{B}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $A_{B}$ and $D_{B}$ are the bodies of matrices $A$ and $D$.
By Theorem 2, the characterization of $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ in $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ is given as follows.

Lemma 6.2. Let $\Phi$ be in $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$. Then $\Phi$ is in $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ if and only if $\Phi$ satisfies the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

When $\bar{m}=m$ and $\bar{n}=n, M(m|n, m| n)$ will be denote by $M(m \mid n)$. Then $M(m \mid n)$ forms a subalgebra of $M(m \mid n)$. The set of all invertible elements of $M(m \mid n)$ is denoted by $G L(m \mid n)$, which forms a subgroup of $g l(m \mid n)$ and is called the super general linear group over $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$.

Lemma 6.3. Let $\phi$ be in $M(m \mid n)$. Then $\phi$ is in $G L(m \mid n)$ if and only if $\operatorname{det}\left(A_{B}\right) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{det}\left(D_{B}\right) \neq 0$ where

$$
\phi=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A & B \\
C & D
\end{array}\right)
$$

Moreover we have $G L(m \mid n)=M(m \mid n) \cap \mathscr{q}(m \mid n)$.
Proof. Suppose that $\operatorname{det}\left(A_{B}\right) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{det}\left(D_{B}\right) \neq 0$. Then the inverse of $\phi$ is gievn by

$$
\phi^{-1}=\phi_{B}^{-1} \sum_{k}\left(-\left(\phi-\phi_{B}\right) \phi_{B}^{-1}\right)^{k} .
$$

Conversely if $\phi$ is in $G L(m \mid n)$ then $\phi_{B}$ is in $G L(m+n, \boldsymbol{R})$ and $\operatorname{det}\left(A_{B}\right) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{det}\left(D_{B}\right) \neq 0$. Now let $\phi \in M(m \mid n) \subset q l(m \mid n)$. Then regarding $\phi$ as a projectable $\boldsymbol{R}$ linear endomorphism of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$, the 1st projecton projection $\phi_{1}$ of $\phi$ is in $\mathcal{G} \ell_{1}(m \mid n)$. On the other hand, $\phi_{1}$ is given by

$$
\phi_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
A_{B} & 0 \\
C_{1} & D_{B}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Therefore $\operatorname{det}\left(A_{B}\right) \neq 0$ and $\operatorname{det}\left(D_{B}\right) \neq 0$ and hence $\phi$ is in $G L(m \mid n)$.

## 7. Jacobi matrixes

Let $f$ be a projectable $C^{\infty}$ mapping of an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{\bar{m} \mid \bar{n}}$. Then the Jacobi matrix $g f(z) \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ of $f$ at $z \in U$ is defined as follows. For any $h \in \boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$,

$$
\partial f(z)(h)=\left.\frac{d}{d t} f(z+t h)\right|_{t=0} .
$$

With respect to the natural coordinate systems of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ and $\boldsymbol{R}^{\bar{m} \mid \bar{n}}$, the Jacobi matrix $g f(z)$ can expressed by

$$
(\partial f(z)(h))_{K}^{i}=\sum_{j, L}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{L}^{j}} f_{K}^{i}\right)(z) \cdot h_{L}^{j}
$$

Thus formally $g f(z)$ can be regarded as the matrix $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z_{K}^{i}} f_{L}^{j}\right)(z)$.
Let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ mapping of an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{\bar{m} \mid \bar{n}}$. Then the super Jacobi matrix $J f(z) \in M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ of $f$ at $z \in U$ is defined as follows.

$$
J f(z)=\left(f^{i} \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial z^{j}}(z)\right)
$$

With the canonical inclusion of $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ into $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$, the super Jacobi matrix $J f(z)$ and the Jacobi matrix $g f(z)$ coincides for a $G^{\infty}$ mapping $f$ of $U$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$. Applying Theorem 2 and Theorem 3, we can show that if $f$ is a projectable $C^{\infty}$ mapping of an open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ whose Jacobi matrix $g f(z)$ is in $M(\bar{m}|\bar{n}, m| n)$ for each $z \in U$, then $f$ is $G^{\infty}$ on $U$.

Theorem 5. Let $f$ be a $G^{\infty}$ mapping of a C-open set $U$ in $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ into $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ whose super Jacobi matrix $J f(z)$ at a point $z$ in $U$ is invertible. Then we can find a C-open neighborhood $V$ of $z$ and a C-open neighborhood $W$ of $f(z)$ such that the restriction of $f$ to $V$ is a one-to-one mapping of $V$ onto $W$ and its inverse mapping is also $G^{\infty}$ on $W$.

Proof. Let $f_{N}$ be the $N$-th projection of $f$. Considering $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ as a vector bundle over $\boldsymbol{R}_{N-1}^{m \mid L}, f_{N}$ is a fibre-preserving mapping over a base-mapping $f_{N-1}$ and moreover the restriction of $f_{N}$ to each fibre is an affine mapping of a vector space. In the case of $N=0$, the Jacobi matrix of the 0 -th projection $f_{0}$ of $f$ is the 0 -th projection of the super Jacobi matrix $g f(z)$ of $f$, which is the body $A_{B}$ of the matrix $A$ where $g f(z)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}A & B \\ C & D\end{array}\right) \in G L(m \mid n)$. Therefore there exists an open neighborhood $V_{B} \subset \boldsymbol{R}^{m}$ of $z_{B}$ and an open neighborhood $W_{B} \subset \boldsymbol{R}^{m}$ of $(f(z))_{B}$ such that the 0 -th projection $f_{0}$ of $f$ is a bijective mapping of $V_{B}$ onto $W_{B}$ and the inverse mapping $\left(f_{0}\right)^{-1}$ of $f$ is $C^{\infty}$ on $W_{B}$. Let $V$ and $W$ be the inverse images of $V_{B}$ and $W_{B}$ by the projection $p_{B}$ of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ onto $\boldsymbol{R}^{m}$. We shall show by induction that the $N$-th projection $f_{N}$ of $f$ is a bijection of the $N$-th skeleton $V_{N}$ onto the $N$-th skeleton $W_{N}$ and its inverse mapping is $C^{\infty}$ on $W_{N}$. In the case of $N=0$, this has been shown already. Now suppose that the assertion holds in the case of $N-1$. The Jacobi matrix of $f_{N}$ at $z_{N}$ is invertible and the restriction of
$f_{N}$ to each fibre is an affine mapping when $\boldsymbol{R}_{N}^{m \mid n}$ is regarded as a vector bundle over $\boldsymbol{R}_{N-1}^{m \mid n}$. On the other hand $f_{N-1}$ is a diffeomorphism of $V_{N-1}$ onto $W_{N-1}$. Thus $f_{N}$ is a diffeomorphism of $V_{N}$ onto $W_{N}$. Therefore there exists a $C^{\infty}$ inverse mapping $f^{-1}$ of $f$ which maps $W$ onto $V$. Moreover $g f \cdot g\left(f^{-1}\right)=$ identity of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$ and hence $g\left(f^{-1}\right)(w)$ is $G L(m \mid n)$. Therefore $f^{-1}$ is also $G^{\infty}$. This completes the proof.

Remark. The inverse mapping theorem does not hold for a projectable mapping nor an admissible mapping of $\boldsymbol{R}^{m \mid n}$.

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Kyoto Pref. University of Medicine Kyoto 603, Japan

