

## ON JORIS' THEOREM ON DIFFERENTIABILITY OF FUNCTIONS

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### 1. Introduction.

Let  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a function. If  $f^2, f^3 \in C^\infty$ , does it follow that  $f \in C^\infty$ ? The Inverse Function Theorem does not immediately give the answer. In 1982 H. Joris answered this problem affirmatively by showing the following theorem.

**THEOREM 1** (H. Joris [J]). *Let  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m$  be positive integers with g. c. d.  $\{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m\} = 1$ . If  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a function such that  $f^{n_i} \in C^\infty$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ , then  $f \in C^\infty$ .*

In the same paper H. Joris proposed the next problem.

**PROBLEM.** *Find the other families of smooth functions  $\{\phi_i: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R} \mid i=1, 2, \dots, m\}$  having the following property: For any function  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ ,  $f$  is smooth if and only if  $\phi_i \circ f$  is smooth for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ .*

If we assume the continuity of  $f$ , then we need only consider the germs at  $x=0$  since the study of differentiability is a local problem. In 1985 J. Duncan, S.G. Krantz and H.R. Parks gave a certain family  $\{\phi_i\}$  for continuous  $f$ .

**THEOREM 2** (J. Duncan, S.G. Krantz and H.R. Parks, [D] Theorem 2). *Let  $\phi_i: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be smooth functions such that  $\phi_i(x) = x^{n_i} +$  "higher order terms" near  $x=0$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$  with g. c. d.  $\{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m\} = 1$ . Then  $\{\phi_i\}$  has the following property: For any continuous function  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  with  $f(0)=0$ ,  $f$  is smooth near  $x=0$  if and only if  $\phi_i \circ f$  is smooth near  $x=0$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ .*

In the present paper, we give a simple proof of Joris' Theorem (§ 2) and the necessary and sufficient condition for  $\{\phi_i\}$  to have the property mentioned in Theorem 2 (§ 3 Theorem 3). In Appendix (§ 4), we discuss this condition further, especially for polynomials  $\phi_i$ .

### 2. Simple proof of Joris' Theorem.

The essential part of our proof is the following algebraic lemma.

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LEMMA 1. Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a ring and  $\mathcal{S}$  a subring of  $\mathcal{R}$  with the property:

(P) if  $a \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $a^r \in \mathcal{S}$  for every sufficiently large positive integer  $r$ , then  $a \in \mathcal{S}$ . Then the ring  $\mathcal{S}[[x]]$  of formal power series of  $x$  with coefficients in  $\mathcal{S}$  has the property (P) as a subring of  $\mathcal{R}[[x]]$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $f = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^{k+i}$  for some  $k \geq 0$ ,  $a_i \in \mathcal{R}$ , and  $f^r \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$  for every large  $r$ , then since  $a_0^r$  is the coefficient of the lowest term of  $f^r$ ,  $a_0^r \in \mathcal{S}$  and hence by (P)  $a_0 \in \mathcal{S}$ . The set  $\mathcal{S}'$  of all the elements  $a$  of  $\mathcal{R}$  for which  $a_0 a^m \in \mathcal{S}$  for every positive integer  $m$  is a subring of  $\mathcal{R}$  including  $\mathcal{S}$ , because  $a_0 a^r m$ ,  $a_0 b^r m \in \mathcal{S}$  implies  $a_0^2 a^r m b^r m \in \mathcal{S}$  for  $r \geq 2$  and hence  $a_0(ab)^m \in \mathcal{S}$ . Now we prove, by induction,  $a_n \in \mathcal{S}'$  for every  $n$ . Suppose  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathcal{S}'$ , then for  $f_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^{k+i}$ ,  $a_0 f_n^m \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$  for every  $m$ . So  $a_0 f^r (f - f_n)^{(r+1)m} = \sum_s \text{const. } f^{r+s} a_0 f_n^{(r+1)m-s} \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$  and hence the coefficient  $a_0^{r+1} a_{n+1}^{(r+1)m}$  of  $x^{kr+(k+n+1)(r+1)m}$  in  $a_0 f^r (f - f_n)^{(r+1)m}$  is in  $\mathcal{S}$ . Therefore, by (P),  $a_0 a_{n+1}^m \in \mathcal{S}$ , that is,  $a_{n+1} \in \mathcal{S}'$ . Since  $a_n \in \mathcal{S}'$  for every  $n$ ,  $a_0 f^m \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$  for every  $m$ . Then for  $f - a_0 x^k = a_1 x^{k+1} + \dots$ ,  $(f - a_0 x^k)^r = f^r + \sum_{s=1}^r \text{const. } a_0^s f^{r-s} x^{ks} \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$ . This shows  $a_1 \in \mathcal{S}$  and repeating the same argument, we have  $a_n \in \mathcal{S}$  for every  $n$ , that is,  $f \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$ , which completes the proof of Lemma 1.

Let  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a function such that  $f^{n_i} \in C^\infty$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$  with *g.c.d.*  $\{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m\} = 1$ . We must show that  $f \in C^\infty$ . In [B] J. Boman showed that  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is smooth if and only if  $f \circ g$  is smooth for every smooth map  $g: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$ . Hence we may assume that  $n=1$ , namely  $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ . Since *g.c.d.*  $\{n_i\} = 1$ , there exists a positive integer  $p$  such that any integer  $r \geq p$  is written as  $r = \sum \alpha_i n_i$  for suitable non-negative integers  $\alpha_i$  and hence  $f^r = \prod (f^{n_i})^{\alpha_i}$  is smooth. For any smooth function  $g(x)$ , the  $\infty$ -jet  $j_a g$  of  $g$  at  $x=a$ , i.e.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1/n!) g^{(n)}(a) x^n$ , gives an element of the formal power series ring  $\mathbf{R}[[x]]$ . We say  $g$  is *flat* at  $a$  if  $j_a g = 0$ . It is easy to show that  $f$  is smooth near the non-flat point of  $f^p$ . In fact, assume that  $j_0 f^p \neq 0$ . Choose an odd prime number  $r > p$ . Then we have  $f^p = ax^n + \dots$  and  $f^r = bx^m + \dots = x^m g$  where  $g$  is a smooth function with  $g(0) \neq 0$ . Since  $(f^p)^r = (f^r)^p$  and  $m=rl$  for some positive integer  $l$ ,  $f = x^l g^{1/r}$  is smooth near  $x=0$ . Let  $D$  be the set of all non-flat points of  $f^p$ , then  $D$  is an open subset of  $\mathbf{R}$  and  $f^r$  is flat at every point in  $\mathbf{R} - D$  for any  $r \geq p$ . Now apply Lemma 1 to the ring  $\mathcal{R}$  of all continuous functions on  $D$  and its subring  $\mathcal{S}$  consisting of the restrictions of all continuous functions on  $\mathbf{R}$  which vanish in  $\mathbf{R} - D$ . Obviously  $\mathcal{S}$  has the property (P) in  $\mathcal{R}$ . For any smooth function  $g$  on  $D$ ,  $\{j_a g | a \in D\}$  can be considered as an element  $J(g)$  of  $\mathcal{R}[[x]]$ . Now for our  $f$  considered as a smooth function on  $D$ ,  $J(f)^r = J(f^r) \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$  for any  $r \geq p$ . So, by Lemma 1,  $J(f) \in \mathcal{S}[[x]]$ , in other words, for every  $n$ , the  $n$ -th derivative  $f^{(n)}$  of  $f$  is the restriction of a continuous function on  $\mathbf{R}$  vanishing in  $\mathbf{R} - D$ . The rest of the proof is covered by repeated applications of the following simple lemma.

LEMMA 2. Let  $D$  be an open set of  $\mathbf{R}$ . If  $f$  and  $g$  are both continuous functions vanishing in  $\mathbf{R} - D$ ,  $f$  is differentiable in  $D$ , and  $f'(x) = g(x)$  for every  $x \in D$ , then  $f$  is differentiable in the whole  $\mathbf{R}$  and  $f' = g$ .

*Proof.* For  $a \in \mathbf{R}-D$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta$  such that  $|a-x| < \delta$  implies  $|g(x)| < \varepsilon$ . For any  $b$  with  $|a-b| < \delta$ , let  $c$  be the point closest to  $b$  among points of  $\mathbf{R}-D$  between  $a$  and  $b$ . Then since any point  $x$  between  $b$  and  $c$  belongs to  $D$  and  $|f'(x)| = |g(x)| < \varepsilon$ , we have  $|f(a)-f(b)| = |f(c)-f(b)| \leq \varepsilon|c-b| \leq \varepsilon|a-b|$ . So  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$  and  $f'(a)=0$ . This completes the proof.

### 3. Condition for $\{\phi_i\}$ .

Here we give an answer to Joris' Problem. In the sequel,  $d(g)$  denotes, for  $g = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \in \mathbf{R}[[x]]$ , the smallest  $n$  such that  $a_n \neq 0$ ,  $d(A) = \text{g.c.d.}\{d(g) \mid g \in A\}$  for any subset  $A \subset \mathbf{R}[[x]]$ , and  $[j_0\phi_1, j_0\phi_2, \dots, j_0\phi_m]$  the subalgebra of  $\mathbf{R}[[x]]$  generated by  $j_0\phi_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**THEOREM 3.** *Let  $\phi_i: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be smooth functions with  $\phi_i(0)=0$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ . Then the following (1) and (2) are equivalent.*

(1) *For any continuous function  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  with  $f(0)=0$ ,  $f$  is smooth near  $x=0$  if and only if  $\phi_i \circ f$  is smooth near  $x=0$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ .*

(2)  $d([j_0\phi_1, j_0\phi_2, \dots, j_0\phi_m])=1$ .

*Proof.* As in section 2 we may assume that  $n=1$ . We consider two more conditions for  $\{\phi_i\}$ .

(3) *There exist smooth functions  $F_j$ ,  $j=1, 2, \dots, l$  such that  $F_j(\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots, \phi_m(x)) = x^{n_j} + \text{"higher order terms"}$  near  $x=0$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}\{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_l\}=1$ .*

(4) *There exist smooth functions  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  such that  $F_j(\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots, \phi_m(x)) = x^{n_j}$  near  $x=0$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}\{n_1, n_2\}=1$ .*

*Proof of (2)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (3).* This follows from E. Borel's theorem which states that for any element  $\tilde{g} \in \mathbf{R}[[x]]$  there exists a smooth function  $g(x)$  with  $j_0g = \tilde{g}$ .

*Proof of (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (4).* This is given in Theorem 2 [D]. Here we give another proof. As in section 2 there exists a positive integer  $p$  such that any integer  $r \geq p$  is written as  $r = \sum \alpha_j n_j$  for some non-negative integers  $\alpha_j$ , and hence  $\prod F_j(\phi_1(x), \dots)^{\alpha_j} = x^r + \dots$ . Then, for any odd integer  $n \geq p$ , there exists  $\tilde{F}(x_1, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbf{R}[[x_1, \dots, x_m]]$  such that  $\tilde{F}(j_0\phi_1, \dots) = x^n$  in  $\mathbf{R}[[x]]$ . By E. Borel's theorem there exist smooth functions  $F$  and  $g_1$  such that  $j_0g_1=0$  and  $F(\phi_1(x), \dots) = x^n + g_1(x)$  near  $x=0$ . We can easily find a smooth function  $G$  with  $(G \circ F)(\phi_1(x), \dots) = x^n$ . In fact, since  $y(x) = (F(\phi_1(x), \dots))^{1/n}$  is smooth and  $j_0y=x$ , we have  $x = k(y) = y(1+g_2(y))$  for suitable smooth functions  $k(y)$  and  $g_2(y)$  with  $j_0g_2=0$ . Put  $G(Y) = k(Y^{1/n})^n$ , then  $G(Y) = (Y^{1/n}(1+g_2(Y^{1/n})))^n = Y(1+g_2(Y^{1/n}))^n$  is smooth since  $j_0g_2=0$  and  $(G \circ F)(\phi_1(x), \dots) = G(y(x)^n) = k(y(x))^n = x^n$  which completes the proof.

*Proof of (4)  $\Rightarrow$  (1).* This follows from Joris' Theorem.

To prove (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2), we need the following algebraic lemma.  $g = \sum a_n x^n \in \mathbf{R}[[x]]$

is said to be *normal* if  $a_{d(g)}=1$  and  $a_{k d(g)}=0$  for every  $k>1$ , and for  $g \in \mathbf{R}[x]$  with  $d(g)>0$ ,  $\llbracket g \rrbracket$  denotes the closed subalgebra generated by  $g$ , namely  $\{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i g^i \mid c_i \in \mathbf{R}\}$ .

LEMMA 3. *For any subalgebra  $A \subset \mathbf{R}[x]$  with  $d(A)>0$  and any positive integer  $d$  with  $d \mid d(A)$ , there exists a unique normal element  $h \in \mathbf{R}[x]$  such that  $d(h)=d$  and  $\llbracket h \rrbracket \supset A$ .*

*Proof.* First we prove the following statement.

(i) If  $d(h)=d$  and  $\llbracket h \rrbracket \cap A \neq \{0\}$  then  $\llbracket h \rrbracket \supset A$ .

Since the coordinate transformation  $y=h(x)^{1/d}$  induces the isomorphism  $\mathbf{R}[x] \cong \mathbf{R}[y]$  and  $h$  corresponds to  $y^d$ , we may assume that  $h=x^d$ . If there exist elements  $g=x^{r_d} + \dots + cx^{r_d+a} + \dots \in A$  with  $c \neq 0$  and  $a \nmid d$ , we can choose  $g$  having the smallest  $a$  in the above representation. Take any  $k=x^{s_d} + \dots \in \llbracket x^d \rrbracket \cap A \neq \{0\}$ , then  $g^s - k^r = bx^{t_d} + \dots + scx^{sr_d+a} + \dots \in A$  and  $sr_d + a - td < a$  contradicting the choice of  $g$ . This completes the proof of (i). As a corollary we have

(ii) If  $d(h)=d(h_1)>0$  and  $\llbracket h \rrbracket \cap \llbracket h_1 \rrbracket \neq \{0\}$  then  $\llbracket h \rrbracket = \llbracket h_1 \rrbracket$ .

Now to show the existence of  $h$  in the lemma, choose any  $g=x^{r_d} + \dots \in A$  and put  $h_1=g^{1/r}=x^d + \dots$ , then  $\llbracket h_1 \rrbracket \cap A \ni g$  and hence  $\llbracket h_1 \rrbracket \supset A$  by (i). We can easily find real numbers  $c_i$  with  $c_i=1$  such that  $h=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i h_1^i$  is normal. We have also  $\llbracket h \rrbracket = \llbracket h_1 \rrbracket \supset A$  by (ii). To prove the uniqueness of  $h$ , let  $h_2$  be any element satisfying the conditions of the lemma, then  $\llbracket h \rrbracket = \llbracket h_2 \rrbracket$  by (ii). If  $h-h_2 \neq 0$  then  $d \nmid d(h-h_2)$  contradicting the fact  $h-h_2 \in \llbracket h \rrbracket$ . This completes the proof of Lemma 3.

*Proof of (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2).* Suppose  $d=d(\llbracket j_0 \phi_1, \dots \rrbracket) > 1$ . By Lemma 3 there exist  $\tilde{h}=x^d + \dots$  and  $\tilde{F}_i \in \mathbf{R}[x]$  such that  $j_0 \phi_i = \tilde{F}_i(\tilde{h})$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, m$ . By E. Borel's theorem we have  $\phi_i(x) = F_i(h(x)) + g_i(x)$  for suitable smooth functions  $F_i, h, g_i$  with  $j_0 g_i = 0$ . So it is sufficient to show that there exists a non-smooth function  $f$  for which  $h \circ f$  and  $g_i \circ f$  are smooth. Since  $h(x) = x^d(1 + \dots) = (x + \dots)^d$ , we can find a smooth function  $k$  with  $h(k(x)) = x^d$ . Now we put  $f(x) = k(x^{1/d})$  if  $d$  is odd and  $f(x) = k(|x|)$  if  $d$  is even. Then  $f$  is not smooth and  $g_i \circ f$  is smooth since  $j_0 g_i = 0$ . Moreover  $h \circ f$  is smooth, for  $h(f(x)) = x$  if  $d$  is odd and  $h(f(x)) = x^d$  if  $d$  is even. This contradicts (1). So the proof of Theorem 3 is completed.

#### 4. Appendix.

In this section we discuss about the algorithm of computing  $d(\llbracket j_0 \phi_1, \dots \rrbracket)$  by use of jets  $j_0 \phi_i$ . Let  $g$  be an element of  $\mathbf{R}[x]$  with  $d(g)>0$  and  $d$  a positive integer with  $d \mid d(g)$ . Then, applying Lemma 3 to the subalgebra generated by  $g$ , we can find a unique normal element  $h=h(g, d) \in \mathbf{R}[x]$  such that  $d(h)=d$  and  $g=F(h)$  for some  $F \in \mathbf{R}[x]$ . Note that each coefficient of  $h(g, d)$  is given

by some polynomial of  $a_n/a_d(g)$  where  $g = \sum a_n x^n$ . Now, put  $A = [j_0 \phi_1, \dots]$ ,  $d_A = d(A)$  and  $j_0 \phi_i = \sum_{j=1}^{l_i} a_{i,j} x^{n_{i,j}}$  where  $a_{i,j} \neq 0$ ,  $l_i \leq \infty$  and  $n_{i1} < n_{i2} < \dots$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . It is clear that  $g.c.d.\{n_{i,j}|i, j\} | d_A$  and  $d_A | g.c.d.\{n_{i1}|i\}$ . In the finite number of integers  $d$  such that  $d | g.c.d.\{n_{i1}|i\}$ ,  $d_A$  is characterized by the following proposition.

**PROPOSITION 1.** *For any positive integer  $d$  with  $d | g.c.d.\{n_{i1}|i\}$ , we have  $d | d_A$  if and only if  $h(j_0 \phi_1, d) = \dots = h(j_0 \phi_m, d)$ .*

*Proof.* Assume that  $d_A = rd$  for some  $r$ . By Lemma 3,  $[h_A] \supset A$  for some  $h_A$  with  $d(h_A) = rd$  and hence  $j_0 \phi_i = F_i(h_A)$  for some  $F_i$ . Let  $h = h(h_A, d)$ , then  $h_A = F(h)$  for some  $F$  and hence  $j_0 \phi_i = (F_i \circ F)(h)$ . So by the uniqueness of  $h(j_0 \phi_i, d)$ , we have  $h(j_0 \phi_i, d) = h$  as desired. Conversely assume that  $h(j_0 \phi_1, d) = \dots = h$ . Then  $[h] \ni j_0 \phi_i$  and hence  $[h] \supset A$  which implies  $d | d_A$ .

The following corollary corresponds to Theorem 3[D].

**COROLLARY.** *If  $j_0 \phi_1 = x^{n_{11}}$  then  $d_A = g.c.d.\{n_{1,j}|i, j\}$ .*

*Proof.* We have  $h(j_0 \phi_1, d_A) = \dots = h$  and  $j_0 \phi_i = F_i(h)$  for suitable  $F_i \in \mathbf{R}[x]$ . It follows from  $j_0 \phi_1 = x^{n_{11}} = F_1(h)$  that  $h = x^{d_A}$  and from  $j_0 \phi_i = F_i(x^{d_A})$ ,  $d_A | n_{i,j}$  which implies  $d_A = g.c.d.\{n_{i,j}|i, j\}$ .

Proposition 1 gives an algorithm of computing  $d_A$  by use of jets  $j_0 \phi_i$ , but it needs an infinite number of procedures to check whether  $h(j_0 \phi_1, d) = \dots = h(j_0 \phi_m, d)$  or not even though each  $\phi_i$  is a polynomial. The following Proposition 2 gives a finite algorithm of computing  $d_A$  for polynomials  $\phi_i$ .

**LEMMA 4.** (i) *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the maximal ideal of  $\mathbf{C}[x]$  generated by  $x$  and  $\Phi: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}[x]^m$  a map given by  $\Phi(g) = (j_0 \phi_1 \circ g, \dots)$ , then  $\Phi$  is  $d_A$  to 1 map, namely for any  $g \neq 0$  there exist exactly  $d_A$  elements  $k$  such that  $\Phi(k) = \Phi(g)$ .*

(ii) *Suppose that every  $\phi_i(x)$  is analytic near  $x=0$ . Let  $\Phi: U \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^m$  be a map given by  $\Phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \dots)$  for some neighbourhood  $U$  of 0 in  $\mathbf{C}$ , then  $\Phi$  is  $d_A$  to 1 map near  $x=0$ .*

*Proof.* (i) By Lemma 3,  $[h] \supset A$  for some  $h$  with  $d(h) = d_A = d$ . By the coordinate transformation we may assume that  $h = x^d$  and hence  $j_0 \phi_i = \sum_j a_{i,j} x^{j d}$  for suitable  $a_{i,j}$ . By the definition of  $d_A$  there exists a positive integer  $p$  such that for any integer  $r \geq p$  we can find  $f \in A$  with  $d(f) = rd$  and hence  $F \in \mathbf{R}[x_1, \dots, x_m]$  with  $F(j_0 \phi_1, \dots, j_0 \phi_m) = x^{r d}$ . Therefore  $\Phi(k) = \Phi(g)$  if and only if  $k^d = g^d$ , that is,  $k = \varepsilon_a^n g$  for  $\varepsilon_a = \exp(2\pi i/d)$  and  $n = 1, 2, \dots, d$ .

(ii) Suppose  $\Phi(x) = \Phi(y)$ . Then  $\phi_i(x) = a_i x^{r_i d} (1 + \dots) = a_i y^{r_i d} (1 + \dots)$  and  $y(1 + \dots) = \varepsilon_{r_i d}^n x(1 + \dots)$  and hence  $y = \varepsilon_{r_i d}^n x + \dots = y_{i,n}(x)$ . Since  $y_{i,n}(x)$  is holomorphic near  $x=0$ , it follows from (i) that the number of small solutions  $y$  of  $\Phi(y) = \Phi(x)$  is  $d_A$  for small  $x \neq 0$ .

**COROLLARY.** *The following condition for  $\{\phi_i\}$  is equivalent to (1) in Theorem 1.*

(5) The map  $\Phi(g)=(j_0\phi_1\circ g, \dots): \mathcal{M}\rightarrow\mathcal{C}[[x]]^m$  is injective.

**PROPOSITION 2.** *Suppose that each  $\phi_i$  is a polynomial. Let  $\phi(x, y)$  be the greatest common divisor of  $\{\phi_i(x)-\phi_i(y)|i=1, 2, \dots, m\}$  in  $\mathbf{R}[[x, y]]$ , then  $d([j_0\phi_1, j_0\phi_2, \dots, j_0\phi_m])=d(\phi(x, 0))$ .*

*Proof.*  $\phi(x, y)$  is obtained by using Euclidean algorithm with respect to polynomials of  $x$  whose coefficients are rational functions of  $y$ . Then  $\phi(x, a)$  is the greatest common divisor of  $\{\phi_i(x)-\phi_i(a)|i\}$  in  $\mathbf{R}[[x]]$  for any real number  $a$  with finite exceptions. Since the coefficient of the highest order term of  $\phi(x, a)$  is independent of  $a$ , the solutions  $x$  of  $\phi(x, a)=0$  depend continuously on  $a$ . So  $d(\phi(x, 0))$  is equal to the number of solutions  $x$  of  $\phi(x, a)=0$  such that  $x\rightarrow 0$  as  $a\rightarrow 0$ . This number is equal to the number of common solutions  $x$  of  $\phi_i(x)-\phi_i(a)=0, i=1, 2, \dots, m$ , such that  $x\rightarrow 0$  as  $a\rightarrow 0$ . By Lemma 4 (ii) we have  $d(\phi(x, 0))=d_A$ .

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