The Carathéodory and Kobayashi Metrics and Applications in Complex Analysis

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Abstract: The Carathéodory and Kobayashi metrics have proved to be important tools in the function theory of several complex variables. But they are less familiar in the context of one complex variable. Our purpose here is to gather in one place the basic ideas about these important invariant metrics for domains in the plane and to provide some illuminating examples and applications.

0 Prefatory Thoughts

In the late nineteenth century, Henri Poincaré (1854–1912) introduced the profoundly original idea of equipping the unit disc $D$ in the complex plane with a metric that is invariant under conformal self-maps of $D$. One may recall (see [GRK]) that the conformal maps of the disc are generated by the rotations

$$\rho_\theta : \zeta \mapsto e^{i\theta} \zeta$$

for $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ and the Möbius transformations

$$\varphi_a : \zeta \mapsto \frac{\zeta - a}{1 - \overline{a}\zeta}$$

for $a \in \mathbb{C}$, $|a| < 1$. While rotations certainly preserve Euclidean distance, the Möbius transformations do not—see Figure 1.

It is most convenient to describe the Poincaré metric in infinitesimal form. In fact we set

$$\rho(\zeta) = \frac{1}{1 - |\zeta|^2}.$$
The Poincaré length of a vector $\xi$ at base point $P$ is then defined to be 

$$\|\xi\|_{P,\text{Poinc}} \equiv \rho(P) \cdot |\xi|,$$

where $|\xi|$ denotes Euclidean length of the vector $\xi$. Throughout most of this paper we shall use Finsler metric notation, and we may as well begin now. In that notation, we write the Poincaré metric as

$$F^\Omega_P(P,\xi) = \frac{|\xi|}{1 - |P|^2}.$$

Now we define the length of a piecewise $C^1$ curve $\gamma : [0,1] \to D$ to be

$$L_P(\gamma) \equiv \int_0^1 F^\Omega_P(\gamma(t),\gamma'(t)) \, dt.$$

The Poincaré distance of two points $P$ and $Q$ in the disc, denoted $d_P(P,Q)$, is now declared to be the infimum of the Poincaré lengths of all piecewise $C^1$ curves connecting $P$ to $Q$.

The conformal invariance of the Poincaré metric is treated in detail in the reference [KRA1]. We shall not discuss it here. Suffice it to say that Poincaré’s construction is special to the disc. It is in fact a matter of some interest to equip virtually any domain in the plane (or in higher-dimensional
complex space) with a conformally or biholomorphically invariant metric. And there are various means of doing so. Certainly the most classical is to use the uniformization theorem. We shall discuss that approach in the next section. One of the first intrinsic techniques was developed by Stefan Bergman in 1923 (see [BER]). Constantin Carathéodory [CAR] created another in 1927. One of the most recent is that developed in 1969 by S. Kobayashi [KOB1]. See also the definitive references [KOB2], [PFL], [KOB3], [ROY].

Both Carathéodory’s and Kobayashi’s constructions have the advantage of being elementary, intrinsic, flexible, and immediately accessible. Their motivation from the proof of the Riemann mapping theorem is immediate. It is a lovely example of modern mathematics at work. The present paper is dedicated to the study of those two metrics.

It is a pleasure to thank the referees for very carefully reading my manuscript and contributing considerable wisdom and insight. The result is a cleaner and more precise presentation.

1 The Uniformization Theorem

The uniformization theorem of Kőbe and Poincaré is a remarkable generalization of the Riemann mapping theorem. We cannot prove it here, but we provide a brief discussion.

If $X$ is any topological space, then it has a simply connected universal covering space $\hat{X}$. The universal covering space is constructed by fixing a point $x_0 \in X$ and considering the space of all paths in $X$ emanating from $x_0$. The covering map

$$\pi : \hat{X} \to X$$

is a local homeomorphism. We refer the reader to [SPA] or [HUS] for details.

In case $X$ is a domain $\Omega$ in the complex plane, or more generally a Riemann surface, then the universal covering space $\hat{X}$ will be a two-dimensional object (because $\pi$ is a local homeomorphism), and $\hat{X}$ can be endowed with a complex structure by local pullback under $\pi$ of the complex structure from $X$. So $\hat{X}$ is a simply connected analytic object. What is it?

The uniformization theorem answers this question in a dramatic way. Before we present the answer, let us first restate the question—stripped of all the preliminary material that led up to it.
**QUESTION:** What are all the simply connected Riemann surfaces?

The answer is

**ANSWER:** The only simply connected Riemann surfaces are (i) the disk $D$, (ii) the plane $\mathbb{C}$, and (iii) the Riemann sphere $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$.

And in fact much more can be said. Let us return to the motivational discussion above. If the original analytic object $X$ is a sphere, then it turns out that the universal covering space $\hat{X}$ will be a sphere, and that is the *only* circumstance under which a sphere arises as the universal covering space.

If the original analytic object is a plane or a punctured plane or a torus or a cylinder, then the universal covering space $\hat{X}$ is a plane, and these are the only circumstances in which the plane arises as the universal covering space.

In all other circumstances, the universal covering space is the disk $D$. In other words,

The universal covering space for any planar domain except $\mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ is the disk $D$.

This is powerful information, and those who study Riemann surfaces have turned the result into an important tool (see [FAK]).

Suppose now that $U$ is a planar domain that is neither the entire plane nor the punctured plane. Then the universal covering space is (conformally) the disc and we have a covering map $\pi : D \to U$. Then we may push the Poincaré metric from the disc down to $U$—that is to say, measure the length of a tangent vector to $U$ at $P \in U$ by pulling the vector back up to $D$ by way of $\pi$. And so virtually any planar domain may be equipped with an invariant metric. We call such a domain *hyperbolic*—see [KRA1]. One of the points of the present paper is that there are instead distinct advantages to constructing the invariant metric intrinsically. The constructions of Carathéodory and Kobayashi in fact generalize to a broad range of circumstances—even complex manifolds of many variables—and have proved to be powerful tools for function theory.
2 Motivation by Way of the Schwarz and Schwarz-Pick Lemmas

The construction of the Carathéodory and Kobayashi metrics is motivated in a natural way by Schwarz’s lemma. The fact that an invariant metric is thereby constructed is closely related to the more general Schwarz-Pick lemma. We take this opportunity to review those ideas.

The classical Schwarz lemma is part of the grist of every complex analysis class. A version of it says this:

**Lemma 1** Let $f : D \to D$ be holomorphic. Assume that $f(0) = 0$. Then

(a) $|f(z)| \leq |z|$ for all $z \in D$;

(b) $|f'(0)| \leq 1$.

At least as important as these two statements are the cognate uniqueness statements:

(c) If $|f(z)| = |z|$ for some $z \neq 0$, then $f$ is a rotation: $f(z) = \lambda z$ for some unimodular complex constant $\lambda$;

(d) If $|f'(0)| = 1$, then $f$ is a rotation: $f(z) = \lambda z$ for some unimodular complex constant $\lambda$.

There are a number of ways to prove this result. The classical argument is to consider $g(z) = f(z)/z$. On a circle $|z| = 1 - \epsilon$, we see that $|g(z)| \leq 1/(1 - \epsilon)$. Thus $|f(z)| \leq |z|/(1 - \epsilon)$. Since this inequality holds for all $\epsilon > 0$, part (a) follows. The Cauchy estimates show that $|f'(0)| \leq 1$.

For the uniqueness, if $|f(z)| = |z|$ for some $z \neq 0$, then $|g(z)| = 1$. The maximum modulus principle then forces $|f(z)| = |z|$ for all $z$, and hence $f$ is a rotation. If instead $|f'(0)| = 1$, then $|g(0)| = 1$ and again the maximum modulus principle yields that $f$ is a rotation.

The Schwarz-Pick lemma observes that there is no need to restrict to $f(0) = 0$. Once one comes up with the right formulation, the proof is straightforward:

**Proposition 2** Let $f : D \to D$. Assume that $a \neq b$ are elements of $D$ and that $f(a) = \alpha$, $f(b) = \beta$. Then
(a) \[ \left| \frac{\beta - \alpha}{1 - \alpha \beta} \right| \leq \left| \frac{b - a}{1 - ab} \right|; \]

(b) \[ |f'(a)| \leq 1 - \frac{|a|^2}{1 - |a|^2}. \]

There is also a pair of uniqueness statements:

(c) If \( \left| \frac{\beta - \alpha}{1 - \alpha \beta} \right| = \left| \frac{b - a}{1 - ab} \right| \), then \( f \) is a conformal self-map of the disk \( D \);

(d) If \( |f'(a)| = 1 - \frac{|a|^2}{1 - |a|^2} \), then \( f \) is a conformal self-map of the disk \( D \).

Proof: We sketch the proof. Recall that, for \( a \) a complex number in \( D \),

\[ \varphi_a(\zeta) = \frac{\zeta - a}{1 - \overline{a} \zeta} \]

defines a \textit{Möbius transformation}. This is a conformal self-map of the disk that takes \( a \) to 0. Note that \( \varphi_{-a} \) is the inverse mapping to \( \varphi_a \).

Now, for the given \( f \), consider

\[ g(z) = \varphi_a \circ f \circ \varphi_{-a}. \]

Then \( g : D \to D \) and \( g(0) = 0 \). So the standard Schwarz lemma applies to \( g \). By part (a) of that lemma,

\[ |g(z)| \leq |z|. \]

Letting \( z = \varphi_a(\zeta) \) yields

\[ |\varphi_a \circ f(\zeta)| \leq |\varphi_a(\zeta)|. \]

Writing this out, and setting \( \zeta = b \), gives the conclusion

\[ \left| \frac{\beta - \alpha}{1 - \alpha \beta} \right| \leq \left| \frac{b - a}{1 - ab} \right|. \]

That is part (a).

For part (b), we certainly have that

\[ |(\varphi_a \circ f \circ \varphi_{-a})'(0)| \leq 1. \]
Using the chain rule, we may rewrite this as
\[ |\varphi'_a(f \circ \varphi_{-a}(0))| \cdot |f'(\varphi_{-a}(0))| \cdot |\varphi'_{-a}(0)| \leq 1. \] (\*)

Now of course
\[ \varphi'_a(\zeta) = \frac{1 - |a|^2}{(1 - \overline{a}\zeta)^2}. \]

So we may rewrite (\*) as
\[ \left( \frac{1 - |a|^2}{(1 - |a|^2)^2} \right) \cdot |f'(a)| \cdot (1 - |a|^2) \leq 1. \]

Now part (b) follows.

We leave parts (c) and (d) as exercises for the reader.  

\[ \square \]

The quantity
\[ \rho(a, b) = \frac{|a - b|}{|1 - \overline{a}b|} \]

is called the \textit{pseudohyperbolic metric}. It is actually a metric on \( D \) (details left to the reader). It is not identical to the Poincaré-Bergman metric. In fact it is not a Riemannian metric at all. But it is still true that conformal maps of the disk are distance-preserving in the pseudohyperbolic metric. Exercise: Use the Schwarz-Pick lemma to prove this last assertion.

One useful interpretation of the Schwarz-Pick lemma is that a holomorphic function \( f \) from the disk to the disk must take each disk \( D(0, r), \ 0 < r < 1 \), into (but not necessarily onto) the image of that disk under the linear fractional map
\[ z \mapsto \frac{z + \alpha}{1 + \overline{\alpha}z}, \]

where \( f(0) = \alpha \). This image is in fact (in case \(-1 < \alpha < 1\)) a standard Euclidean disk with center on the real axis at \( \alpha \) and diameter (in case \( 0 < \alpha < 1 \)) given by the interval
\[ \left[ \frac{\alpha - r}{1 - \alpha r}, \frac{\alpha + r}{1 + \alpha r} \right]. \]

The reader will see, when encountering the definitions of the Carathéodory and Kobayashi metrics, the Schwarz lemma acting as motivation. Certainly the Schwarz lemma arises frequently in the proofs of the basic results about these metrics.
3 Basic Facts about the Kobayashi Metric

Following the paradigm set in Section 0 (for the Poincaré metric), we shall define the Kobayashi metric at first on the infinitesimal level. That is to say, we shall specify the length of a tangent vector at each point. We will always let $\Omega$ denote a connected, open set, or a domain. Following tradition, we let $D = \{ \zeta \in \mathbb{C} : |\zeta| < 1 \}$ denote the unit disc and we let $\Omega(D)$ denote the collection of holomorphic functions from $D$ to $\Omega$. If $z \in \Omega$ then we further let $\Omega^z(D)$ denote the subcollection of elements $f$ of $\Omega(D)$ which satisfy $f(0) = z$.

So let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a domain. Fix a point $P \in \Omega$ and a vector $\xi$ which is thought of as being tangent to the plane at the point $P$. We define the infinitesimal Kobayashi or Kobayashi/Royden length of $\xi$ at $P$ to be

$$F^\Omega_K(P, \xi) \equiv \inf \{ \alpha : \alpha > 0 \text{ and } \exists f \in \Omega(D) \text{ with } f(0) = P, f'(0) = \xi/\alpha \}$$

$$= \inf \left\{ \frac{|\xi|}{|f'(0)|} : f \in \Omega^P(D) \right\}.$$

It is in general not the case that $F^\Omega_K$ satisfies a triangle inequality in the second entry. Nonetheless we can, as indicated in our discussion of the Poincaré metric, construct from it a useful metric.

Remark: Recall the standard, modern proof of the Riemann mapping theorem (see [GRK]). We are given a simply connected domain $\Omega$ (not all of $\mathbb{C}$), and our goal is to construct a conformal mapping of $D$ to $\Omega$. We fix a point $P \in \Omega$ and we consider the family $S$ of holomorphic mappings $\varphi : D \to \Omega$ with $\varphi(0) = P$. A normal families argument is used to show that there is an element $\varphi^*$ of $S$ that maximizes the modulus of the derivative at 0. The function $\varphi^*$ turns out to be the conformal mapping that we seek.

Now look at the definition of the Kobayashi/Royden metric. The metric at a point $P$ in the direction $\xi$ minimizes the expression $|\xi|/|f'(0)|$ over mappings $f$ of the disc into $\Omega$. This is the same as maximizing the quantity $|f''(0)|$. Thus we see the proof of the Riemann mapping theorem coming back to life in the definition of the Kobayashi/Royden metric.\footnote{In fact the idea behind the Kobayashi metric has a long history. Even in the 1920s, T. Rado observed that the same extremal problem may be used to produce a proof of the uniformization theorem for planar domains. See [GOL, p. 256].}
Definition 1 Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be open and $\gamma : [0,1] \to \Omega$ a piecewise $C^1$ curve. The Kobayashi/Royden length of $\gamma$ is defined to be\footnote{A word needs to be said about why $F_K^\Omega$ is integrable. In fact it is not difficult to see that $F_K^\Omega$ is lower semicontinuous, since it is the infimum of continuous functions. And that is sufficient for the integrability.}

$$L_K^\Omega(\gamma) = L_K(\gamma) = \int_0^1 F_K^\Omega(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t))dt.$$ 

Definition 2 Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be an open set and $z,w \in \Omega$. The (integrated) Kobayashi/Royden distance between $z$ and $w$ is defined to be

$$K^\Omega(z,w) = K(z,w) = \inf\{L_K(\gamma) : \gamma \text{ is a piecewise } C^1 \text{ curve connecting } z \text{ and } w\}.$$ 

Of course it must be noted that $K^\Omega$ need not be a distance function in the classical sense of the term. As an instance, if $\Omega$ is the entire complex plane then $K^\Omega$ is identically equal to zero. A domain for which $K^\Omega$ is a genuine (nondegenerate) distance is called hyperbolic (this is equivalent to our earlier use of the term “hyperbolic”). The book [KRA1] has a concise treatment of hyperbolicity. See also [KOB2]. For all practical purposes, hyperbolicity is an invariant version of boundedness—in other words, a hyperbolic domain has all the key properties of a bounded domain, but hyperbolicity has the additional advantage of being invariant under conformal mappings.

One of the most important, and most interesting, properties of the Kobayashi metric is that a holomorphic function is distance decreasing in the metric. We shall be able to make good use of it in the examples below.

Proposition 3 (The Distance Decreasing Property of the Kobayashi Metric)

If $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$ are domains in $\mathbb{C}$, $z, w \in \Omega_1, \xi \in \mathbb{C}$, and if $f : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$ is holomorphic, then

$$F_K^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) \leq F_K^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) \quad \text{and} \quad K^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) \leq K^{\Omega_1}(z, w).$$

Remark: Observe that the Chain Rule demands that we put a factor of $f'(z)$ in front of the tangent vector when we calculate $F_K^{\Omega_2}(f(z), \cdot)$.

Proof of the Proposition: We prove the first inequality and leave the second for the reader.
Let $\varphi : D \to \Omega_1$ satisfy $\varphi(0) = z$. We call $\varphi$ a candidate mapping for the Kobayashi metric at the point $z$ on the domain $\Omega_1$. Then $f \circ \varphi$ is a candidate mapping for the Kobayashi metric at the point $f(z)$ on the domain $\Omega_2$. Thus

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) = \inf_{g \in \Omega_2^{(z)}(D)} \frac{|f'(z)\xi|}{|g'(0)|} \leq \frac{|f'(z)\xi|}{|(f \circ \varphi)'(0)|} = \frac{|\xi|}{|\varphi'(0)|}.$$

Now we take the infimum over all candidates $\varphi$ to obtain

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) \leq F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi).$$

**Corollary 4** If $f : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$ is conformal then $f$ is an isometry in the Kobayashi/Royden metric. This means that $f$ preserves distances:

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) = F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) \quad \text{and} \quad K^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) = K^{\Omega_1}(z, w).$$

**Remark:** A caution is in order here. The reader who knows some differential geometry will be accustomed to the term “isometry”, and will think of such a mapping as preserving distances in a strong (classical) sense. The “metrics” that we consider now may degenerate to 0, so our present use of the term “isometry” is somewhat more general.

**Proof of the Corollary:** Let us prove the first assertion. We leave the second to the reader. Now the proposition certainly tells us that

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) \leq F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi). \quad (\ast)$$

But we may also apply the proposition to $f^{-1} : \Omega_2 \to \Omega_1$. The result is

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(f^{-1}(a), [f^{-1}]'(a)\tau) \leq F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(a, \tau).$$

Now simply let $a = f(z)$ and $\tau = f'(f^{-1}(a))\xi$ to obtain

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) \leq F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi). \quad (\ast\ast)$$

Combining (\ast) and (\ast\ast) yields

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) = F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi).$$

**Corollary 5** If $\Omega_1 \subseteq \Omega_2 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ then, for any $z, w \in \Omega_1$, any $\xi \in \mathbb{C}$, we have

$$F_{K}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) \geq F_{K}^{\Omega_2}(z, \xi) \quad \text{and} \quad K^{\Omega_1}(z, w) \geq K^{\Omega_2}(z, w).$$

**Proof:** Simply apply the proposition to the inclusion mapping $i : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$. \hfill $\square$
4 Basic Facts about the Carathéodory Metric

Following the model set in the last section, we shall define the Carathéodory metric at first on the infinitesimal level. That is to say, we shall specify the length of a tangent vector at each point. As usual, we let $\Omega$ denote a connected, open set, or a domain. Following tradition, we let $D(\Omega)$ denote the collection of holomorphic functions$^3$ from $\Omega$ to $D$. If $z \in \Omega$ then we further let $D^z(\Omega)$ denote the subcollection of elements $g$ of $D(\Omega)$ such that $g(z) = 0$.

So let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a domain. Fix a point $P \in \Omega$ and a vector $\xi$ which is thought of as being tangent to the plane at the point $P$. We define the infinitesimal Carathéodory length of $\xi$ at $P$ to be

$$F^\Omega_C(P, \xi) \equiv \sup_{\substack{f \in D^P(\Omega) \\ f(P) = 0}} |f'(P)\xi|.$$ 

**Remark:** Refer to the discussion in the Remark following the definition at the beginning of Section 3 of the Kobayashi metric. It is worth noting that we could as well prove the Riemann mapping theorem by considering maps of the domain $\Omega$ into the disc $D$ and maximizing the derivative at the point $P$. Now look at the definition of the Carathéodory metric. The metric at a point $P$ in the direction $\xi$ maximizes the expression $|f'(P)\xi|$ over mappings $f$ of $\Omega$ into the disc. This is the same as maximizing the quantity $|f'(P)|$. Thus we see the proof of the Riemann mapping theorem coming back to life in the definition of the Carathéodory metric.

It is worth noting that an extremal function for the Carathéodory metric always exists, as can be seen with a normal families argument. The extremal function is often termed the Ahlfors function. It is, in many respects, a generalization of the Riemann mapping function (which is what it is in case $\Omega$ is simply connected). See [FIS] or [KRA3] for a consideration of the Ahlfors function.

**Definition 3** Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be open and $\gamma : [0, 1] \to \Omega$ a piecewise $C^1$ curve. The **Carathéodory length** of $\gamma$ is defined to be

$$L^\Omega_C(\gamma) = L_C(\gamma) = \int_0^1 F^\Omega_C(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t))dt.$$ 

$^3$Of course it is possible that $D(\Omega)$ is trivial—for example when $\Omega$ is the entire plane.
We note that $F_C$ is integrable for reasons similar to the ones given for $F_K$ in Section 1.

Next we are going to define the integrated Carathéodory distance in $\Omega$. But now our approach will not parallel that for the Kobayashi metric. In fact we want the Carathéodory metric to have a certain "minimal property" among all metrics for which holomorphic functions are distance decreasing. This necessitates a new approach.

**Definition 4** Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be an open set and $z, w \in \Omega$. The *Carathéodory distance* between $z$ and $w$ is defined to be

$$C^\Omega(z, w) = \sup_{f \in D(\Omega)} d_P(f(z), f(w)),$$

where $d_P$ is the Poincaré distance on $D$.

**Remark:** Of course the Carathéodory distance can be trivial—for instance if $\Omega$ is the entire plane.

One of the most important, and most interesting, properties of the Carathéodory metric is that a holomorphic function is distance decreasing in the metric. We shall be able to make good use of it in the examples below.

**Proposition 6 (The Distance Decreasing Property of the Carathéodory Metric)**

If $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$ are domains in $\mathbb{C}$, $z, w \in \Omega_1, \xi \in \mathbb{C}$, and if $f : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$ is holomorphic, then

$$F_C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) \leq F_C^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) \quad \text{and} \quad C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) \leq C^{\Omega_1}(z, w).$$

**Remark:** Observe that the Chain Rule demands that we put a factor of $f'(z)$ in front of the tangent vector when we calculate $F_C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), \cdot)$.

**Proof of the Proposition:** We prove the first inequality and leave the second for the reader.

Let $\varphi : \Omega_2 \to D$ satisfy $\varphi(f(z)) = 0$. We call $\varphi$ a candidate mapping for the Carathéodory metric at the point $f(z)$ on the domain $\Omega_2$. Then $\varphi \circ f$ is a candidate mapping for the Carathéodory metric at the point $z$ on the domain $\Omega_1$. Thus

$$F_C^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) = \sup_{g \in D^*(\Omega_1)} |g'(z)\xi| \geq |(\varphi \circ f)'(z)\xi| = |\varphi'(0)| \cdot |f'(z)| \cdot |\xi|.$$
Now we take the supremum over all candidates $\varphi$ to obtain
\[
F_{\Omega}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) \geq F_{\Omega}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) .
\]

**Corollary 7** If $f : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$ is conformal then $f$ is an isometry in the Carathéodory metric. This means that $f$ preserves distances:
\[
F_{\Omega}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) = F_{\Omega}^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f'(z)\xi) \quad \text{and} \quad C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) = C^{\Omega_1}(z, w) .
\]

**Proof:** Let us prove the second assertion. We leave the first to the reader. Now the proposition certainly tells us that
\[
C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) \leq C^{\Omega_1}(z, w) . \quad (*)
\]
But we may also apply the proposition to $f^{-1} : \Omega_2 \to \Omega_1$. The result is
\[
C^{\Omega_1}(f^{-1}(a), f^{-1}(b)) \leq C^{\Omega_2}(a, b) .
\]
Now simply let $a = f(z)$ and $b = f(w)$ to obtain
\[
C^{\Omega_1}(z, w) \leq C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) . \quad (**) 
\]
Combining $(*)$ and $(**)$ yields
\[
C^{\Omega_1}(z, w) = C^{\Omega_2}(f(z), f(w)) .
\]

**Corollary 8** If $\Omega_1 \subseteq \Omega_2 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ then for any $z, w \in \Omega_1$, any $\xi \in \mathbb{C}$, we have
\[
F_{\Omega}^{\Omega_1}(z, \xi) \geq F_{\Omega}^{\Omega_2}(z, \xi) \quad \text{and} \quad C^{\Omega_1}(z, w) \geq C^{\Omega_2}(z, w) .
\]

**Proof:** Simply apply the proposition to the inclusion mapping $i : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$.

5 Comparison of the Kobayashi and Carathéodory Metrics

First, it is always the case that the Kobayashi metric majorizes the Carathéodory metric:
Proposition 9 Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a domain. Let $P \in \Omega$ and let $\xi$ be a vector. Then

$$F^\Omega_C(P, \xi) \leq F^\Omega_K(P, \xi).$$

Proof: Let $\varphi : D \to \Omega$ be a candidate mapping for the Kobayashi metric at $P \in \Omega$. Let $\psi : \Omega \to D$ be a candidate mapping for the Carathéodory metric at $P \in \Omega$. Then $h \equiv \psi \circ \varphi : D \to D$ and $h(0) = 0$. By Schwarz’s lemma, $|h'(0)| \leq 1$. But this just says that

$$|\psi'(P)| \leq \frac{1}{|\varphi'(0)|}.$$

Now first take the infimum on the right over all candidate functions $\varphi$ for the Kobayashi metric then take the supremum on the left over all candidate functions $\psi$ for the Carathéodory metric. The result is

$$F^\Omega_C(P, \xi) \leq F^\Omega_K(P, \xi).$$

We conclude the section with an interesting extremal property of $C^\Omega$.

Theorem 10 Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be an open set. Let $d$ be any metric on $\Omega$ that satisfies $d(z, w) \geq d_P(f(z), f(w))$ for all $f \in D(\Omega)$ and $z, w \in \Omega$. Then $d(z, w) \geq C^\Omega(z, w)$.

Proof: Exercise. Use the definition of $C^\Omega$.

It is worth noting that the Kobayashi metric satisfies an analogous extremal property:

Theorem 11 Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be an open set. Let $d$ be any metric on $\Omega$ that satisfies $d(z, w) \geq d_P(f(z), f(w))$ for all $f \in D(\Omega)$ and $z, w \in \Omega$. Then $d(z, w) \leq K^\Omega(z, w)$.

We leave the details of this last result for the interested reader, or consult [KRA2].

In the present paper the roles of the Carathéodory and Kobayashi metrics are virtually interchangeable. Any proof that uses the Carathéodory metric could just as well use the Kobayashi metric, and vice versa. But both metrics are interesting because they are defined in a dual manner, and because the one (the Kobayashi) always majorizes the other (the Carathéodory). As
we have already noted, the Kobayashi metric is the largest metric in which holomorphic mappings are distance decreasing and the Carathéodory metric is the smallest. It is an interesting, and more recent, result of K. T. Hahn (see [KRA2]) that the Berman metric always majorizes the Carathéodory metric. It is also known, thanks to an example of Diederich and Fornæss [DIF], that the Bergman metric cannot in general be compared with the Kobayashi metric.

6 Calculation of the Carathéodory and Kobayashi Metrics

Precious little is known about explicitly calculating the Kobayashi/Royden metric or the Carathéodory metric. For special domains such as the disc or the annulus, the automorphism group is a powerful tool for obtaining explicit formulas. In many circumstances one can instead estimate the metrics, and that is sufficient for applications (see, for example, [GEP]). Let us now, just for illustrative purposes, calculate the Kobayashi metric on the disc.

EXAMPLE 5 We let $\Omega = D$ be the unit disc. We begin by calculating the infinitesimal Kobayashi metric at the origin $0$. Let $\xi = 1 + i0$. We calculate $F^D_K(0, \xi)$. So let

$$f : D \to \Omega$$

be holomorphic and satisfy $f(0) = 0$. By Schwarz’s lemma, we know that $|f'(0)| \leq 1$. But in fact the function $f_0(\zeta) \equiv \zeta$ maps $D$ to $\Omega$ with $f(0) = 0$ and $f_0'(0) = 1$. We conclude that 1 is the extremal value and

$$F^D_K(0, \xi) = 1.$$

Now if $\xi$ is any vector of length 1 then $\xi = e^{i\theta}$ for some $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$. Then

$$F^D_K(0, \xi) = F^D_K(0, e^{i\theta} \cdot 1) = |e^{i\theta}|F^D_K(0, 1) = 1.$$

4Of course we could write down a formula for the Kobayashi or Carathéodory metric of the upper halfplane, for example. But that is only because the halfplane is—by way of the Cayley map—conformally equivalent to the unit disc. However there is an extensive literature on this subject. The paper [SIM] considers the Carathéodory metric on the annulus in some detail. Gehring and Palka [GEP] have developed a quasihyperbolic metric that can be used, with comparison arguments, to obtain estimates for the Kobayashi metric.
Next, if $\xi$ is any vector then write $\xi = re^{i\theta}$. Thus

$$F^D_K(0, \xi) = F^D_K(0, re^{i\theta}) = rF^D_K(0, e^{i\theta}) = r = |\xi|.$$  

[Again we remind the reader that $|\xi|$ denotes the Euclidean length of the vector $\xi$.]

Our next task is to derive a formula for $F^D_K$ at an arbitrary base point $P \in D$. Now notice that the Möbius transformation

$$\varphi(\zeta) = \frac{\zeta - P}{1 - \overline{P}\zeta}$$

maps $P$ to 0. Also

$$\varphi'(P) = \frac{(1 - \overline{P}\zeta) \cdot 1 - (\zeta - P) \cdot (-\overline{P})}{(1 - \overline{P}\zeta)^2} = \frac{1}{1 - |P|^2}.$$  

Therefore we may calculate, for any vector $\xi$, that

$$F^D_K(P, \xi) = F^D_K(\varphi(P), \varphi'(P)\xi) = F^D_K(0, \xi/(1 - |P|^2)) = \frac{1}{1 - |P|^2}F^D_K(0, \xi) = \frac{|\xi|}{1 - |P|^2}.$$  

Of course what we have just calculated is the infinitesimal form of the Kobayashi metric. It is certainly of interest to have a formula for the integrated form—as that will be a genuine metric in the classical sense. And it will be invariant under conformal mappings. We note already that the conclusion of Example 5 already shows that, on the disc, the Kobayashi metric coincides with the Poincaré metric. And in fact a calculation nearly identical to the one we just performed shows that the Carathéodory metric coincides with the Kobayashi and Poincaré metrics on the unit disc.

**Proposition 12** The length of the curve $\gamma(t) = \gamma_\epsilon(t) = t + i0$, $0 \leq t \leq 1 - \epsilon$ in the Kobayashi metric on the the disc $D$ is

$$L^D_K(\gamma_\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \log \left[ \frac{2 - \epsilon}{\epsilon} \right].$$

**Remark:** This proposition is particularly interesting, for it tells us that

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} L^D_K(\gamma_\epsilon) = +\infty.$$  

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In other words, the distance from the origin to the boundary of $D$—at least along a straight line segment—is $+\infty$. If we can show that the straight line segment is the shortest curve in the Kobayashi metric from 0 to $(1 - \epsilon) + i0$, then we will have proved that the distance of 0 to $\partial D$ is $+\infty$. [We shall establish this latter contention in a moment. First we prove the proposition.] This will, in turn, say that the unit disc $D$ is complete in the Kobayashi metric.

At first such a statement may seem bewildering. How can a bounded, open set be complete? It certainly does not appear to be closed in any sense; on the contrary, it is open! But think of the Euclidean plane in the ordinary Euclidean metric. It is certainly complete. And that is because the boundary is infinitely far away. That is exactly what is happening with the Kobayashi metric on the unit disc.

Proof of the Proposition:
Now

$$L^D_K(\gamma) = \int_0^{1-\epsilon} F^D_K(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)) \, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{1-\epsilon} \frac{|\gamma'(t)|}{1 - |\gamma(t)|^2} \, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{1-\epsilon} \frac{1}{1 - t^2} \, dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \log \left[\frac{2 - \epsilon}{\epsilon}\right].$$

Proposition 13 Among all continuously differentiable curves of the form

$$\mu(t) = t + iw(t), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1 - \epsilon,$$

that satisfy $\mu(0) = 0$ and $\mu(1 - \epsilon) = 1 - \epsilon + 0i$, the one of least length in the Kobayashi metric is $\gamma(t) = t$. Here $w(t)$ is any continuously differentiable, real-valued function.

Proof: In fact, for any such candidate $\mu$, we have

$$L^D_K(\mu) = \int_0^{1-\epsilon} F^D_K(\mu(t), \mu'(t)) \, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{1-\epsilon} \frac{1}{1 - |\mu(t)|^2} \cdot |\mu(t)| \, dt$$

$$= \int_0^{1-\epsilon} \frac{1}{1 - t^2 - [w(t)]^2} \cdot (1 + [w'(t)]^2)^{1/2} \, dt.$$
However
\[
\frac{1}{1 - t^2 - [w(t)]^2} \geq \frac{1}{1 - t^2} \quad \text{and} \quad (1 + [w'(t)]^2)^{1/2} \geq 1.
\]

We conclude that
\[
L_D^K(\mu) \geq \int_0^{1-\epsilon} \frac{1}{1 - t^2} dt = L_D^K(\gamma).
\]
This is the desired result.

Notice that, with only small modifications, this argument can also be applied to piecewise continuously differentiable curves \(t + iw(t)\).

In fact if a piecewise continuously differentiable curve connecting the point \(0 \in D\) to \((1 - \epsilon) + 0i \in D\) is not of the form
\[
\mu(t) = t + iw(t),
\]
then it may cross itself. Of course we can eliminate the loops and thereby create a shorter curve. If the resulting curve is still not the graph of a function, then elementary comparisons show that it will be longer than a curve of the form (\(\ast\)) (see Figure 2). We may conclude that the curve \(\gamma\) in the proposition is the shortest of all curves connecting 0 to \((1 - \epsilon) + 0i\).

Of course we can use the last result to give an explicit formula for the Kobayashi or Carathéodory metric on the disc. This we now do.

**Proposition 14** The integrated Kobayashi or Carathéodory distance of two points \(P\) and \(Q\) in \(D\) is given by

\[
d(P, Q) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{1 + \left| \frac{P - Q}{1 - P Q} \right|}{1 - \left| \frac{P - Q}{1 - P Q} \right|} \right).
\]

**Proof:** In case \(P = 0\) and \(Q = R + i0\), the result was already noted in Proposition 9. In the general case, note that we may define

\[
\varphi(z) = \frac{z - P}{1 - P z},
\]
a Möbius transformation of the disc. Then, by Corollaries 4 and 7 (letting \(d\) denote either the Kobayashi or the Carathéodory distance),

\[
d(P, Q) = d(\varphi(P), \varphi(Q)) = d(0, \varphi(Q)).
\]

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Next we have \( d(0, \varphi(Q)) = d(0, |\varphi(Q)|) \) \((\ast)\)
since there is a rotation of the disc taking \( \varphi(Q) \) to \( |\varphi(Q)| + i0 \). Finally,

\[
|\varphi(Q)| = \left| \frac{P - Q}{1 - \overline{P}Q} \right|
\]

so that \((\ast)\) together with the special case treated in the first sentence gives the result.

Notice the pseudohyperbolic metric appearing again in our calculations. It is a fundamental artifact of geometric function theory (see [GAR]).

The following is an interesting and nontrivial fact about the Carathéodory and Kobayashi metrics, one of the few that is valid for a large class of domains.

**Theorem 15** Let \( \Omega \) be any planar domain that is not simply connected. Then the Kobayashi metric and the Carathéodory metric are unequal on \( \Omega \).

**Remark:** We shall prove this result *not* by actually calculating the metrics, but rather by an indirect argument. It is a pleasing application of geometric analysis.
We shall first need a lemma.

**Lemma 16** Let $\Omega$ be as in the theorem and $D$ the unit disc as usual. Then there do not exist holomorphic functions $\varphi : D \to \Omega$ and $\psi : \Omega \to D$ such that $\psi \circ \varphi(z) \equiv z$.

**Proof:** We thank Paul Gauthier for this elegant proof.

Obviously the function $\varphi$ must be one-to-one, otherwise the composition could not be one-to-one. We claim that $\varphi$ is onto. If that is the case, then $\varphi$ is a conformal equivalence and hence, in particular, a homeomorphism. But the disc and $\Omega$ cannot be homeomorphic (their first homotopy groups are different, for example).

To prove the claim, suppose not. Then the image of $\varphi$ is a proper open subset of $\Omega$. Call the image $U = \varphi(D)$. Then $U$ has a boundary point $p \in \Omega$. See Figure 3, which illustrates the idea when $\Omega$ is an annulus. Since $\varphi$ is continuous, it takes compact sets to compact sets. It follows that $\varphi^{-1}$ has the property that if $U \ni z_j \to p$ then $w_j \equiv \varphi^{-1}(z_j)$ tends to some boundary point $b$ of $D$. But then $w_j = \psi \circ \varphi(w_j) = \psi(z_j)$ for each $j$. Letting $j \to \infty$, we see that

\[ b = \lim_{j \to \infty} w_j = \lim_{j \to \infty} \psi(z_j) = \psi(p) \equiv q \in D. \]

Thus we have the boundary point $b$ of $D$ equaling an interior point $q \in D$. This is impossible. \(\square\)

**Proof of the Theorem:** Fix a point $p \in \Omega$. We claim that there is a constant $0 < c < 1$ such that if $\varphi : D \to \Omega$ is holomorphic with $\varphi(0) = p$ and $\psi : \Omega \to D$ is holomorphic with $\psi(p) = 0$ then

\[ |(\psi \circ \varphi)'(0)| \leq c. \]  \(\star\)

Suppose not. Then, for each integer $j > 0$, there are holomorphic $\varphi_j : D \to \Omega$ and $\psi_j : \Omega \to D$, with $\varphi_j(0) = p$ and $\psi_j(p) = 0$, such that

\[ |(\psi_j \circ \varphi_j)'(0)| > 1 - \frac{1}{j}. \]

Applying Montel’s theorem, we may extract subsequences $\varphi_{j_k} \to \varphi_0$ (uniformly on compact sets) and $\psi_{j_k} \to \psi_0$ (uniformly on compact sets). Of
course it will be the case that \( \varphi_0 : D \to \Omega, \psi_0 : \Omega \to D, \varphi_0 \) and \( \psi_0 \) are holomorphic, and \( \varphi_0(0) = p, \psi_0(p) = 0 \). And, what is most important,

\[
| (\psi_0 \circ \varphi_0)'(0) | = 1.
\]

By Schwarz's lemma, we may conclude that \( \psi_0 \circ \varphi_0 \) is a rotation. Postcomposing \( \psi_0 \) with the inverse of that rotation, we end up with a map from the disc to \( \Omega \) and another map from \( \Omega \) to the disc so that their composition from the disc to the disc is the identity. The lemma tells us that this is impossible.

Now inequality (⋆) tells us that

\[
|\psi'(p)| \leq c \cdot \frac{1}{|\varphi'(0)|}.
\]

Taking the infimum of the righthand side over \( \varphi \) and the supremum of the lefthand side over \( \psi \) as usual yields that

\[
F^\Omega_K(p, 1) \leq c \cdot F^\Omega_C(p, 1).
\]

That is the desired result.

We conclude this section by recording an interesting fact about our two invariant metrics. This will prove useful in the applications presented in the next section. The result has been somewhat anticipated in our discussion of the boundary behavior of the Kobayashi metric on the unit disc.
Proposition 17 Let \( \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C} \) be a bounded domain with \( C^2 \) boundary (i.e., the boundary is locally the graph of a \( C^2 \) function). Then there are constants \( c, C > 0 \) such that, with \( \delta(z) \) denoting the Euclidean distance to the boundary of \( \Omega \),

\[
\frac{c|\xi|}{\delta(z)} \leq F^\Omega_K(z, \xi) \leq \frac{C|\xi|}{\delta(z)}.
\]

A similar set of estimates holds for the infinitesimal Carathéodory metric.

Remark: A glance at the proof of the proposition shows that the upper bound is true for any domain that is a proper subset of \( \mathbb{C} \). For the disc \( D(z, \delta(z)) \) certainly lies in \( \Omega \), and then elementary comparison (Corollary 5) gives the result.

In the language of Gehring and Palka [GEP], Proposition 17 shows that the Kobayashi (or Carathéodory) metric is comparable to the quasihyperbolic metric.

Proof of the Proposition: It follows from the idea of the osculating circle (see [BLK]) in multivariable calculus that there are numbers \( r, R > 0 \) such that each point \( p \in \partial \Omega \) has an interior osculating circle \( C(p', r) \) at \( p \) and an exterior osculating circle \( C(p'', R) \) at \( p \). See Figure 4.

Now if \( z \in \Omega \) and \( z \) is sufficiently near the boundary then, by the tubular neighborhood theorem (see [HIR]), there is a unique nearest point \( \pi(z) \in \partial \Omega \). Consider the osculating circle \( C(\pi(z)', r) \) at that point and its corresponding disc \( D(\pi(z)', r) \). Then, by Corollary 5,

\[
F^\Omega_K(z, \xi) \leq F^{D(\pi(z)', r)}_K(z, \xi) \approx \frac{c|\xi|}{\delta(z)}.
\]

That is one half of what we wish to prove. [Notice that we need only consider \( z \) near the boundary since the estimates are trivial in the interior.]

For the other half, we again consider \( z \in \Omega \), \( z \) near the boundary. Again let \( \pi(z) \) be the nearest point in the boundary. Let \( D(\pi(z)'', R) \) be the exterior osculating disc at \( \pi(z) \). Let \( D(\pi(z)'', \tilde{R}) \) be a large disc centered at \( \pi(z)'' \) that contains the domain \( \Omega \). Now consider the region \( U \equiv D(\pi(z)'', \tilde{R}) \setminus D(\pi(z)'', R) \). Then certainly \( U \supseteq \Omega \). Hence, by Corollary 5,

\[
F^\Omega_K(z, \xi) \geq F^\Omega_U(z, \xi).
\]
But we may use a simple “reflection” map $\zeta \mapsto R^2/(\zeta - \pi(z)''$) to compare the Kobayashi metric on $U$ with the Kobayashi metric on a disc and then see that

$$F^U_K(z, \xi) \approx \frac{c|\xi|}{\delta(z)}.$$ 

Putting together the last two displayed lines yields

$$F^D_K(z, \xi) \geq \frac{c|\xi|}{\delta(z)}.$$ 

It is an immediate corollary of Proposition 17 that the Euclidean diameter\(^5\) of a Carathéodory or Kobayashi metric ball $B(p,r)$ (for $r > 0$ fixed) tends to 0 as $p$ tends to the boundary of a $C^2$ bounded domain. We leave the details of this assertion for the interested reader.

Certainly one important upshot of Proposition 17 is that, on a domain with $C^2$ boundary, the Kobayashi metric is complete (a similar assertion holds for the Carathéodory metric). That is so because we know that the metric blows up like the reciprocal of the distance to the boundary. Thus we can see, with some tedious but straightforward calculations (just as we did

\(^5\)The Euclidean diameter of a set is the supremum of Euclidean distances of pairs of points in the set.
on the unit disc), that the length of any curve tending to the boundary is infinite.

7 Some Applications

We now show how metric geometry can in fact inform our study of function theory. The first result is due to Farkas and Ritt, but the proof is due to Earle and Hamilton [EAH]. It concerns fixed points for holomorphic functions. It is pleasing because it uses not only one of our invariant metrics, but it also uses a fixed point-theorem from functional analysis.

**Theorem 18 (Farkas, Ritt)** Let $f : D \to D$ be holomorphic and assume that the image $M = \{f(z) : z \in D\}$ of $f$ has compact closure in $D$. Then there is a unique point $P \in D$ such that $f(P) = P$. We call $P$ a fixed point for $f$.

**Remark:** This result is actually amenable to a number of different proofs. If we take the image of $f$ to lie in a disc $D(0, r)$ for some $0 < r < 1$ then we may think of $f$ as mapping $D(0, r)$ to $D(0, r)$ continuously. Thus the Brouwer fixed-point theorem applies and we find a fixed point (although this argument does not address the uniqueness question).

It is well known that any proof of a fixed point theorem will involve argument principle considerations (that is what homotopy does for us in Brouwer’s original proof; see also the proof in [GAG]). Thus it stands to reason that Rouché’s theorem can be used to give the present result. That approach also does not address the uniqueness question. Our purpose here is to illustrate the utility of metric geometry, and also to derive the stronger uniqueness result for the fixed point.

**Proof:** By hypothesis, there is an $\epsilon > 0$ such that if $m \in M$ and $|z| \geq 1$ then $|m - z| > 2\epsilon$. See Figure 5. Fix $z_0 \in D$ and define

$$g(z) = f(z) + \epsilon(f(z) - f(z_0)).$$

Then $g$ is holomorphic and $g$ still maps $D$ into $D$. Also

$$g'(z_0) = (1 + \epsilon)f'(z_0).$$

---

6As noted earlier, the roles of the Carathéodory and the Kobayashi metrics are essentially interchangeable in these examples.
Certainly \( g \) is distance-decreasing in the Kobayashi metric. Therefore

\[
F_K^D(g(z_0), g'(z_0) \cdot \tau) \leq F_K^D(z_0, \tau)
\]

for any tangent vector \( \tau \). Now if \( \gamma : [a, b] \to D \) is any continuously differentiable curve, and if we take \( t \in [a, b], z_0 = \gamma(t), \) and \( \tau = \gamma'(t) \), then we may conclude that

\[
F_K^D(g(\gamma(t)), g'(\gamma(t)) \cdot \gamma'(t)) \leq F_K^D(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)).
\]

Writing this out gives

\[
(1 + \epsilon)F_K^D(f(\gamma(t)), f'(\gamma(t)) \cdot \gamma'(t)) \leq F_K^D(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t)).
\]

Integrating both sides from \( a \) to \( b \), we conclude that

\[
L_K^D(f \circ \gamma) \leq (1 + \epsilon)^{-1}L_K^D(\gamma).
\]

If \( P \) and \( Q \) are elements of \( D \) then we see that

\[
K(f(P), f(Q)) \leq (1 + \epsilon)^{-1}K(P, Q).
\]

We conclude that \( f \) is a contraction in the Kobayashi metric. Recall that in Section 6 we proved that the disc \( D \) is a complete metric space when equipped with the Kobayashi metric. By the contraction mapping fixed-point theorem (see [LS]), \( f \) has a unique fixed point. \( \square \)
Now we shift gears and look at the boundary behavior of holomorphic functions. Complete background may be found in [KRA2, Ch. 8] or [KRA3]. We begin by reviewing some terminology. Let $f$ be a function (not necessarily holomorphic) on the unit disc $D$. Let $p = e^{i\theta}$ be a point in the boundary of the disc. We say that $f$ has radial boundary limit $\ell$ at $p$ if

$$\lim_{r \to 1^-} f(rp) = \ell.$$ 

As a counterpoint, let us now consider a broader notion of limit. For $p = e^{i\theta} \in \partial D$ and $\alpha > 1$, let us define

$$\Gamma_\alpha(p) = \{ z \in D : |z - p| < \alpha(1 - |z|) \}.$$ 

See Figure 6. In fact an analogous definition works just as well on any domain with $C^2$ boundary (with $(1 - |z|)$ replaced by $\delta(z)$, the distance of $z$ to the boundary).

We say that $f$ on $D$ has nontangential limit $\ell$ at $p$ if

$$\lim_{\Gamma_\alpha(p) \ni z \to p} f(z) = \ell$$

for each $\alpha > 1$. Our purpose now is to compare and relate radial convergence with nontangential convergence. We shall work on domains with $C^2$ boundary, which simply means that the boundary is locally the graph of a twice continuously differentiable function.

**Theorem 19** Let $\Omega_1, \Omega_2$ be bounded domains with $C^2$ boundary and let

$$f : \Omega_1 \to \Omega_2$$

Figure 6: Radial convergence and nontangential convergence.
be holomorphic. If $P \in \partial \Omega_1$, $Q \in \partial \Omega_2$, and $f$ has radial limit $Q$ at $P$ then $f$ has nontangential limit $Q$ at $P$.

**Remark:** This is a version of a classical result that is known as the Lindelöf principle. The usual proof of that result uses a normal families argument (see, for example, [KRA2] or [KRA3]). That argument is lurking in the background of the more geometric argument that we present here. □

**Proof:** If $z$ is an element of one of our domains $\Omega_j$ and if $s > 0$ then we let $B(z, s)$ denote the metric ball with center $z$ and radius $s$ in the Carathéodory metric for $\Omega_j$. For $P \in \partial \Omega_j$, we let $\nu_P$ denote the unit outward normal at $P$ to the boundary $\partial \Omega_1$. If $r_0 > 0$ and $\beta > 0$ are fixed, we define

$$M_{\beta}(P) = \bigcup_{0 < r < r_0} B_\Omega(P - r\nu_P, \beta).$$

Here $B$ denotes a metric ball. Observe that we use a subscript on $B$ to indicate in what domain the metric ball lives.

The estimate

$$F_{\Omega}^C(z, \xi) \approx \frac{C |\xi|}{\text{dist}(z, \partial U)}$$

from Proposition 17 makes it a tedious but not difficult exercise to calculate that the regions $M_{\beta}$ are comparable to the regions $\Gamma_{\alpha}$ (in this last formula, and in what follows, “dist” means Euclidean distance). In point of fact, suppose that $z$ lies in some $\Gamma_{\alpha}(p)$, some $p \in \partial \Omega_j$. Let us denote by $\tau_p$ the inward normal segment (not the vector!) emanating from that boundary point $p$. Using the estimate (*), one can then estimate that $\text{dist}_{\Omega}(z, \tau_p) \leq C \cdot \alpha$. For the converse estimate, assume that $z \notin \Gamma_{\alpha}(p)$ and the same estimate shows that $\text{dist}_{\Omega}(z, \tau_p) \geq C \cdot \alpha$.

Thus we see that

$$\lim_{\Gamma_{\alpha}(P) \ni z \in P} f(z) = \ell, \quad \forall \alpha > 1$$

iff

$$\lim_{M_{\beta}(P) \ni z \to P} f(z) = \ell, \quad \forall \beta > 0.$$ **(**

Thus it is enough to prove (**).

Since

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\[ M_\beta(P) = \bigcup_{0 < r < r_0} B_{\Omega_1}(P - r\nu_P, \beta), \]

the distance-decreasing property of \( f \) with respect to the Carathéodory metric implies that

\[ f(M_\beta(P)) \subseteq \bigcup_{0 < r < r_0} B_{\Omega_2}(f(P - r\nu_P), \beta). \]

Pick \( \epsilon > 0 \). By the radial limit hypothesis, there is a \( \delta > 0 \) such that if \( 0 < t < \delta \) then

\[ |f(P - t\nu_P) - Q| < \epsilon. \]

For such a \( t \), if \( z \in B(P - t\nu_P, \beta) \) then

\[ f(z) \in B_{\Omega_2}(f(P - t\nu_P), \beta). \]

But

\[ \text{dist}(f(P - t\nu_P), \partial\Omega_2) \leq \text{dist}(f(P - t\nu_P), Q) < \epsilon. \]

Therefore the estimate (*) implies that the metric ball \( B(f(P - t\nu_P), \beta) \) has Euclidean diameter not exceeding \( C \cdot \epsilon \). Here \( C \) depends on \( \beta \), but \( \beta \) has been fixed once and for all. Thus

\[ |f(z) - f(P - t\nu_P)| < C\epsilon, \quad \forall z \in B_{\Omega_1}(P - t\nu_P, \beta). \]

We conclude that

\[ |f(z) - Q| \leq |f(z) - f(P - t\nu_P)| + |f(P - t\nu_P) - Q| \leq C\epsilon + \epsilon = C'\epsilon. \]

This is the desired conclusion. \( \square \)

Our final application concerns automorphism groups. Some preliminary discussion is in order. If \( \Omega \) is a planar domain then we consider the collection of all conformal self-maps \( \varphi : \Omega \to \Omega \). To be explicit, we demand that \( \varphi \) be holomorphic, one-to-one, and onto, and have a holomorphic inverse. This collection is a group when equipped with the binary operation of composition of functions. We call this the automorphism group of \( \Omega \), and we denote it by \( \text{Aut}(\Omega) \).
We endow the automorphism group with the topology of uniform convergence on compact sets. This is equivalent with the compact-open topology. It is a fact that, with this topology, the automorphism group of a bounded domain is a real Lie group (see [KOB2]). We shall not need that information here.

One of the ways that we can understand a domain is by understanding its automorphism group. This may entail studying the group’s algebraic properties, or studying its topological properties, or perhaps by considering some combination of the two. The next result illustrates this symbiosis.

**Theorem 20** Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a bounded domain with $C^2$ boundary. If $\text{Aut}(\Omega)$ is noncompact then $\Omega$ is conformally equivalent to the unit disc.

**Remark:** It is certainly known (see [MUR]) that a finitely connected domain with connectivity at least 3 (i.e., at least two holes) has only finitely many conformal self-maps. This is a nontrivial result. Our approach gives another way to think about that classical result (which was originally proved by Maurice Heins in the 1940s—see [HEI1], [HEI2]).

We prove this theorem with a sequence of lemmas, each of which has intrinsic interest.

**Lemma 21** Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be bounded. The group $\text{Aut}(\Omega)$ is compact if and only if, for each $P \in \Omega$, there is a compact $K^P \subseteq \Omega$ such that $\varphi(P) \in K^P$ for all $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(\Omega)$.

**Proof:** Assume that $\text{Aut}(\Omega)$ is compact. Fix $P \in \Omega$. If there is no set $K^P$ as claimed then there exist $\varphi_j \in \text{Aut}(\Omega)$ such that $\varphi_j(P) \to w \in \partial \Omega$, some $w$. But $\Omega$ is bounded so that $\{\varphi_j\}$ is a normal family; thus there is a subsequence $\varphi_{j_k}$ and a holomorphic limit function $\varphi_0$ such that

$$\varphi_{j_k} \longrightarrow \varphi_0$$

normally.

Notice that the image of each $\varphi_j$ lies in $\Omega$ hence the image of $\varphi_0$ lies in the closure $\overline{\Omega}$ of $\Omega$. If $\varphi_0$ is nonconstant then it satisfies the open mapping principle. But

$$\varphi_0(P) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \varphi_{j_k}(P) = w,$$

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hence the image of \( \varphi_0 \) contains the accumulation point \( w \in \partial \Omega \), so it contains a neighborhood of \( w \). This is impossible because \( w \) is in the boundary of the image of \( \varphi_0 \). Therefore \( \varphi_0 \) must be constantly equal to \( w \); thus \( \varphi_0 \notin \text{Aut}(\Omega) \). The sequence \( \varphi_{jk} \) therefore violates the compactness of \( \text{Aut}(\Omega) \). We conclude that \( K^P \) must exist.

For the converse, fix \( P \in \Omega \) and let \( K^P \) be the corresponding compact set in \( \Omega \) whose existence we assume. Let \( \{ \varphi_j \} \subseteq \text{Aut}(\Omega) \) be any sequence. Since \( \Omega \) is bounded, there is a normally converging subsequence \( \varphi_{jk} \) with holomorphic limit function \( \varphi_0 \). As in the first half of the proof, if the image of \( \varphi_0 \) contains any boundary point \( w \) then \( \varphi_0 \) must be constantly equal to \( w \). But the image of \( P \) under \( \varphi_0 \) must lie in \( K^P \), so this possibility is ruled out. We conclude that the image of \( \varphi_0 \) lies in \( \Omega \).

Next notice that each \( \varphi_{jk} \) has an inverse \( \psi_{jk} \). Passing to another subsequence, we may suppose that the \( \psi_{jk} \) converge to a limit function \( \psi_0 \). For convenience, we denote this final subsequence by \( \psi_m \), corresponding to the automorphisms \( \varphi_m \). Just as for \( \varphi_0 \), we can be sure that the image of \( \psi_0 \) lies in \( \Omega \). By Hurwitz's theorem, \( \psi_0 \) is non-constant.

Now we have

\[
\lim_{m \to \infty} \varphi_m \circ \psi_m(z) = \varphi_0 \circ \psi_0(z).
\]

Since \( i(z) \equiv z \) is onto, so is \( \varphi_0 \). Also, by the argument principle, the image of \( \psi_0 \) is open, closed, and nonempty. Therefore \( \psi_0 \) is surjective. Since \( i(z) \) is injective, it now follows that \( \psi_0 \) is injective. Therefore \( \psi_0 \in \text{Aut}(\Omega) \) and it follows that \( \phi_0 \in \text{Aut}(\Omega) \). We conclude that

\[
\text{Aut}(\Omega) \ni \varphi_m \longrightarrow \varphi_0 \in \text{Aut}(\Omega),
\]

and \( \text{Aut}(\Omega) \) is compact.

**Remark:** It may be noted that, in the proof of the converse direction of Lemma 21, only one compact set \( K^P \) was needed.

**Lemma 22** Let \( \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{C} \) be a bounded domain with \( C^2 \) boundary. Suppose that \( P \in \Omega \), \( \{ \varphi_j \} \) are holomorphic maps from \( \Omega \) to \( \Omega \), and

\[
\varphi_j(P) \longrightarrow w \in \partial \Omega.
\]
If $K$ is compact in $\Omega$ and $V$ is a neighborhood of $w$ then there exists a positive number $J$ such that if $j \geq J$ then

$$\varphi_j(K) \subseteq V.$$  

See Figure 7.

**Proof:** Since $\Omega$, when equipped with the Carathéodory metric, is a metric space and since $K$ is compact, there is a positive number $R$ such that the metric ball $B(P, R)$ contains $K$. Let $Q_j = \varphi_j(P)$. Since each $\varphi_j$ is distance-decreasing in the Carathéodory metric, it follows that $\varphi_j(B(P, R)) \subseteq B(Q_j, R)$. We claim that there is a positive $J$ such that whenever $j \geq J$ then $B(Q_j, R) \subseteq V$. Assuming the claim, we would then have

$$\varphi_j(K) \subseteq \varphi_j(B(P, R)) \subseteq B(Q_j, R) \subseteq V,$$

as required.

To prove the claim, recall (because the Carathéodory metric on $\Omega$ is complete) that the Euclidean radii of the metric balls $B(Q_j, R)$ must tend to 0. Choose $\epsilon > 0$ such that the Euclidean disc of center $w$ and radius $2\epsilon$ lies in $V$. We select $J$ so large that when $j > J$ then both the Euclidean distance of $Q_j$ to $w$ is less than $\epsilon$ and the Euclidean radius of $B(Q_j, R)$ is less than $\epsilon$. The claim now follows from the triangle inequality.

\[ \square \]
Proof of Theorem 20: If Aut(Ω) is not compact then, by Lemma 21, there is a sequence $\varphi_j \in \text{Aut}(\Omega)$ and a $P \in \Omega$ such that

$$\varphi_j(P) \rightarrow w \in \partial \Omega,$$

for some $w \in \partial \Omega$.

Let

$$\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega$$

be any continuous closed curve in $\Omega$. Since $\partial \Omega$ is $C^2$ there is a neighborhood $V$ of $w$ such that $\Omega \cap V$ is simply connected (see Figure 8—the existence of the interior osculating circle, or the tubular neighborhood, provided by the proof of Proposition 13 makes this assertion clear).

Let

$$K = \{\gamma(t) : 0 \leq t \leq 1\}.$$  

Then $K$ is compact. By Lemma 22, there is a $J \geq 0$ such that $j \geq J$ implies $\varphi_j(K) \subseteq \Omega \cap V$. Thus $\varphi_j \circ \gamma$ is a continuous, closed curve in $\Omega \cap V$. The simple connectivity of $\Omega \cap V$ implies that $\varphi_j \circ \gamma$ may be continuously deformed to the point $\varphi_j \circ \gamma(0)$; that is, there is a homotopy

$$\Psi : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega \cap V$$
such that
\[ \Psi(0, t) = \varphi_j \circ \gamma(t), \quad \forall t \in [0, 1] \]
and
\[ \Psi(1, t) = \varphi_j \circ \gamma(0), \quad \forall t \in [0, 1]. \]

But then
\[ (\varphi_j)^{-1} \circ \Psi \]
is a homotopy of the curve \( \gamma \) to the point \( \gamma(0) \). It follows that \( \Omega \) is simply connected. By the Riemann mapping theorem, \( \Omega \) is conformally equivalent to the disc. \( \square \)

8 Concluding Remarks

Certainly the interaction of metric geometry with function theory has been one of the seminal developments of twentieth century complex analysis. There have many vectors in this activity: (i) Poincaré, Bergman, Carathéodory, and Kobayashi (among several others) have provided us with a family of extremely useful conformally invariant metrics, (ii) Lars Ahlfors has shown that the Schwarz lemma may be understood in terms of curvature of a suitable conformal metric (see [KRA1]), and (iii) many of the phenomena of function theory have been given very natural interpretations in terms of the geometry of Kähler manifolds. Surely other authors would emend or modify this list.

The result of all these new ideas has been a subject enriched with new results, and with new interpretations of old results. Even the deep Picard theorems may be given rather direct and quick proofs using metric geometry (see [KRA1] for the details). Each of the applications presented in the present paper can actually be proved with classical techniques. But the metric geometry proofs are natural, enlightening, and fun.

We hope that this excursion into the world of complex analysis and geometry has provided the reader with adequate motivation to explore further. The result will be both edifying and rewarding.

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