# ON POINCARE SERIES WITH APPLICATION TO $H^{p}$ SPACES ON BORDERED RIEMANN SURFACES ${ }^{1}$ 

BY<br>C. J. Earle and A. Marden<br>Introduction

In this paper, as in [5], we use Poincaré $\Theta$-series to study the Hardy spaces of a compact bordered Riemann surface. Our fundamental tool for projecting theorems from the disk $D$ to the surface $R$ is the conditional expectation operator $E$ of Forelli [6], which we define in $\S 2$ by means of $\Theta$-series. Our definition allows us in $\S 3$ to interpret $E$ as a map from $C(\partial D)$, the space of continuous functions on $\partial D$, to $C(\partial R)$. The adjoint map $E^{*}$ enables us to lift measures from $\partial R$ to $\partial D$. Using $E$ and $E^{*}$, we give easy proofs of the Cauchy-Read theorem and the decomposition of $L^{p}(\partial R)$ in §2, and of the F. and M. Riesz theorem for $R$ in §3. In addition, we obtain a pair of theorems about $\Theta$-series. The more surprising one, Theorem 4 , states that every differential which is analytic in $R$ and continuous in $\bar{R}$ is the $\Theta$-series of a function analytic in $D$ and continuous in $\bar{D}$.

If $R \neq D$, the real parts of functions continuous in $\bar{R}$ and analytic in $R$ do not generate $C(\partial R)$. There is a complementary subspace of finite but positive dimension (see [1], [3], [6], [7]). Forelli [6] described such a subspace $N$, the image under $E$ of a certain subspace of $H^{\infty}(D)$. Our definition of $E$ shows that $N$ coincides with the complementary subspace obtained by Heins [7] (see §2.3).

Interference from $N$ makes it hard to obtain satisfactory forms of the invariant subspace theorem or Szegö's theorem on $R$. We illustrate the difficulties in $\S 3.6$ by giving a form of Szegö's theorem. One way around them may be found in [1].

In the final $\S 4$ we examine some of our formulas more deeply to find their relation to two classical reproducing formulas on $R$ : the Poisson and Cauchy formulas. Indeed we give explicit representations of the Poisson and Cauchy kernels in terms of $\Theta$-series.

Except in $\S 4.2$, all our $\Theta$-series have dimension -2 . Since series of that dimension are a bit unfamiliar, we devote $\S 1$ to an exposition, based on Tsuji's book [12], of their elementary properties.

## 1. Poincare series

1.1. We shall consider a compact bordered Riemann surface $\bar{R}=R$ u $\partial R$ whose boundary $\partial R$ consists of $n \geqq 1$ analytic curves. The universal covering surface of $R$ can be identified with the unit disk $D=\{z \in \mathbf{C}:|z|<1\}$. Then

Received July 13, 1967.
${ }^{1}$ This research was supported by the National Science Foundation.
the group $G$ of cover transformations is a free group of Möbius transformations, and $R$ can be identified with the orbit space $D / G$ so that the natural $\operatorname{map} \pi: D \rightarrow D / G$ is holomorphic. $G$ acts in the extended plane; the set of limit points $L(G)$ is a closed subset of $\partial D$. If we set $\hat{D}=\mathbf{C u}\{\infty\}-L(G)$, $\hat{D} / G$ can be identified with the double $\hat{R}$ of $R$, and the extended map $\pi$ : $\hat{D} \rightarrow \hat{D} / G=\hat{R}$ is holomorphic. Note that $\pi^{-1}(\partial R)=\partial D-L(G)$. We can choose (in many ways) a relatively compact set $g$ in $\partial D-L(G)$, consisting of $n$ half-open intervals, so that $\pi$ maps each interval 1-1 onto a component of $\partial R$, different intervals corresponding to different components. Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
A(\mathfrak{g}) \cap B(\mathfrak{g})=\emptyset, \quad \text { if } \quad A \neq B, A, B \in G  \tag{1.1}\\
G(\mathfrak{g})=\partial D-L(G) \tag{1.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

Using $\pi$, we will identify functions $f$ and differentials of the form $g(z) d z$ on $R$ or $\hat{R}$ with functions in $D$ or $\hat{D}$ which satisfy, respectively,

$$
\begin{gather*}
f(A z)=f(z) \text { for all } A \epsilon G  \tag{1.3}\\
g(A z) A^{\prime}(z)=g(z) \text { for all } A \epsilon G \tag{1.4}
\end{gather*}
$$

A function satisfying (1.3) is said to be automorphic.
1.2. We will call $g(z) d z$ a meromorphic differential on $R$ or $\hat{R}$ if $g(z)$ is a meromorphic function in $D$ or $\hat{D}$ satisfying (1.4). If $g(z)$ has no poles and has at least a double zero at $\infty$, we call $g(z) d z$ an analytic differential. The condition at $\infty$ expresses the regularity of $g(z) d z$ in terms of the local parameter $\zeta=1 / z$. It is fulfilled automatically if $g(z)$ satisfies (1.4) and is regular at $A(\infty)$ for some $A \in G$.

The anti-conformal involution $j(z)=1 / \bar{z}$ induces an involution of $\hat{R}$ and an involution $f \rightarrow \bar{f} \circ j$ of meromorphic functions on $\hat{R}$. A meromorphic function $f(z)$ on $\hat{R}$ is symmetric if $f(z)=\bar{f}(1 / \bar{z})$ for all $z \epsilon \hat{D}$, or equivalently, if $f(z)$ is real on $\mathfrak{g}$. $j$ also induces an involution $j^{*}$ of meromorphic differentials $\beta=g(z) d z$ on $\hat{R}$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
j^{*}(g(z) d z)=-z^{-2} \bar{g}(1 / \bar{z}) d z=\bar{g}(j z) d(1 / z) \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\beta$ is symmetric if $j^{*}(\beta)=\beta$. If $g_{1}(z)=i z g(z)$, that is described by the condition $g_{1}(z)=\bar{g}_{1}(1 / \bar{z})$ for all $z \epsilon \hat{D}$; equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(z) d z=i z g(z)|d z|, z \in \mathscr{I}, \quad \text { is real. } \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Every differential $\beta$ can be written in the form $\beta=\beta_{1}+i \beta_{2}$, where $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$ are symmetric. Simply put

$$
\beta_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\beta+j^{*}(\beta)\right), \quad \beta_{2}=(1 / 2 i)\left(\beta-j^{*}(\beta)\right)
$$

1.3. Let $m$ be the linear measure on $\partial D: m(S)=\int_{s}|d z|, S \subset \partial D$ a Baire set.

$$
\begin{equation*}
m(L(G))=0 \tag{1.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, let $\varphi(z)$ be the characteristic function of $L(G)$. The Poisson integral of $\varphi$ is a harmonic function $u(z)$ on $D$ which vanishes on $\partial D-L(G)$. Since $L(G)$ is a $G$-invariant set, $\varphi(z)$ and hence $u(z)$ satisfy (1.3). In other words $u(z)$ is a harmonic function on $R$ which vanishes on $\partial R$. By the maximum principle $u \equiv 0$ and hence $\varphi=0$ a.e., proving (1.7).

If $f(z)$ is integrable on $\partial D$ we obtain from (1.1), (1.2) and (1.7) that

$$
\begin{align*}
\int_{\partial D} f(z)|d z| & =\sum_{A \in G} \int_{A(g)} f(z)|d z|  \tag{1.8}\\
& =\int_{J}\left(\sum_{A \in G} f(A \zeta)\left|A^{\prime}(\zeta)\right|\right)|d \zeta|
\end{align*}
$$

If in addition $f$ satisfies (1.3) on $\partial D$, so that $f$ is a function on $\partial R,(1.8)$ simplifies to

$$
\int_{\partial D} f(z)|d z|=\int_{\mathscr{J}} f(z)\left(\sum_{A \in G}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|\right)|d z|
$$

We introduce the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(z)=\sum_{A \in G}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| \tag{1.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that our formula becomes
Proposition 1. For every integrable function $f(z)$ on $\partial R$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\partial D} f(z)|d z|=\int_{\mathcal{O}} f(z) \rho(z)|d z| \tag{1.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

1.4. Applying (1.10) with $f(z)=1$ we obtain

$$
\int_{\mathscr{J}} \rho(z)|d z|=2 \pi
$$

from which we conclude $\rho(z)<\infty$ a.e. in $\mathscr{G}$. Much more is true:
Proposition 2. The series (1.9) converges uniformly on every compact subset of $\hat{D}$ which does not intersect $G(\infty)=\{A(\infty): A \in G\}$.

Proof. Let $\left\{A_{n}\right\}$ be an enumeration of $G$ with $A_{1}=I$. Each $A_{n}$ is of the form

$$
A_{n}(z)=\left(a_{n} z+b_{n}\right) /\left(\bar{b}_{n} z+\bar{a}_{n}\right), \quad\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}-\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}=1
$$

Since no element of $G$ has a fixed point in $\hat{D}, b_{n} \neq 0$ for $n \neq 1$. For $z \in \mathscr{G}$,

$$
\left|A_{n}^{\prime}(z)\right|=\left|\bar{b}_{n} z+\bar{a}_{n}\right|^{-2} \geqq\left(\left|b_{n}\right|+\left|a_{n}\right|\right)^{-2} \geqq\left(2\left|a_{n}\right|\right)^{-2} .
$$

Since $\rho(z)$ is finite for some $z \in \mathfrak{G}$, we have

$$
\sum\left|a_{n}\right|^{-2}<\infty
$$

and since $\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}-\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}=1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{2}^{\infty}\left|b_{n}\right|^{-2}<\infty \tag{1.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $K$ be a compact set in $\hat{D}$ disjoint from $G(\infty)$, and let $\delta>0$ be the distance of the closure $G(\infty) \cup L(G)$ of $G(\infty)$ from $K$. For $z \epsilon K$ and $n>1$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|A_{n}^{\prime}(z)\right| & =\left|b_{n}\right|^{-2}\left|z+\bar{a}_{n} \bar{b}_{n}^{-1}\right|^{-2} \\
& =\left|b_{n}\right|^{-2}\left|z-A_{n}^{-1}(\infty)\right|^{-2} \leqq \delta^{-2}\left|b_{n}\right|^{-2} \tag{1.12}
\end{align*}
$$

and Proposition 2 immediately follows. Note that each point of $G(\infty)$ interferes with only one term of (1.9).

Corollary. $\rho(z)$ is a bounded continuous function on $\mathscr{g}$.
1.5. One way to obtain a meromorphic differential on $R$ or $\hat{R}$ is to start with an arbitrary meromorphic function $F(z)$ in $D$ or $\hat{D}$ and form the Poincare series

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\Theta F)(z)=\sum_{A \in G} F(A z) A^{\prime}(z) \tag{1.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the series (1.13) converges uniformly on compact subsets of $D$ or $\hat{D},(\Theta F)(z) d z$ will be a meromorphic differential on $R$ or $\hat{R}$. Proposition 2 implies the convergence of (1.13) for many functions $F(z)$. For instance

Proposition 3. Let $r(z)$ be a rational function with no poles in $L(G)$. Then $(\Theta r)(z) d z$ is a meromorphic differential on $\hat{R}$.

Proof. If $K$ is a relatively compact subregion of $\hat{D}$ then $A(K) \cap K \neq \emptyset$ for only a finite number of $A \epsilon G$. Hence if $K$ contains the poles of $r(z)$ and $M=\sup _{z \epsilon K}|r(z)|$, then $|r(A z)| \leqq M$ for all $A \epsilon G$, with a finite number of exceptions.
1.6. As an example consider our basic meromorphic differential

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\Theta(1 / z) d z=\sum_{A \in G}\left(A^{\prime}(z) / A(z)\right) d z, \quad z \in \hat{D} \tag{1.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\alpha$ is analytic in $\hat{R}$ except for simple poles at $\pi(0), \pi(\infty)$ (of residue $+1,-1$ respectively). Hence by the Riemann-Roch theorem, $\alpha$ has $2 \hat{g}$ zeros in $\hat{R}$, where $\hat{g}$ is the genus of $\hat{R}$.

The formula $\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|=z A^{\prime}(z) / A(z)$ for $z \epsilon \partial D$ and $A \epsilon G$, with (1.9) and (1.14), yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha=z^{-1} \rho(z) d z=i \rho(z)|d z|, \quad z \in \mathfrak{g} \tag{1.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comparing (1.15) with (1.6), we find that $i \alpha$ is symmetric on $\hat{R}$ and, by (1.5), has symmetric zeros. Since $\rho(z) \geqq 1$ for all $z$, no zero appears on $\partial R$. Thus, $\alpha$ has exactly $g$ zeros in $R$.

It will turn out ( $\S \S 2,3$ ) that $\alpha$ has fundamental importance on $R$. But this is hardly surprising, because $\alpha$ is closely related to Green's function $g(z)$ on $R$ with pole at $\pi(0)$. Indeed, since

$$
g(z)=\sum_{A \in G} \log |A(z)|, \quad \alpha=d g+i * d g
$$

Because $d g=0$ along $\partial R$, (1.15) gives

$$
i \rho(z)|d z|=\alpha=i(\partial g / \partial n)|d z| \quad \text { on } \partial R,
$$

so that we can write (1.10) in the form

$$
\int_{\partial D} f(z)|d z|=\int_{g} f(z) \frac{\partial g}{\partial n}|d z|
$$

## 2. The conditional expectation

2.1. For $f(z)$ defined in $D, \hat{D}$, or $\partial D$, set

$$
\begin{align*}
(E f)(z) & =\sum_{A \in G} \frac{f(A z) A^{\prime}(z)}{A(z)} / \sum_{A \in G} \frac{A^{\prime}(z)}{A(z)}  \tag{2.1}\\
& =\Theta(f / z) / \Theta(1 / z)
\end{align*}
$$

Obviously, $E f$ is an automorphic function whenever it exists. Its existence for suitable functions $f$ is guaranteed by Propositions 2 and 3. For example, $E f$ is a meromorphic function on $\hat{R}$ whenever $f$ is rational with no poles in $L(G)$. If $f$ is a bounded analytic function in $D$, then $E f$ is meromorphic in $R$ with poles only at the zeros of the differential $\alpha$ defined in §1.6. If $f$ itself is automorphic, then $E f=f$.
2.2. $G$ is a free group of rank $\hat{g}$, where $\hat{g}$ is the genus of $\hat{R}$. Choose a set of generaters $\left\{A_{j}\right\}, 1 \leqq j \leqq g$, and define

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{j}(z)=z \bar{\zeta}_{j} /\left(1-\bar{\zeta}_{j} z\right), \quad \zeta_{j}=A_{j}(0), \quad 1 \leqq j \leqq g \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 1. $\left(E h_{j}\right) \alpha$ is an analytic differential on $\hat{R}$.
Proof. From the definitions we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(E h_{j}\right) \alpha=\Theta\left(\frac{\bar{\zeta}_{j}}{1-\bar{\zeta}_{j} z}\right) d z \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $\left(E h_{j}\right) \alpha$ is a meromorphic differential on $\hat{R}$. Since $A_{j}(\infty)=1 / \xi_{j}$, $\left(E h_{j}\right) \alpha$ can have a pole only at $\pi(\infty)\left(=\pi\left(1 / \xi_{j}\right)\right)$. But

$$
\Theta\left(\frac{\bar{\zeta}_{j}}{1-\bar{\zeta}_{j} z}\right)=\bar{\zeta}_{j}\left\{\frac{1}{1-\bar{\zeta}_{j} z}+\frac{\left(A_{j}^{-1}\right)^{\prime}(z)}{1-\bar{\zeta}_{j}\left(A_{j}^{-1}\right)(z)}\right\}+f(z)
$$

where $f(z)$ is analytic in a neighborhood of $1 / \xi_{j}$. Elementary calculation shows that the bracketed expression is regular at $1 / \xi_{j}$. That proves the lemma.
2.3. Let $\mathbb{Q}(R)$ be the (complex) vector space of analytic differentials on $R$ which are continuous in $\bar{R}$. The Dirichlet integral [2] defines an inner product

$$
\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}\right)=\iint_{R} \beta_{1} \wedge \overline{* \beta_{2}}=i \iint_{R} \beta_{1} \wedge \bar{\beta}_{2}
$$

on $\mathbb{Q}(R)$. Let $\Gamma_{j}$ be the closed curve in $R$ covered by the line segment in $D$ joining 0 to $\zeta_{j}=A_{j}(0)$. It is well known [2] that there is an analytic differential $\psi\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)$ on $R$ such that

$$
2 \pi \int_{\Gamma_{j}} \beta=\left(\beta, \psi\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)\right) \quad \text { for all } \beta \in \mathbb{Q}(R)
$$

Lemma 2. $\psi\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=\left(E h_{j}\right) \alpha$.
Proof. Set $\beta=f(z) d z$. Then $f$ is integrable in $D$, for if $\Omega$ is a fundamental polygon for $G$ in $D$ we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
\iint_{D}|f(\zeta)| d \xi d \eta & =\sum_{A \in G} \iint_{A(\mathcal{R})}|f(\zeta)| d \xi d \eta \\
& =\sum_{A \in G} \iint_{\mathbb{R}}|f(A z)|\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|^{2} d x d y \\
& =\iint_{\mathbb{R}}|f(z)| \rho(z) d x d y
\end{aligned}
$$

where of course $\rho(z)$ is defined by (1.9). But $\rho(z)|f(z)|$ is continuous, hence bounded, in the closure of $R$.

Since $f$ is integrable in $D$, it satisfies

$$
\pi f(z)=\iint_{D} f(\zeta)(1-\bar{\zeta} z)^{-2} d \xi d \eta, \quad z \in D
$$

Integrating from 0 to $\zeta_{j}$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi \int_{0}^{\zeta_{j}} f(z) d z & =\iint_{D} f(\zeta) \zeta_{j}\left(1-\bar{\zeta} \zeta_{j}\right)^{-1} d \xi d \eta \\
& =\sum_{A \in G} \iint_{A(\Omega)} f(\zeta) \zeta_{j}\left(1-\bar{\zeta}_{j}\right)^{-1} d \xi d \eta \\
& =\sum_{A \in G} \iint_{\Omega} f(A z) \zeta_{j}\left(1-\zeta_{j} \overline{A(z)}\right)^{-1} A^{\prime}(z) \overline{A^{\prime}(z)} d x d y \\
& =\iint_{\Omega} f(z) \Theta\left(\bar{\zeta}_{j}\left(1-\bar{\zeta}_{j} z\right)^{-1}\right)(z) d x d y
\end{aligned}
$$

In view of (2.3), that proves Lemma 2.
Definition. $N$ is the vector space spanned by the functions $\left\{E h_{j}\right\}$, $1 \leqq j \leqq g$.

Corollary 1. (i) $N$ has dimension $g$.
(ii) $N$ consists of the meromorphic functions $f(z)$ on $\hat{R}$ such that $f_{\alpha}$ is an analytic differential on $\hat{R}$.
(iii) $N$ has a basis consisting of functions real on $\partial R$.

Proof. (i) The vector space of analytic differentials on $\hat{R}$ has dimension $\hat{g}$. If the differentials $\psi\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)=\left(E h_{j}\right) \alpha$ were not independent, there would be a non-zero analytic differential on $\hat{R}$ which was exact in $R$. That is impossible [2, p. 296].
(ii) Lemma 1 asserts that $N$ is a linear subspace of the vector space $M(-(\alpha))$ of functions $f$ such that $f \alpha$ is analytic in $\hat{R}$. But $M(-(\alpha))$ has dimension $g$, for every analytic differential $\beta$ on $\hat{R}$ can be written $\beta=(\beta / \alpha) \alpha$, and $\beta / \alpha \in M(-(\alpha))$. By (i), $N=M(-(\alpha))$.
(iii) Choose a basis $\left\{\beta_{j}\right\}, 1 \leqq j \leqq \hat{g}$, for the analytic differentials on $\hat{R}$ such that each $\beta_{j}$ is symmetric (see §1.2). Since $i \alpha$ is a symmetric differential, the functions $i \beta_{j} / \alpha$ form a symmetric basis for $N$. In particular, they are real on $\partial R$. (A closer examination of the differentials $\psi\left(\Gamma_{j}\right)$ would reveal them to be symmetric.)

Corollary 2. (Heins [7]). If $f \in N$ and is analytic in $R$, then $f \equiv 0$.
Proof. Let $f=\sum C_{j}\left(E h_{j}\right)$. If $f$ is analytic in $R$, then $d f \in \mathbb{Q}(R)$, and Lemma 2 gives

$$
0=2 \pi \sum \bar{C}_{j} \int_{\Gamma_{j}} d f=(d f, f \alpha)=i \iint_{R} d f \wedge \overline{f \alpha}=i \int_{\partial R}|f|^{2} \bar{\alpha}
$$

where the last equality is Stokes' theorem. Equation (1.15) shows that the differential $i \bar{\alpha}$ is positive along $\partial R$. Therefore $f$ vanishes on $\partial R$, hence everywhere.

Theorem 1. If $f$ is meromorphic in $R$ and $f \alpha$ is regular in $R$, there is a unique $h \epsilon N$ such that $f-h$ is analytic in $R$.

Proof. The space $P$ of principal parts of such functions $f$ is a vector space of dimension $\hat{g}$, for $\alpha$ has $\hat{g}$ zeros in $R$. Corollaries 1 and 2 imply that the map from $N$ to $P$ which sends each function to its principal parts is a vector space isomorphism.
2.4. Since $\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|=z A^{\prime}(z) / A(z)$ for $z \epsilon \partial D$, we can write (2.1) in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
(E f)(z)=\sum_{A \in G} f(A z)\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| / \rho(z), \quad z \in \partial D \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\rho(z)$ is given by (1.9). Set $L^{p}=L^{p}(d m), 1 \leqq p \leqq \infty$, where $m$ is the linear measure on $\partial D$, and let $L^{p} \mid G$ be the subspace of automorphic functions. We claim that $E: L^{p} \rightarrow L^{p} \mid G$ is a projection of norm one; in other words

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|E f\|_{p} \leqq\|f\|_{p}, \quad 1 \leqq p \leqq \infty \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

That is clear if $p=\infty$ because the series (1.9) converges almost everywhere on $\partial D$. For $p<\infty$ Hölder's inequality and (1.9) give

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho(z)^{p}|E f(z)|^{p} & \leqq\left(\sum_{A \epsilon G}|f(A z)|\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|\right) \\
& \leqq\left(\sum_{A \epsilon G}|f(A z)|^{p}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|\right) \rho(z)^{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
|E f|^{p} \leqq E\left(|f|^{p}\right), \quad 1 \leqq p<\infty \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any $g \epsilon L^{1}$, (1.8), (1.10), and (2.4) yield

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\partial D} g|d z|=\int_{\mathcal{J}}(E g)_{\rho}|d z|=\int_{\partial D}(E g)|d z| \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.6) and (2.7) we obtain

$$
\|E f\|_{p}^{p}=\int_{\partial D}|E f|^{p}|d z| \leqq \int_{\partial D} E\left(|f|^{p}\right)|d z|=\int_{\partial D}|f|^{p}|d z|=\|f\|_{p}^{p}
$$

proving (2.5).
We should also note the obvious facts that $E f=f$ for all $f \in L^{p} \mid G$ and that $E \bar{f}=\overline{E f}$ for all $f \epsilon L^{p}$.

Remark. The identity

$$
E(f g)=f E g, \quad f \in L^{p} \mid G, g \in L^{q}
$$

is immediate from (2.4). With (2.7) it implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\partial D} f g|d z|=\int_{\partial D} f(E g)|d z|, \quad f \in L^{p} \mid G, g \in L^{q} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

whence

$$
\int_{\partial D} f(E g)|d z|=\int_{\partial D}(E f) g|d z|, \quad \quad f \in L^{p}, g \in L^{q}
$$

Thus $E$ is the conditional expectation operator considered by Forelli [6]. (Of course the numbers $p$ and $q$ above satisfy $p^{-1}+q^{-1}=1$.)
2.5. The Hardy space $H^{p}(D), 1 \leqq p \leqq \infty$, is the Banach space of analytic functions in $D$ which satisfy the equivalent conditions

$$
\begin{align*}
& \|f\|_{p}^{p}=\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} \int_{|z|=r}|f|^{p}|d z| /|z|<\infty \quad(p<\infty)  \tag{i}\\
& \|f\|_{\infty}=\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} \max \{|f(z)|:|z|=r\}<\infty
\end{align*}
$$

(ii) $|f|^{p}$ has a harmonic majorant in $D(p<\infty)$.

For each $f \epsilon H^{p}(D), f\left(e^{i \theta}\right)=\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} f\left(r e^{i \theta}\right)$ exists a.e. on $\partial D$ and is in $L^{p}$. Furthermore, its $L^{p}$ norm equals the norm given by (i), and $f$ is equal to the Poisson integral of its boundary values [8]. We may therefore identify $H^{p}(D)$ with a subspace of $L^{p}$.

The Hardy space $H^{p}(R), 1 \leqq p \leqq \infty$ is the Banach space of analytic functions in $R$ satisfying the equivalent conditions (see [11]):

$$
\begin{align*}
\|f\|_{p}^{\prime p} & =\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} \int_{l_{r}}|f|^{p}(\partial g / \partial n) d s<\infty \quad(p<\infty)  \tag{i}\\
\|f\|_{\infty}^{\prime} & =\lim _{r \rightarrow 1} \max \left\{|f(z)|: z \in l_{r}\right\}<\infty
\end{align*}
$$

(ii) $|f|^{p}$ has a harmonic majorant in $R(p<\infty)$,
(iii) $f \in H^{p}(D)$ and $f$ is automorphic.

Here $g$ is Green's function on $R$ with pole at $\pi(0)$, and

$$
l_{r}=\{z \in R: g(z)=1-r\}
$$

Furthermore $\|f\|_{p}^{\prime}=\|f\|_{p}$. Using (iii) we shall identify $H^{p}(R)$ with a subspace of $L^{p}$; in fact $H^{p}(R)=L^{p} \mid G \cap H^{p}(D)$.

Finally, $H_{0}^{p}(D)$ is the set of $f \in H^{p}(D)$ satisfying the equivalent conditions $f(0)=0$ and

$$
\int_{\partial D} f|d z|=0
$$

set $H_{0}^{p}(R)=H_{0}^{p}(D) \cap H^{p}(R)$.
2.6. The operator $E$ is a powerful tool for the study of $H^{p}(R)$, as Forelli has shown in [6]. The basic fact is

Proposition $4([6]) . \quad E H^{p}(D)=H^{p}(R) \oplus N, 1 \leqq p \leqq \infty$.
Proof. The inclusion $H^{p}(R) \subset E H^{p}(D)$ is obvious because $E$ leaves $H^{p}(R)$ fixed. Since the functions $h_{j}$ belong to $H^{p}(D)$ for all $p \geqq 1$, we also have $N \subset E H^{p}(D)$. Corollary 2, §2.3, implies that $H^{p}(R) \cap N=\{0\}$. Moreover, $H^{p}(R) \oplus N$ is closed in $L^{p} / G$, and the natural projection from $H^{p}(R) \oplus N$ to $H^{p}(R)$ is continuous, because $N$ is finite dimensional. (That justifies the direct sum notation.) We have proved that

$$
H^{p}(R) \oplus N \subset E H^{p}(D)
$$

Suppose now that $f \in H^{\infty}(D)$. As we observed in §2.1, $E f$ is meromorphic in $R$ with poles only at the zeros of $\alpha$. By Theorem 1 , there exists $h \in N$ such that $E f-h \in H^{\infty}(R)$. Thus, $E H^{\infty}(D) \subset H^{\infty}(R) \oplus N$.

If $f \in H^{p}(D), p<\infty$, and $f_{r}(z)=f(r z), r<1$, then $f_{r} \rightarrow f$ in $L^{p}$ as $r \rightarrow 1$ (see [8]). From (2.5) it follows that $E f_{r} \rightarrow E f$ in $L^{p} \mid G$. But

$$
E f_{r} \epsilon H^{\infty}(R) \oplus N \subset H^{p}(R) \oplus N
$$

Since $H^{p}(R) \oplus N$ is closed, we conclude that $E H^{p}(D) \subset H^{p}(R) \oplus N$ for all $p \geqq 1$.
Proposition 5 ([6], [7]). For $1<p<\infty$,

$$
L^{p} \mid G=H_{0}^{p}(R) \oplus H^{p}(R) \oplus N .
$$

Proof. It is classical (see [8]) that $L^{p}=H_{0}^{p}(D) \oplus \overline{H^{p}(D)}$ if $1<p<\infty$. Writing $f \in L^{p} \mid G$ in the form $f=g+\bar{h}$, with $g$ and $h \in H^{p}(D)$, and applying $E$, we obtain

$$
f=E f=E g+\overline{E h} .
$$

To complete the proof we apply Proposition 4 and observe that $N=\bar{N}$ because of Corollary 1, §2.3.

Proposition 6. [3], [7], [9], [10]. $f \in L^{1} \mid G$ is in $H^{1}(R)$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\partial R} f \beta=0 \text { for all } \beta \in \mathbb{Q}(R) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. If $f \in H^{1}(R)$ is continuous in $\bar{R}$, (2.9) follows immediately from Stokes' theorem. For any $f \in H^{1}(R), E f_{r}$ is continuous on $\partial R, r<1$. If $Q$ is the (continuous) projection from $H^{1}(R) \oplus N$ to $H^{1}(R)$, then $Q E f_{r}$ belongs to $H^{1}(R)$ and is continuous in $\bar{R}$. Since $Q E f_{r} \rightarrow Q E f=f$ as $r \rightarrow 1$, (2.9) holds for all $f \in H^{1}(R)$.

Conversely, let $f \in L^{1} \mid G$ satisfy (2.9). Then, for all $n \geqq 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\int_{\partial R} f(z) \Theta\left(z^{n}\right) d z=\int_{\partial R} f(z) E\left(z^{n+1}\right) \alpha \\
& =i \int_{\mathcal{S}} f(z) E\left(z^{n+1}\right) \rho(z)|d z|=i \int_{\partial D} f(z) z^{n+1}|d z|,
\end{aligned}
$$

by (2.1), (1.15) and (2.7). A classical theorem implies that $f \in H^{1}(D)$. Thus, $f \in H^{1}(D) \cap L^{1} \mid G=H^{1}(R)$.
Remark. Proposition 6 is a weak form of the Cauchy-Read theorem [9], [10]. We shall obtain the strong form in $\S 3.2$ as a consequence of the F . and M. Riesz theorem.
2.7. Remark. Let $g$ be any meromorphic function on $\hat{R}$ having the same zeros as $\alpha$, with no other zeros or poles in $\bar{R}$. Then, it is clear that

$$
E\left(g H^{\infty}(D)\right)=g\left(H^{\infty}(R) \oplus N\right)=H^{\infty}(R) .
$$

For on the one hand $g\left(H^{\infty}(R) \oplus N\right)$ is obviously contained in $H^{\infty}(R)$, and on the other hand Theorem 1 implies that $f / g \in H^{\infty}(R) \oplus N$ whenever $f \in H^{\infty}(R)$.

As Forelli showed in [6], the corona conjecture for $H^{\infty}(R)$ can be proved
in a few lines as soon as $g \epsilon H^{\infty}(D)$ with $E\left(g H^{\infty}(D)\right)=H^{\infty}(R)$ is found. He found such a $g$ by methods quite different from ours.

## 3. Functions with continuous boundary values

3.1. Let $C(\partial D)$ and $C(\partial R)$ be the Banach spaces of continuous complexvalued functions on $\partial D$ and $\partial R$, respectively. Proposition 2 and the formula (2.4) show that $E$ maps $C(\partial D)$ into $C(\partial R)$. Formula (2.5) shows that $E: C(\partial D) \rightarrow C(\partial R)$ has norm one. We shall calculate the adjoint map $E^{*}: C(\partial R)^{*} \rightarrow C(\partial D)^{*}$. In addition, we shall use a map

$$
\pi_{*}: C(\partial D)^{*} \rightarrow C(\partial R)^{*}
$$

induced by the natural map $\pi: \hat{D} \rightarrow \hat{R}$.
By the Riesz representation theorem, $C(\partial D)^{*}$ is the space of finite complex Baire measures on $\partial D$, and $C(\partial R)^{*}$ is the space of finite complex Baire measures on $\partial R$, or equivalently, on $\mathscr{G} \subset \partial D$.

Lemma 3. For each $\mu \in C(\partial R)^{*}$ and each Baire set $S \subset \partial D$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(E^{*} \mu\right)(S)=\sum_{A \in G} \int_{A^{-1}(s) \cap_{\mathfrak{s}}}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| \rho(z)^{-1} d \mu(z) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $\mu^{*}(S)$ denote the right side of (3.1). It is clear that $\mu^{*}$ is a finite complex Baire measure on $\partial D$. We will show that it has the properties

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\mu^{*}(L(G))=0 & B \in G \\
\mu^{*}(B(S))=\int_{S}\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right| d \mu^{*}(z), & f \in C(\partial D)
\end{array}
$$

The truth of (3.2) is clear. (3.4) implies that $\mu^{*}=E^{*} \mu$. By a change of variable $w=B(z), B \in G$, in (3.1) we find that $\mu^{*}(S)$ is equal to the series in (3.1) with $\mathfrak{g}$ replaced by $B(\mathfrak{g})$. Hence $d \mu^{*}(B(z))=\rho(w)^{-1} d \mu(w)=$ $\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right| \rho(z)^{-1} d \mu(z)=\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right| d \mu^{*}(z)$, first for $z \in \mathscr{G}$ and then for arbitrary $z \epsilon \partial D-L(G)$. This is the differentiated form of (3.3). To prove (3.4):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{\mathcal{S}} E f(z) d \mu(z) & =\sum_{A \in G} \int_{\mathscr{S}} f(A z)\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| \rho(z)^{-1} d \mu(z) \\
& =\sum_{A \in G} \int_{\mathscr{S}} f(A z)\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| d \mu^{*}(z) \\
& =\sum_{A \in G} \int_{\mathcal{S}} f(A z) d \mu^{*}(A z)=\int_{\partial D} f d \mu^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 4. Define $\pi_{*}: C(\partial D)^{*} \rightarrow C(\partial R)^{*} b y$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\pi_{*} \mu\right)(S)=\mu(G(S))=\sum_{A \in G} \mu(A(S)) \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for each $\mu \epsilon C(\partial D)^{*}$ and each Baire set $S \subset \partial R . \pi_{*}$ is linear of norm one. Moreover, $\pi_{*} \circ E^{*}$ is the identity on $C(\partial R)^{*}$, and $P=E^{*} \circ \pi_{*}$ is a projection of norm one from $C(\partial D)^{*}$ onto the closed subspace of measures which satisfy (3.2) and (3.3).

Proof. Let $\mu_{*}=\pi_{*} \mu, \mu \in C(\partial D)^{*}$. Then $d \mu_{*}(z)=\sum d \mu(A z)$, and

$$
\int_{\partial D-L(G)} f d \mu=\sum \int_{\mathcal{S}} f(w) d \mu(A w)=\int_{\mathcal{g}} f d \mu_{*}
$$

for all $f \in C(\partial R)$. Thus $\pi_{*}$ has norm one. Let $\mu \in C(\partial R)^{*}$ and suppose $S \subset g$ is a Baire set. Setting $\mu^{*}=E^{*} \mu \in C(\partial D)^{*}$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\pi_{*} \mu^{*}\right)(S) & =\sum_{A \in G} \mu^{*}(A(S))=\sum_{A \in G} \int_{S}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| d \mu^{*}(z) \\
& =\int_{S} \rho(z) d \mu^{*}(z)=\int_{S} d \mu(z)=\mu(S)
\end{aligned}
$$

proving that $\pi_{*} \circ E^{*}$ is the identity.
Finally, each $\mu^{*} \in C(\partial D)^{*}$ which satisfies (3.2) and (3.3) is in the range of $E^{*}$; in fact, $\mu^{*}=P \mu^{*}=E^{*} \mu$, where $\mu=\pi_{*} \mu^{*}$. For by (3.3),

$$
\mu(S)=\int_{S} \rho(z) d \mu^{*}(z) \quad \text { if } S \subset \mathfrak{g}
$$

Hence for any Baire set $T \subset \partial D$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(E^{*} \mu\right)(T) & =\sum_{A \in G} \int_{A^{-1}(T) \cap_{s}}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right| d \mu^{*}(z) \\
& =\sum_{A \in G} \int_{T \cap_{A(g)}} d \mu^{*}(A z)=\mu^{*}(T)
\end{aligned}
$$

by (3.2) and (3.3).
Remark. We map $L^{1}$ into $C(\partial D)^{*}$ by identifying each $f \epsilon L^{1}$ with the measure $d \mu=f(z)|d z|$ on $\partial D$. Each subspace of $L^{1}$ will be identified with its image in $C(\partial D)^{*}$. The restriction of $P$ to $L^{1}$ is simply $E$. In particular, $P\left(H^{1}(D)\right)=H^{1}(R) \oplus N$.
3.2. Our work in $\S 3.1$ has two immediate applications.

Theorem 2. $E$ maps $C(\partial D)$ onto $C(\partial R)$.
Proof. A standard result in functional analysis [4, p. 488] says that $E$ has dense range if and only if $E^{*}$ is one-to-one and $E$ has closed range if and only if $E^{*}$ does. Therefore Theorem 2 is equivalent to the assertion that $E^{*}$ is one-to-one and has closed range. These properties of $E^{*}$ are immediate consequences of Lemma 4, specifically of the fact that $E^{*}$ has a left inverse.

We will now introduce the two Banach spaces

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{0}(D)=\left\{f \epsilon H_{0}^{\infty}(D): f \text { is continuous in } \bar{D}\right\} \\
& A_{0}(R)=\left\{f \in H_{0}^{\infty}(R): f \text { is continuous in } \bar{R}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The functions $z^{n}, n \geq 1$, are dense in $A_{0}(D)$. We have by uniform convergence that $E f$ is meromorphic in $R$, continuous on $\partial R$, and vanishes at $\pi(0)$. Hence as in §2.6,

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left(A_{0}(D)\right) \subset A_{0}(R) \oplus N \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

but the opposite inclusion is not obvious.
Lemma 5 (F. and M. Riesz) [3], [7], [10]. Let $\mu$ be a finite complex Baire measure on $\partial R$ such that

$$
\int_{\partial R} f d \mu=0, \quad \text { all } f \in E\left(A_{0}(D)\right)
$$

Then $d \mu=h(z) \rho(z)|d z|$ for some $h \in H^{1}(R)$.
Proof. Set $\mu^{*}=E^{*} \mu$. (3.4) implies that $\int_{\partial D} z^{n} d \mu^{*}=0$ for all $n \geq 1$, and hence the classical result in $D$ implies that $d \mu^{*}=h(z)|d z|$ for some $h_{-}^{h} \in H^{1}(D)$. But (3.3) implies that

$$
h(B(z))\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right||d z|=\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right| h(z)|d z|
$$

so that $h(B(z))=h(z)$ for all $z \epsilon \partial D$ and $B \in G$. Hence $h \in H^{1}(R)$.
Corollary 1 ([9], [10]). $\quad\left[A_{0}(R) \oplus N\right]^{\perp}=\pi_{*}\left(H^{1}(R)\right)$.
Proof. Since $\pi_{*}\left(H^{1}(R)\right)$ consists of the measures on $\partial R$ of the form $d \mu=h(z) \rho(z)|d z|, h \in H^{1}(R)$, (3.6) and Lemma 5 imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[A_{0}(R) \oplus N\right]^{\perp} \subset\left[E\left(A_{0}(D)\right)\right]^{\perp} \subset \pi_{*}\left(H^{1}(R)\right) \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, if $f \in A_{0}(R) \oplus N$ and $\mu \epsilon \pi *\left(H^{1}(R)\right)$, then

$$
i \int_{\mathcal{g}} f d \mu=i \int_{\mathcal{s}} f(z) h(z)_{\rho}(z)|d z|=\int_{\partial R} h f \alpha=0
$$

by (1.15) and Proposition 6, since $f \alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(R)$ when $f \in A_{0}(R) \oplus N$.
Corollary 2. $E\left(A_{0}(D)\right)$ is dense in $A_{0}(R) \oplus N$.
In fact, Corollary 1 and (3.7) imply that every linear functional which vanishes on $E\left(A_{0}(D)\right)$ vanishes on $A_{0}(R) \oplus N$.

Remark. Corollary 1 is the strong form of the Cauchy-Read theorem which we promised in §2.6. It corresponds to the classical theorem that

$$
A_{0}(D)^{\perp}=H^{1}(D)
$$

3.3. We are now ready to prove the main result of this chapter.

Theorem 3. $E\left(A_{0}(D)\right)=A_{0}(R) \oplus N$.
Proof. By Corollary 2 of Lemma 5, we need to prove only that

$$
E: A_{0}(D) \rightarrow A_{0}(R) \oplus N
$$

has closed range. As in Theorem 2, we shall prove instead that $E^{*}$ has closed range. Corollary 1 of Lemma 5 allows us to interpret $E^{*}$ as a map from the coset space $C(\partial R)^{*} / \pi_{*}\left(H^{1}(R)\right)$ into $C(\partial D)^{*} / H^{1}(D)$. The image of $E^{*}$ is therefore

$$
E^{*}\left(C(\partial R)^{*}\right) / H^{1}(D)=P\left(C(\partial D)^{*}\right) / H^{1}(D)
$$

where $P: C(\partial D)^{*} \rightarrow C(\partial D)^{*}$ is the projection defined in Lemma 4. It is not obvious that $P\left(C(\partial D)^{*}\right) / H^{1}(D)$ is closed. The difficulty is that $P$ does not preserve $H^{1}(D)$. To compensate for that we use the projection

$$
Q: H^{1}(D) \oplus N \rightarrow H^{1}(D)
$$

with kernel $N$. Here we interpret $H^{1}(D)$ and $N$ as closed subspaces of $C(\partial D)^{*}$. The subspace $H^{1}(D) \oplus N$ is closed, and $Q$ is continuous, because $N$ has finite dimension.

Let $\left\{\mu_{n}\right\} \subset P\left(C(\partial D)^{*}\right)$ and $\left\{\nu_{n}\right\} \subset H^{1}(D)$ be sequences such that

$$
\mu_{n}+\nu_{n} \rightarrow \lambda \epsilon C(\partial D)^{*}
$$

We must find $\sigma \in H^{1}(D)$ such that $\sigma+\lambda=P(\sigma+\lambda)$. We assert that

$$
\sigma=Q(P \lambda-\lambda)=\lim \left(Q P \nu_{n}-\nu_{n}\right), \quad n \rightarrow \infty
$$

suffices. First we verify that $\sigma$ exists. Since $\mu_{n}+\nu_{n} \rightarrow \lambda$,

$$
P\left(\mu_{n}+\nu_{n}\right)=\mu_{n}+P \nu_{n} \rightarrow P \lambda
$$

Therefore $P \lambda-\lambda=\lim \left(P \nu_{n}-\nu_{n}\right) \epsilon H^{1}(D) \oplus N$, and $\sigma$ exists, because

$$
P \nu_{n} \in P H^{1}(D)=H^{1}(R) \oplus N \subset H^{1}(D) \oplus N
$$

a closed subspace. Since $Q P \nu_{n} \in H^{1}(R)$, it is fixed by $P$, and we find that

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(\sigma+\lambda) & =\lim \left(P Q P \nu_{n}-P \nu_{n}+P \nu_{n}+\mu_{n}\right) \\
& =\lim \left(Q P \nu_{n}-\nu_{n}+\nu_{n}+\mu_{n}\right)=\sigma+\lambda
\end{aligned}
$$

completing the proof.
3.4. Theorem 3 has an interesting application to Poincaré series Set $A(D)=A_{0}(D) \oplus C ; A(D)$ is the closure in $C(\partial D)$ of the polynomials.

Theorem 4. The Poincaré series (1.13), maps $A(D)$ onto $\mathbb{Q}(R)$.
Proof. The map $f(z) \rightarrow f_{0}(z)=z f(z)$ carries $A(D)$ onto $A_{0}(D)$. Com-
paring (1.13), (1.14) and (2.1) we find that

$$
(\Theta f)(z) d z=\left(E f_{0}\right)(z) \alpha
$$

By Theorem 3, the range of $\Theta$ is the set of all differentials $f \alpha, f \in A_{0}(R) \oplus N$. But the mapping $\beta \rightarrow \beta / \alpha$ is a one-to-one correspondence between $Q(R)$ and $A_{0}(R) \oplus N$, by Theorem 1.

Remark. Since polynomials are dense in $A(D)$, the Poincare series of polynomials are dense in $\mathbb{Q}(R)$. Thus each differential in $\mathbb{Q}(R)$ can be uniformly approximated in $\bar{R}$ by meromorphic differentials in $\hat{R}$ which have poles only at $\pi(\infty)$.
3.5. The meromorphic differentials on $\hat{R}$ can also be described easily by Poincaré series. In fact, Proposition 3 has the following converse.

Theorem 5. Every meromorphic differential on $\hat{R}$ has the form $(\Theta r)(z) d z$, where $r(z)$ is rational with no poles in $L(G)$.

Proof. Put $r_{n}(z)=(z-\zeta)^{n}$. If $\zeta \in \hat{D}-G(\infty)$, then $\left(\Theta r_{n}\right)(z) d z$ has a pole of order $-n$ at $\pi(\zeta)$ for $n<0$, a pole of order $n+2$ at $\pi(\infty)$ for $n>-2$, and no other poles in $\hat{R}$. Therefore, every meromorphic differential on $\hat{R}$ is the sum of an analytic differential and a linear combination of the differentials $\left(\Theta r_{n}\right)(z) d z$. From (2.3), Lemma 1, and Corollary 1 of Lemma 2, we conclude that every analytic differential on $\hat{R}$ is the $\Theta$-series of a rational function with poles only in $G(\infty)$. That proves Theorem 5.
3.6. To illustrate some of the difficulties that can arise upon projecting a theorem on $H^{p}(D)$ we will present the theorem of Szegö and KolmogoroffKrein as presented in [8] (cf. [1, §5]).

Let $\mu$ be a finite positive Baire measure on $\partial R$ with

$$
d \mu=(1 / 2 \pi) h(z) \rho(z)|d z|+d \mu_{s}
$$

$\mu_{s}$ singular. Then for

$$
D(f)=\int_{\partial R}|1-f|^{2} d \mu
$$

$$
\inf _{f \in E\left(\Lambda_{0}(D)\right)} D(f) \leqq \exp (1 / 2 \pi) \int_{\partial R}(\log h) \rho(z)|d z| \leqq \inf _{f \in A_{0}(R)} D(f)
$$

There is equality on both sides if $N \perp A(R)$ with respect to $d \mu$.
Proof. The corresponding theorem in $D$ applied to $E^{*}{ }_{\mu}$ implies that

$$
\inf _{g \in A_{0}(D)} \int_{\partial R} E\left(|1-g|^{2}\right) d \mu=\exp (1 / 2 \pi) \int_{\partial R}(\log h)_{\rho}(z)|d z|
$$

On the one hand from (2.6) we have

$$
E\left(|1-g|^{2}\right) \geqq|E(1-g)|^{2}=|1-E(g)|^{2}
$$

On the other hand if $f \in A_{0}(R)$ then $f_{r}(z)=f(r z) \epsilon A_{0}(D)$ and it is not hard to show that

$$
\lim E\left(\left|1-f_{r}\right|^{2}\right)=E\left(|1-f|^{2}\right)=|1-f|^{2}
$$

uniformly on $g$. Finally if $N \perp A(R)$ with respect to $d \mu$ then writing $f \in E\left(A_{0}(D)\right)$ as $f=f_{1}+f_{2}, f_{1} \in A_{0}(R), f_{2} \in N$, we have

$$
\int_{\partial R}|1-f|^{2} d \mu=\int_{\partial R}\left|1-f_{1}\right|^{2} d \mu+\int_{\partial R}\left|f_{2}\right|^{2} d \mu
$$

## 4. Reproducing kernels on $R$

4.1. We will first construct the Poisson kernel for $R$. We recall that

$$
P_{\zeta}(z)=\left(1-|\zeta|^{2}\right) /|z-\zeta|^{2}, \quad z \in \partial D, \quad \zeta \in D
$$

is the Poisson kernel for $D$. Noting that

$$
P_{A \zeta}(A z)=\frac{1-|A \zeta|^{2}}{|A z-A \zeta|^{2}}=\frac{\left(1-|\zeta|^{2}\right)\left|A^{\prime}(\zeta)\right|}{|z-\zeta|^{2}\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|\left|A^{\prime}(\zeta)\right|}=P_{\zeta}(z)\left|A^{\prime}(z)\right|^{-1}
$$

for all $A \in G$, we find that

$$
E\left(P_{A \zeta}\right)(z)=E\left(P_{\zeta}\right)(z), \quad \text { all } \quad A \in G \quad \text { and } \quad z \in \partial D-L(G)
$$

Thus $\left(E P_{A \zeta}\right)(B(z))=\left(E P_{\zeta}\right)(z)$ for all $z \in \partial D-L(G), \zeta \in D$ and $A, B \in G$, so that $\left(E P_{\zeta}\right)(z)$ is a function on $\partial R \times R$. Furthermore if $f(\zeta)$ is any harmonic function in $R$, continuous on $\partial R$, we have, using (2.8),

$$
2 \pi f(\zeta)=\int_{\partial D} f(z) P_{\zeta}(z)|d z|=\int_{\partial R} f(z)\left(E P_{\zeta}\right)(z) \rho(z)|d z|
$$

Therefore $\left(E P_{\zeta}\right)(z)$ is the Poisson kernel for $R$.
4.2. We call the function $C(z, \zeta)$ a Cauchy kernel in $R$ if for fixed $z \epsilon \bar{D}-L(G), C(z, \zeta) d \zeta$ is a meromorphic differential in $\bar{R}$ having one simple pole of residue one at $\pi(z)$, and for fixed $\zeta, C(z, \zeta)$ is a meromorphic function in $\bar{R}$ having one simple pole of residue -1 at $\pi(\zeta)$. Thus $C(z, \zeta)$ must satisfy

$$
C(A z, B \zeta) B^{\prime}(\zeta)=C(z, \zeta), \quad z, \zeta \in D ; A, B \in G
$$

By analogy with $\S 4.1$ define

$$
C_{1}(z, \zeta)=\sum_{A \in G} \frac{A^{\prime}(\zeta)}{A(\zeta)-z}=E_{\zeta}\left(\frac{\zeta}{\zeta-z}\right) \alpha
$$

where the subscript $\zeta$ indicates that $\zeta(\zeta-z)^{-1}$ is interpreted as a function of $\zeta$. For $f(z)$ analytic in $R$ and continuous in $\bar{R}$ we find

$$
\begin{align*}
2 \pi f(z) & =\int_{\partial D} \frac{\zeta f(\zeta)}{\zeta-z}|d \zeta|=\int_{\partial R} f(\zeta) E_{\zeta}\left(\zeta(\zeta-z)^{-1}\right)(\zeta) \rho(\zeta)|d \zeta| \\
& =-i \int_{\partial R} f(\zeta) C_{1}(z, \zeta) d \zeta \tag{4.1}
\end{align*}
$$

Furthermore, $C_{1}(z, \zeta) d \zeta$ is a differential on $R$ for each $z \in D$. However $C_{1}(z, \zeta)$, for fixed $\zeta$, is not a function on $R$. To rectify this problem we will use a projection $P$ that we constructed in [5]. Consider the Poincaré series

$$
\Phi h=\sum_{A \in G} h(A(z)) A^{\prime}(z)^{2}
$$

We choose a polynomial $F$ so that $\Phi F$ is non-zero in $\bar{R}$ (see [5]), and we define

$$
(P f)(z)=(\Phi f F)(z) /(\Phi F)(z)
$$

If $f$ is analytic in $\bar{D}, P f$ is an analytic function in $\bar{R}$. If $f$ is meromorphic in $\bar{D}$ with a simple pole of residue $c$ at $z=\zeta$, then $\operatorname{Pf}$ is meromorphic in $\bar{R}$ with a simple pole of residue $c F(\zeta) /(\Phi F)(\zeta)$ at $\pi(\zeta)$.

Now we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(z, \zeta)=P_{z} C_{1}(z, \zeta) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the subscript $z$ indicates that $C_{1}(z, \zeta)$ is to be considered as a function of $z$, is the required Cauchy kernel. Explicitly
$(4.2)^{*} \quad C(z, \zeta)=\sum_{A, B \in G} \frac{F(B z) A^{\prime}(\zeta) B^{\prime}(z)^{2}}{(A \zeta-B z) \varphi(z)}=\sum \frac{F(B z) A^{\prime}(\zeta)}{\varphi(B z)(A \zeta-B z)}$
where $\varphi(z)=(\Phi F)(z)$.
To prove that the double series involved in (4.2) converges, we need the identity

$$
|B(A \zeta)-B(z)|=|A(\zeta)-z|\left|B^{\prime}(A \zeta)\right|^{1 / 2}\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right|^{1 / 2}
$$

and the inequalities

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right| \leqq & (|a|-|b|)^{-2}=(|a|+|b|)^{2}, & & z \in D \\
& \left|B^{\prime}(z)\right| \leqq \sigma^{-2}|b|^{-2}, & z \in \mathbb{R}
\end{array}
$$

Here $B(z)=(a z+b) /(\bar{b} z+\bar{a}),|a|^{2}-|b|^{2}=1, \Omega$ is a fundamental region for $G$ in $D$, and $\sigma$ is the distance from $R$ to the closed set $G(\infty) \cup L(G)$ (cf. (1.12)). Setting

$$
M=\sup \{|F(z)|: z \in D\} \quad \text { and } \quad m=\inf \{\mid(\Phi F)(z): z \in \mathbb{R}\}
$$

we obtain, for $z, \zeta \in R$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|P_{z} C_{1}(z, \zeta)\right| & \leqq \frac{M}{m} \sum_{B} \sum_{A} \frac{\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right|^{2}\left|(B A)^{\prime}(\zeta)\right|}{|(B A)(\zeta)-B(z)|} \\
& =\frac{M}{m} \sum_{B} \sum_{A} \frac{\left|B^{\prime}(z)\right|^{3 / 2}\left|B^{\prime}(A \zeta)\right|^{1 / 2}\left|A^{\prime}(\zeta)\right|}{|A(\zeta)-z|} \\
& \leqq \frac{M}{m \delta^{3}}\left(\sum_{A} \frac{\left|A^{\prime}(\zeta)\right|}{|A(\zeta)-z|}\right)\left(1+\sum_{B}^{\prime} \frac{|b|+|a|}{|b|^{3}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\sum^{\prime}$ denotes summation over all $B \neq I$. By (1.11), $\sum^{\prime}|b|^{-2}$ converges. Since $|a / b|=\left|B^{-1}(\infty)\right|$, the terms $|a / b|$ are uniformly bounded,
and the second series in parenthesis converges. The first converges uniformly for $z \in \mathbb{R}$, provided the term $A=I$ is omitted.

Finally we note that the residue at $\pi(\zeta)$ for fixed $\zeta$ of $P_{z} C_{1}(z, \zeta) d \zeta$ is

$$
-\sum F(A \zeta) /(\Theta F)(A \zeta)=-1
$$

and similarly we see that $C(z, \zeta) d \zeta$ for fixed $z$ is a meromorphic differential in $\zeta$ with simple pole at $\zeta=z$. Since $P f=f$ for $G$-invariant functions $f$, the fact that $C$ is a Cauchy kernel now follows from (4.1).

Remark. The essential part of our proof is the construction of $C_{1}$. At that point there is considerable freedom in choosing a projection $P$. Our construction of a Cauchy kernel appears to be simpler and, in a sense, more natural than the classical one.

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