

# Introduction to Computational Manifolds and Applications

# Part 1 - Constructions

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### **Transition Maps**

We will now study some "candidates" for the *g* maps of our transition maps.

First, we will consider projective transformations in  $\mathbb{RP}^2$ .

Next, we will review some simple conformal maps.

Both maps above do not fulfill all requirements for the role of the *g* maps. But, if we allow a slight change in the geometry of the *p*-domains, *simple* conformal maps can do the job.

### **Projective Transformations**

Our goal now is to define a *projective transformation*,  $T : \mathbb{RP}^2 \to \mathbb{RP}^2$ , that maps  $\overset{\circ}{Q}_{uw}$  onto  $\overset{\circ}{Q}$ .

Recall that a family,  $(a_i)_{1 \le i \le n+2}$ , of n + 2 points of the projective space  $\mathbb{RP}^n$  is a *projective frame* (or *basis*) of  $\mathbb{RP}^n$  if there exists some basis  $(e_1, \ldots, e_{n+1})$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  such that

$$a_i = [e_i]_{\sim}$$
, for  $1 \le i \le n+1$ 

and

$$a_{n+2} = [e_{n+2}]_{\sim}$$
, where  $e_{n+2} = e_1 + \cdots + e_n + e_{n+1}$ .

Any basis with the above property is said to be *associated with the projective frame*  $(a_i)_{1 \le i \le n+2}$ .

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#### **Projective Transformations**

For instance,

$$e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$$
  

$$e_2 = (0, 1, \dots, 0, 0)$$
  

$$\vdots$$
  

$$e_n = (0, 0, \dots, 1, 0)$$
  

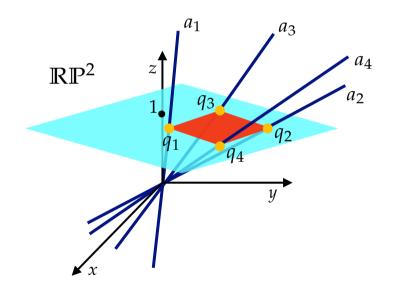
$$e_{n+1} = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1),$$

the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , together with the vector  $e_{n+2} = e_1 + \cdots + e_{n+1}$ , defines a projective frame,  $(a_1, \ldots, a_{n+2})$ , of  $\mathbb{RP}^n$  such that  $a_i = [e_i]_{\sim}$ , for every  $1 \le i \le n+2$ .

We can view each  $a_i$  as a line in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  passing through the origin in the direction of  $e_i$ .

### **Projective Transformations**

Consider n = 2.

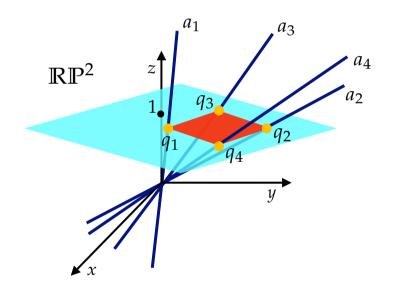


A projective frame in  $\mathbb{RP}^2$  consists of four points,  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$ , and  $a_4$ , which correspond to four lines through the origin of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The intersection of these lines and a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , e.g., z = 1, defines the vertices,  $q_1$ ,  $q_2$ ,  $q_3$ , and  $q_4$ , of a non-degenerate quadrilateral.

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### **Projective Transformations**

Consider n = 2.



Conversely, given a non-degenerate quadrilateral with vertices  $q_1$ ,  $q_2$ ,  $q_3$ , and  $q_4$  in a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , e.g., z = 1, there is a projective frame consisting of the points  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$ , and  $a_4$ , in  $\mathbb{RP}^2$  such that  $q_i$  belongs to the line in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  associated with  $a_i$ , for i = 1, 2, 3, 4.

### **Projective Transformations**

Every bijective linear map,  $f : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , induces a function,

 $\boldsymbol{P}(f):\mathbb{RP}^n\to\mathbb{RP}^n$  ,

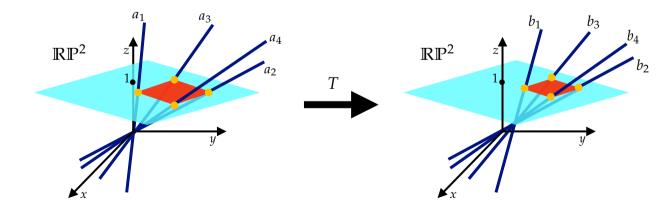
called a *projective transformation*, defined as

 $\mathbf{P}(f)([u]_{\sim}) = [f(u)]_{\sim}.$ 

### **Projective Transformations**

According to the Fundamental Theorem of Projective Geometry, if we are given any two projective frames,  $(a_i)_{1 \le i \le n+2}$  and  $(b_i)_{1 \le i \le n+2}$ , of  $\mathbb{RP}^n$ , then there exists a *unique* projective transformation,  $T : \mathbb{RP}^n \to \mathbb{RP}^n$ , such that  $T(a_i) = b_i$ , for each  $1 \le i \le n+2$ .

An immediate consequence of the aforementioned theorem is that there exists a unique projective transformation between two non-degenerate quadrilaterals in the plane z = 1.

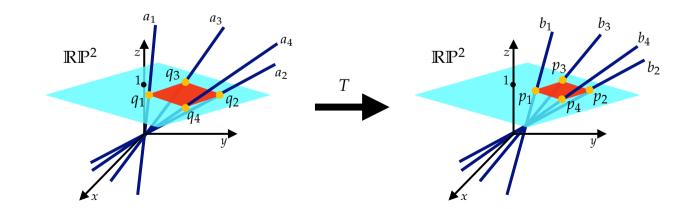


### **Projective Transformations**

Given any two non-degenerate quadrilaterals,

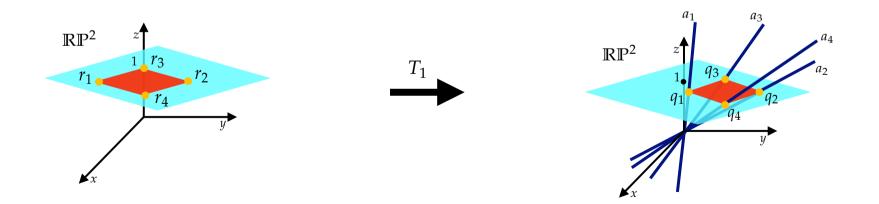
$$Q_1 = [q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4]$$
 and  $Q_2 = [p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4]$ ,

in the plane z = 1, the projective transformation,  $T : \mathbb{RP}^2 \to \mathbb{RP}^2$ , that maps  $Q_1$  to  $Q_2$  can be computed in three steps as the composition of two projective transformations.



#### **Projective Transformations**

First, we compute the projective transformation,  $T_1 : \mathbb{RP}^2 \to \mathbb{RP}^2$ , that maps the square,  $Q = [r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4]$ , where  $r_1 = (1, 0, 1)$ ,  $r_2 = (0, 1, 1)$ ,  $r_3 = (0, 0, 1)$ , and  $r_4 = (1, 1, 1)$  to the quadrilateral  $Q_1$ . In order to do so, we view  $T_1$  as a linear map that takes  $r_i$  to a point in the line passing through the origin and  $q_i$ , for each i = 1, 2, 3, 4.



### **Projective Transformations**

Since  $(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4)$  and  $(q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4)$  are non-degenerate quadrilaterals, we have that  $(r_1, r_2, r_3)$  and  $(q_1, q_2, q_3)$  are linearly independent. Furthermore, as points of the plane *H* of equation z = 1, they are also affinely independent. So, we can write  $r_4$  and  $q_4$  as

$$r_4 = r_1 + r_2 - r_3$$

and

$$q_4 = \lambda_1 q_1 + \lambda_2 q_2 + \lambda_3 q_3$$

for some unique scalars  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$ ,  $\lambda_3$  such that  $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 1$ .

#### **Projective Transformations**

In fact,  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$ ,  $\lambda_3$  are solutions of the system

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_4 \\ y_4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $q_1 = (x_1, y_1, 1)$ ,  $q_2 = (x_2, y_2, 1)$ ,  $q_3 = (x_3, y_3, 1)$ ,  $q_4 = (x_4, y_4, 1)$  are the coordinates of  $q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4$  with respect to the basis  $(r_1, r_2, r_3)$ . Furthermore, since  $(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4)$  and  $(q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4)$  are non-degenerate quadrilaterals, we get  $\lambda_i \neq 0$  for i = 1, 2, 3.

#### **Projective Transformations**

Let  $a_1 = r_1$ ,  $a_2 = r_2$ ,  $a_3 = -r_3$ , and let  $b_1 = \lambda_1 q_1$ ,  $b_2 = \lambda_2 q_2$ ,  $b_3 = \lambda_3 q_3$ , so that

 $r_4 = a_4 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$ 

and

$$q_4 = b_4 = b_1 + b_2 + b_3$$
.

#### **Projective Transformations**

Since  $r_1, r_2, r_3$  are linearly independent, we know that there is a unique linear map,

 $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ 

such that

$$f(a_1) = b_1$$
,  $f(a_2) = b_2$ , and  $f(a_3) = b_3$ ,

and by linearity,

$$f(r_4) = f(a_1 + a_2 + a_3) = f(a_1) + f(a_2) + f(a_3) = b_1 + b_2 + b_3 = q_4.$$

#### **Projective Transformations**

With respect to the basis  $(r_1, r_2, r_3)$ , we have

 $f(r_1) = b_1$ ,  $f(r_2) = b_2$  and  $f(r_3) = -b_3$ .

So, with respect to the basis  $(r_1, r_2, r_3)$ , the associated matrix, A, of the map f is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 & \lambda_2 x_2 & -\lambda_3 x_3 \\ \lambda_1 y_1 & \lambda_2 y_2 & -\lambda_3 y_3 \\ \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & -\lambda_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### **Projective Transformations**

The change of basis matrix *P* from the canonical basis  $(e_1, e_2, e_3)$  to the basis  $(u_1, u_2, u_3)$  is

$$P = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array}\right)$$

and its inverse is

$$P^{-1} = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array}\right)$$

### **Projective Transformations**

If we assume that we pick the coordinates of  $q_1$ ,  $q_2$ ,  $q_3$ ,  $q_4$  with respect to the *canonical basis*, the matrix of our linear map with respect to the canonical basis is the unique matrix A' that maps each column  $u_1$ ,  $u_2$ , and  $u_3$  of the matriz P to the corresponding column of the matrix A representing  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ , and  $v_3$  over the canonical basis, namely

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 & \lambda_2 x_2 & \lambda_3 x_3 \\ \lambda_1 y_1 & \lambda_2 y_2 & \lambda_3 y_3 \\ \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix},$$

and this it must be given by

$$A' = A \cdot P^{-1} = AP.$$

### **Projective Transformations**

That is,

$$A' = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 & \lambda_2 x_2 & -\lambda_3 x_3 \\ \lambda_1 y_1 & \lambda_2 y_2 & -\lambda_3 y_3 \\ \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & -\lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_3 x_3 & \lambda_2 x_2 + \lambda_3 x_3 & -\lambda_3 x_3 \\ \lambda_1 y_1 + \lambda_3 y_3 & \lambda_2 y_2 + \lambda_3 y_3 & -\lambda_3 y_3 \\ \lambda_1 + \lambda_3 & \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 & -\lambda_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

### **Projective Transformations**

Since

$$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{r} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{r} x \\ y \\ x+y-1 \end{array}\right) \,,$$

if we want to represent the restriction of the projective transformation to the plane *H* (in the *canonical basis*), we can also apply the matrix *A* to the point in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  of coordinates

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \\ x + y - 1 \end{array}\right)$$

#### **Projective Transformations**

Thus, we can define  $T_1 : \mathbb{RP}^2 \to \mathbb{RP}^2$  as  $T_1(s) = A_1 \cdot s$ , for every  $s \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , where

$$A_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{1}x_{1} + \lambda_{3}x_{3} & \lambda_{2}x_{2} + \lambda_{3}x_{3} & -\lambda_{3} \cdot x_{3} \\ \lambda_{1}y_{1} + \lambda_{3}y_{3} & \lambda_{2}y_{2} + \lambda_{3}y_{3} & -\lambda_{3} \cdot y_{3} \\ \lambda_{1} + \lambda_{3} & \lambda_{2} + \lambda_{3} & -\lambda_{3} \end{pmatrix},$$

and the coordinates of  $s \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is given with respect to the *canonical basis*,  $(e_1, e_2, e_3)$ .

#### **Projective Transformations**

So, if  $s = (x, y, 1) \in Q$ , then we get  $t = T_1(s) = (x', y', 1)$  such that x' and y' are  $x' = \frac{(\lambda_1 x_1 + \lambda_3 x_3)x + (\lambda_2 x_2 + \lambda_3 x_3)y - \lambda_3 x_3}{(\lambda_1 + \lambda_3)x + (\lambda_2 + \lambda_3)y - \lambda_3}$ 

$$y' = \frac{(\lambda_1 y_1 + \lambda_3 y_3)x + (\lambda_2 y_2 + \lambda_3 y_3)y - \lambda_3 y_3}{(\lambda_1 + \lambda_3)x + (\lambda_2 + \lambda_3)y - \lambda_3}$$

### **Projective Transformations**

We can proceed in a similar manner to define the map  $T_2 : \mathbb{RP}^2 \to \mathbb{RP}^2$  taking Q onto  $Q_2$ .

The second step consists of defining the map  $T_2 : \mathbb{RP}^2 \to \mathbb{RP}^2$  taking Q onto  $Q_2$ . We can proceed as before, but using  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $p_3$ , and  $p_4$  instead of  $q_1$ ,  $q_2$ ,  $q_3$ , and  $q_4$ , respectively.

The third step consists of defining the map *T*. This is done by noticing that  $T_1$  is a bijection, as  $A_1$  is invertible. So,  $T_1^{-1}$  maps  $Q_1$  onto Q, and hence we define the map *T* as

$$T(p) = (T_2 \circ T_1^{-1})(p) = A_2 \cdot A_1^{-1} \cdot p$$
,

for every  $p \in Q_1$ , where  $A_2$  is the matrix associated with the projective transformation  $T_2$ .

### **Projective Transformations**

Can the transformation *T* play the role of our *g* map in our transition functions?

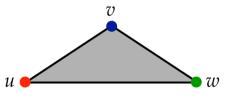
The map *T* is definitely a  $C^{\infty}$ -diffeomorphism of the plane (viewed as the plane z = 1 in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ).

Furthermore, *T* maps  $\overset{\circ}{Q}_{uw}$  onto  $\overset{\circ}{Q}$ , while  $T^{-1}$  maps  $\overset{\circ}{Q}$  onto  $\overset{\circ}{Q}_{uw}$ .

However, the map *T* does not satisfies the cocycle condition.

#### **Projective Transformations**

To see why, consider a triangle,  $\sigma = [u, v, w]$  of  $\mathcal{K}$ , such that  $n_u = 5$ ,  $n_v = 6$ , and  $n_w = 7$ .



By construction,

$$r_{uw}(Q_{uw}) = r_{uv}(Q_{uv}) = \left[ (0,0), \left( \cos\left(-\frac{2\pi}{5}\right), \sin\left(-\frac{2\pi}{5}\right) \right), (1,0), \left( \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{5}\right), \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{5}\right) \right) \right],$$

$$r_{vu}(Q_{vu}) = r_{vw}(Q_{vw}) = \left[ (0,0), \left( \cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right), \sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \right), (1,0), \left( \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right), \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \right) \right],$$

$$r_{wv}(Q_{wv}) = r_{wu}(Q_{wu}) = \left[ (0,0), \left( \cos\left(-\frac{2\pi}{7}\right), \sin\left(-\frac{2\pi}{7}\right) \right), (1,0), \left( \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{7}\right), \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{7}\right) \right) \right]$$

### **Projective Transformations**

We define

$$g_u: \mathbb{E}^2 \to \mathbb{E}^2, \quad g_v: \mathbb{E}^2 \to \mathbb{E}^2, \quad \text{and} \quad g_w: \mathbb{E}^2 \to \mathbb{E}^2$$

as the projective maps that takes  $r_{uw}(Q_{uw})$ ,  $r_{vu}(Q_{vu})$ , and  $r_{wv}(Q_{wv})$  onto Q, respectively, where

$$Q = \left[ (0,0), \left( \cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right), \sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \right), (1,0), \left( \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right), \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \right) \right]$$

### **Projective Transformations**

The matrices associated with the  $g_u$  and  $g_u^{-1}$  maps are:

(	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000
	0.000000	0.562777	0.000000
	0.552786	0.000000	0.447214

and

(	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	
	0.000000	1.776900	0.000000	,
	-1.236070	0.000000	2.236070	

respectively.

The matrices associated with the  $g_v$  and  $g_v^{-1}$  maps are the identity matrix.

### **Projective Transformations**

The matrices associated with the  $g_w$  and  $g_w^{-1}$  maps are

(	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	
	0.000000	1.381260	0.000000	
	-0.655971	0.000000	1.655970	Ϊ

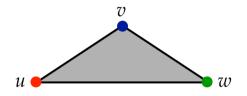
and

1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	
0.000000	0.723974	0.000000	,
0.396125	0.000000	0.603875	

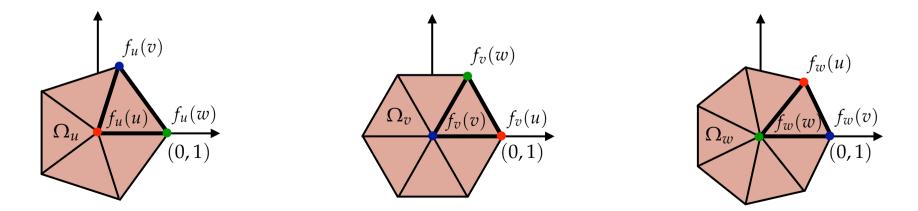
respectively.

### **Projective Transformations**

Suppose that *w* precedes *v* in a counterclockwise enumeration of the vertices in lk(u, K).



Suppose also that the *p*-domains are defined as below:



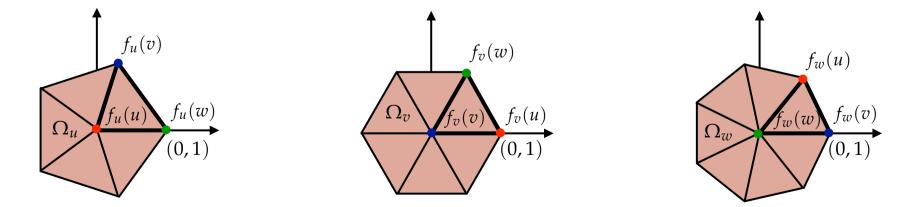
### **Projective Transformations**

So,

$$\varphi_{vu}(x) = (g_v^{-1} \circ h \circ g_u \circ r_{-\frac{2\pi}{5}})(x), \text{ for all } x \in \Omega_{uv},$$
$$\varphi_{wu}(x) = (r_{\frac{2\pi}{7}} \circ g_w^{-1} \circ h \circ g_u)(x), \text{ for all } x \in \Omega_{uw},$$

and

$$\varphi_{vw}(x) = (r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ g_v^{-1} \circ h \circ g_w)(x), \text{ for all } x \in \Omega_{wv}.$$



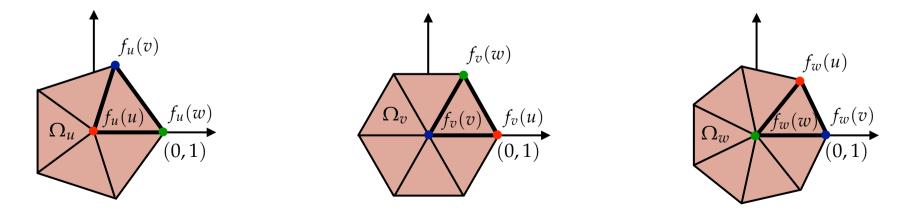
### **Projective Transformations**

We can show that

$$\varphi_{uw}(\Omega_{wu}\cap\Omega_{wv})=\Omega_{uv}\cap\Omega_{uw}.$$

So, the statement "*if*  $\Omega_{wu} \cap \Omega_{wv} \neq \emptyset$  *then*  $\varphi_{uw}(\Omega_{wu} \cap \Omega_{wv}) = \Omega_{uv} \cap \Omega_{uw}$ " holds. But, it is **not** the case that  $\varphi_{vu}(x) = (\varphi_{vw} \circ \varphi_{wu})(x)$ , for all  $x \in \Omega_{uw} \cap \Omega_{uv}$ . For instance, pick

$$x=(0.5,0.5)\in\left(\Omega_{uv}\cap\Omega_{uw}\right).$$



### **Projective Transformations**

Indeed,

 $\varphi_{vu}(0.5, 0.5) = (0.207988, 0.227109),$ 

while

$$(\varphi_{vw} \circ \varphi_{wu})(0.5, 0.5) = (0.363339, 0.433479).$$

It is worth noticing that map  $g_u$  is a  $C^{\infty}$ -diffeomorphism of the plane. Furthermore, it maps  $\overset{\circ}{Q}_{uv}$  onto  $\overset{\circ}{Q}$ , the canonical quadrilateral. But, the cocycle condition does not hold.

As a matter of fact, the map  $g_u$  does not satisfy  $(g_u \circ r_{\frac{2\pi}{n_u}} \circ g_u^{-1})(x) = r_{\frac{\pi}{3}}$ , for  $q \in g_u(\Omega_u)$ .

The map  $g_u$  does not satisfy  $(g_u \circ r_{uw})(x) = (r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ g_u \circ r_{uv})(x)$ , for all  $x \in \Omega_{uv}$  either.

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

We will now consider some elementary functions in one complex variable.

These functions can be viewed as mappings from one plane to the other.

So, we will investigate how they can play the role of the *g* map in our transition functions.

As we shall see, we will not succeed unless we change the geometry of the p-domains.

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Let us recall a few elementary definitions...

A number of the form

z = x + i y,

where *x* and *y* are real numbers and *i* is a number such that  $i^2 = -1$  is called a *complex number*. The number *i* is called the *imaginary unit*, and the numbers *x* and *y* are called the real part and the imaginary part of *z*, denoted by Re(z) and Im(z), respectively.

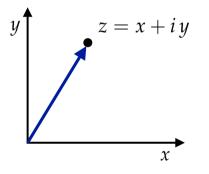
A complex number z = x + iy is uniquely defined determined by an *ordered pair* of real numbers, (x, y). The first and second entries of the ordered pairs correspond to the real and imaginary parts of z. Conversely, z = x + iy uniquely determines (x, y).

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Since (x, y) can be interpreted as the components of a vector, a complex number

z = x + i y

can be viewed as a vector whose initial point is the origin and whose terminal point is (x, y).



The above coordinate plane is called the *complex plane* or simply the *z-plane*. The horizontal or *x*-axis is called the *real axis* and the vertical or *y*-axis is called the *imaginary axis*.

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

The *modulus* or *absolute value* of z = x + iy, denoted by |z|, is the real number

$$|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \,.$$

A point (x, y) in rectangular coordinates has the polar description,  $(r, \theta)$ , where x, y, r, and  $\theta$  are related by  $x = r \cdot \cos(\theta)$  and  $y = r \cdot \sin(\theta)$ . Thus, a nonzero complex number,

$$z = x + i y$$
,

can be written as

$$z = r \cdot \cos(\theta) + i r \cdot \sin(\theta) = r \cdot (\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)),$$

which is the *polar form* of the complex number *z*. The angle  $\theta$  is the *argument*, arg(z), of *z*.

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

The polar form can be extremely convenient for certain operations on complex numbers.

If

$$z_1 = r_1 \cdot (\cos(\theta_1) + i \sin(\theta_1))$$
 and  $z_2 = r_2 \cdot (\cos(\theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_2))$ 

are any two complex numbers, then the complex numbers  $z_1 \cdot z_2$  and  $\frac{z_1}{z_2}$  are equal to

$$z_1 \cdot z_2 = r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdot \left( \cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \, \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2) \right)$$

and

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} \cdot \left( \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \right).$$

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Also, for any integer *n* and for any complex number  $z = r \cdot (\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$ , we get

$$z^n = r^n \cdot (\cos(n \cdot \theta) + i \sin(n \cdot \theta)),$$

the *n*<sup>th</sup> power,  $z^n$ , of z. In particular, when  $z = cos(\theta) + i sin(\theta)$ , we have |z| = r = 1 and

$$(\cos(n \cdot \theta) + i \sin(n \cdot \theta))^n = \cos(n \cdot \theta) + i \sin(n \cdot \theta).$$

#### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

If z = x + i y is a complex number, then

$$e^{z} = e^{x+iy} = e^{x} \cdot \left(\cos(y) + i\,\sin(y)\right)$$

is the *exponential* of *z*. Note that  $e^z$  reduces to  $e^x$  when y = 0. Moreover, if  $z = r \cdot (\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$  is the polar form of the complex number *z*, then we have that  $z = r \cdot e^{i\theta}$ , as

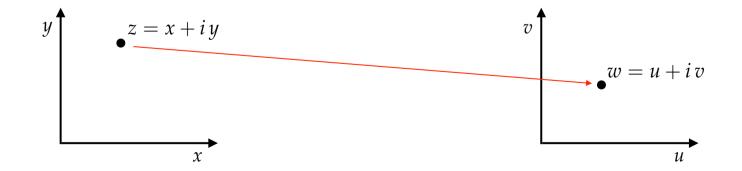
$$e^{i\theta} = e^0 \cdot \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta) = \cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta)$$
.

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

A function *f* defined on a set of complex numbers is called a function of a complex variable *z* or a complex function. The image *w* of *z* will be some complex number, u + iv, i.e.,

$$w = f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y),$$

where *u* and *v* are the imaginary parts of *w* and are real-valued functions. Obviously, we cannot draw the graph of the complex function w = f(z) with less than four axes. However, we can interpret *f* as a mapping or transformation from the *z*-plane to the *w*-plane.



#### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

For the function

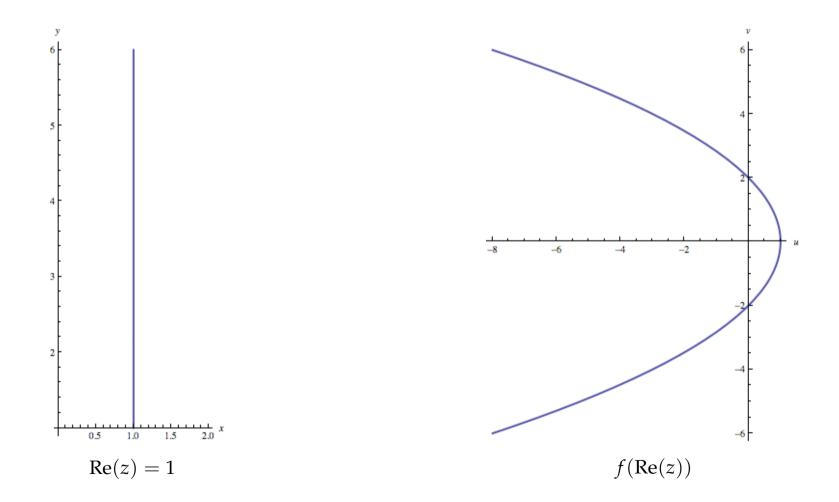
$$f(z) = z^2,$$

the image of the line Re(z) = 1 is a curve. Indeed, if we write z as = x + iy, then

$$z^{2} = (x^{2} - y^{2}) + i \, 2xy \Longrightarrow f(z) = u(x, y) + i \, v(x, y) \,,$$

with  $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$  and v(x, y) = 2xy. Since Re(z) = 1, substituting x = 1 into u and v, we get  $u = 1 - y^2$  and v = 2y. These parametric equations of a curve in the w-plane.

**Complex Functions as Mappings** 



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

In general, if z(t) = x(t) + iy(t), with  $a \le t \le b$ , describes a curve *C* is the *z*-plane, then w = f(z(t)) is a parametric representation of the corresponding curve, *C'*, in the *w*-plane.

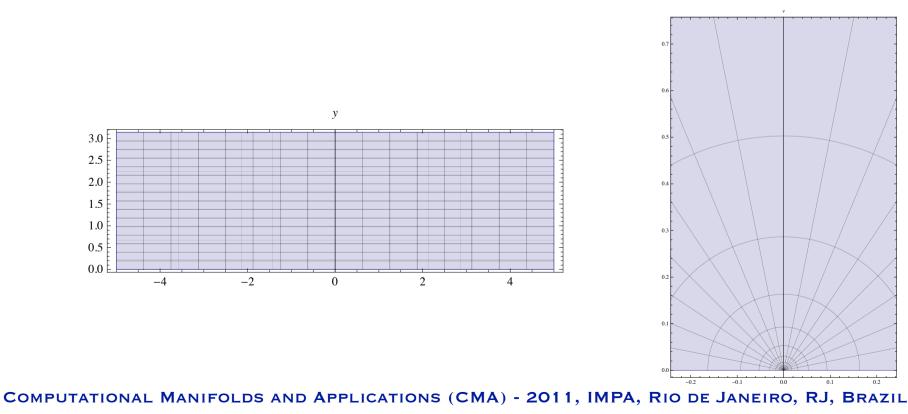
Now, let us see some elementary maps.

The mapping  $f(z) = e^{z}$ :

Recall that if z = x + iy then  $f(z) = e^z = e^x \cdot (\cos(y) + i \sin(y))$ .

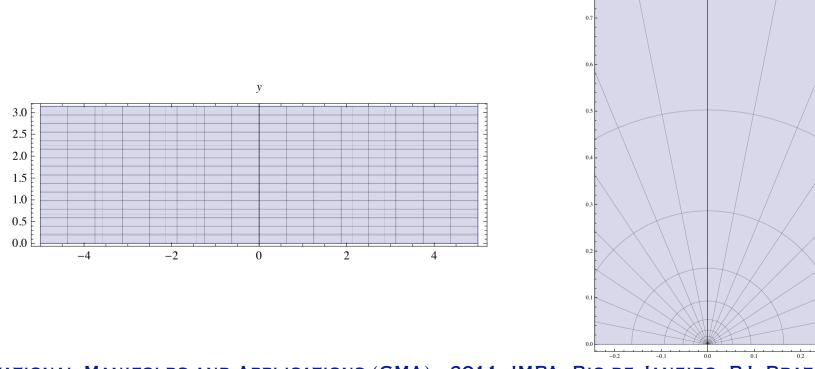
### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

A vertical line segment x = a in the upper half of the *z*-plane can be described by the curve z(t) = a + it, for  $0 \le t \le \pi$ . So, we get  $f(z(t)) = e^a \cdot e^{it}$ . This means that the image of the line segment z(t) is a semi-circle with center at w = a and with radius  $r = e^a$ .



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Similarly, a horizontal line y = b can be parametrized by z(t) = t + ib, with  $-\infty < t < \infty$ , and so  $f(z(t)) = e^t \cdot e^{ib}$ . Since  $\arg(w) = b$  and  $|w| = e^t$ , the image is a ray emanating from the origin. Because  $0 \le \arg(z) \le \pi$ , the image of the entire horizontal strip,  $\{x + iy \mid -\infty \le x \le \infty \text{ and } 0 \le y \le \pi\}$ , is the upper half-plane  $v \ge 0$ .



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#### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Unlike the real function  $e^x$ , the complex function  $f(z) = e^z$  is **periodic** with the complex period  $i2\pi$ . Indeed, since  $e^{i2\pi} = \cos(2\pi) + i\sin(2\pi) = 1$ , we must have that

$$e^{z+i2\pi}=e^z\cdot e^{i2\pi}=e^z$$
 ,

for all *z*. So,

$$f(z+i2\pi)=f(z)\,.$$

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

The elementary function  $f(z) = z + z_0$  may be interpreted as a translation in the *z*-plane.

In turn, the elementary function  $g(z) = e^{i\theta_0} \cdot z$  may be interpreted as a rotation through  $\theta_0$  degrees. Indeed, if we let z be the complex number  $z = r \cdot e^{i\theta_0}$ , then we get

$$w = g(z) = r \cdot e^{i(\theta + \theta_0)}$$

Finally, if the complex mapping

$$h(z) = e^{i\theta_0} \cdot z + z_0$$

is applied to a region *R* that is centered at the origin, then the image region *R'* may be obtained by first rotating *R* through  $\theta_0$  degrees and then translating the center to  $z_0$ .

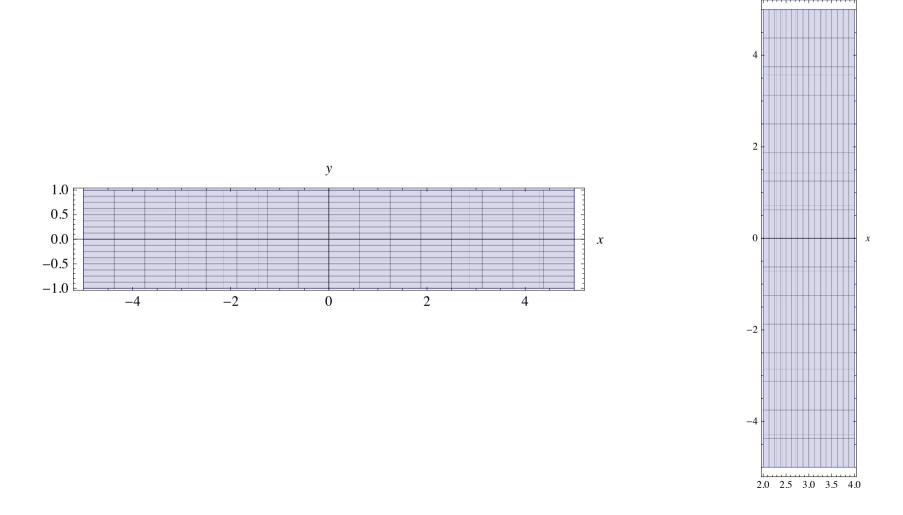
### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

For instance,

h(z) = i z + 3

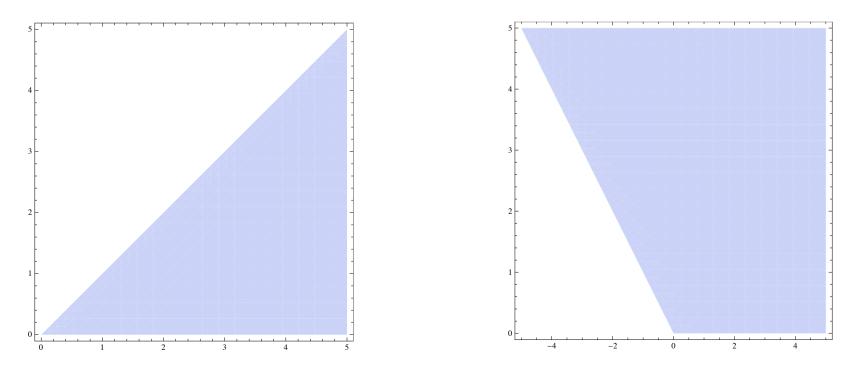
maps the horizontal strip  $-1 \le y \le 1$  onto the vertical strip  $2 \le x \le 4$ . Indeed, if the horizontal strip  $-1 \le x \le 1$  is rotated through 90° (i.e.,  $e^{i\pi/2} = i$ ), then the vertical  $-1 \le x \le 1$  results. Finally, a translation of 3 units to the right yields the vertical strip  $2 \le x \le 4$ .

**Complex Functions as Mappings** 



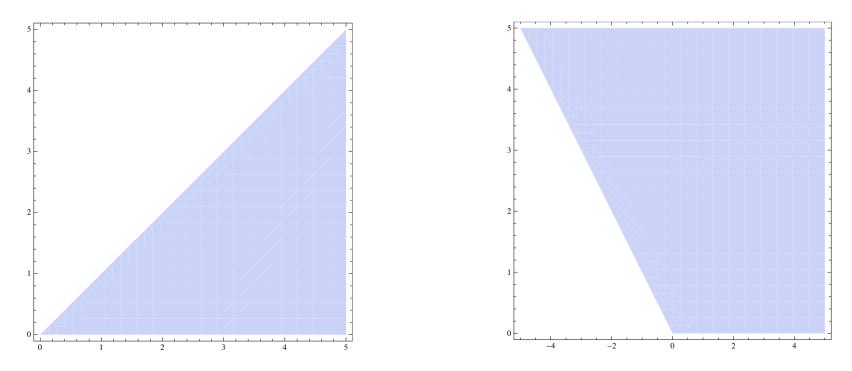
### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

A complex function of the form  $f(z) = z^{\alpha}$ , where  $\alpha$  is a fixed positive *real* number, is called a real power function. If  $z = r \cdot e^{i\theta}$ , then  $w = f(z) = r^{\alpha} \cdot e^{i\alpha \cdot \theta}$ . Since  $0 \le \arg(w) \le \alpha \cdot \theta_0$ , function f opens or contracts the wedge  $0 \le \arg(z) \le \theta_0$  by a factor of  $\alpha$ .



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

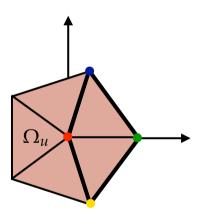
We can show that a circular arc with center at the origin is mapped by  $f(z) = z^{\alpha}$  onto a similar circular arc, and that rays emanating from the origin are mapped by f to similar rays.



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### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Now, let us consider a *p*-domain,  $\Omega_u$ , where *u* is a vertex of  $\mathcal{K}$  such that  $n_u = 5$ .



By definition,

$$r_{uv}(Q_{uv}) = \left[ (0,0), \left( \cos\left(-\frac{2\pi}{5}\right), \sin\left(-\frac{2\pi}{5}\right) \right), (1,0), \left( \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{5}\right), \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{5}\right) \right) \right]$$

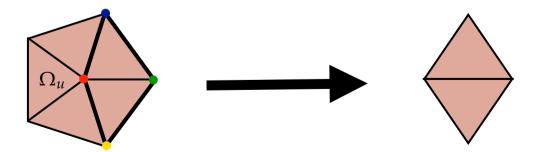
### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

What is the image of  $r_{uv}(Q_{uv})$  under the map  $f(z) = z^{\alpha}$ , where  $\alpha = \frac{5}{6}$ ?

Note that

$$f(0+i0) = 0$$
,  $f(1+i0) = 1$ ,  $f\left(e^{i\left(-\frac{2\pi}{5}\right)}\right) = e^{i\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}$ , and  $f\left(e^{i\frac{2\pi}{5}}\right) = e^{i\frac{\pi}{3}}$ .

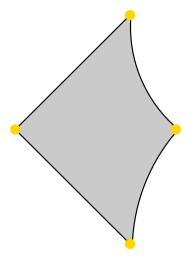
Is that the case that  $f(r_{uv}(Q_{uv})) = Q$ ?



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

#### Unfortunately, NO!

The region  $f(r_{uv}(Q_{uv}))$  will look like the picture below:



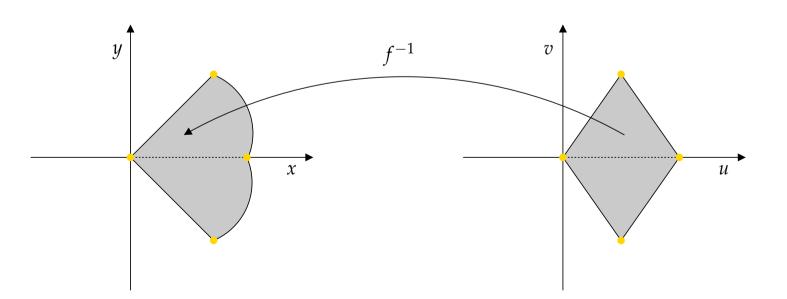
This is because  $f(z) = z^{\alpha}$  scales the modulus of  $z = r \cdot (\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$ : *r* becomes  $r^{\alpha}$ .

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### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

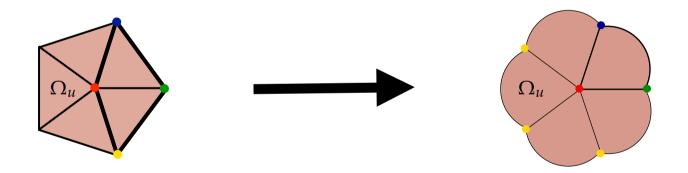
However, if we consider replacing our *p*-domains by "curved" *p*-domains, then we can make the *f* maps works in our favor. The idea is to let  $r_{uv}(Q_{uv})$  be the image of *Q* under

$$f^{-1}(w) = w^{\frac{6}{5}} = r^{\frac{6}{5}} \cdot \left( \cos\left(\frac{6}{5} \cdot \theta\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{6}{5} \cdot \theta\right) \right), \text{ for all } w \in Q.$$

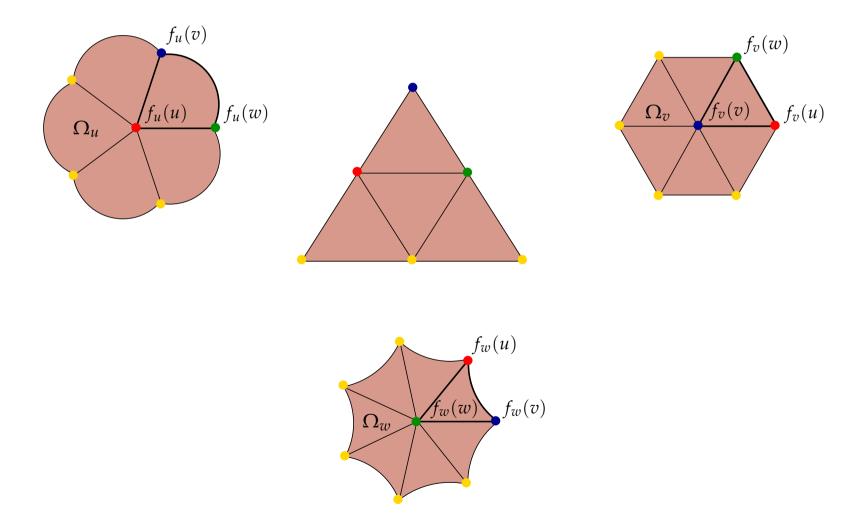


### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

The picture below illustrates the shape of the *p*-domain  $\Omega_u$  (left) obtained by applying  $f^{-1}$  to *Q* and then rotating  $f^{-1}(Q)$  around the origin. The result is a "curved" *p*-domain (right).



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

So,

$$g_u(x,y) = (\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_u \circ \Pi)(x,y),$$

where

$$\Pi: \mathbb{E}^2 - \{(0,0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \times ] - \pi, \pi [$$

is the map that converts Cartesian coordinates to polar coordinates,  $\Pi(x, y) = (r, \theta)$ , and

$$\Gamma_u: \mathbb{R}_+ \times ] - \pi, \pi [ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \times ] - \pi, \pi [$$

is the map

$$\Gamma_u(r,\theta) = \left(r^{\frac{n_u}{6}}, \frac{n_u}{6} \cdot \theta\right) \,.$$

The map  $\Pi$  is a  $C^{\infty}$ -diffeomorphism. So, working with polar coordinates is fine as well.

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Note that the previous *g* maps are defined in  $\mathbb{E}^2 - \{(0,0)\}$ . The fact that (0,0) does not belong to the domain of *g* is not a problem, as (0,0) is not part of a gluing domain, except when the gluing domain is the *p*-domain itself. But, in this case, the transition map is defined as the identity map, rather than in terms of the *g* maps. So, we are safe!

Indeed, for every  $(u, w) \in K$ ,

$$arphi_{wu}:\Omega_{uw} o\Omega_{wu}$$
 ,

where

$$\varphi_{wu}(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } u = w, \\ (r_{wu}^{-1} \circ g_w^{-1} \circ h \circ g_u \circ r_{uw})(x) & \text{if } u \neq w, \end{cases}$$

for every  $x \in \Omega_{uw}$ .

#### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Let *q* be a point in *Q* (the *canonical quadrilateral*). If  $(s, \beta)$  are the polar coordinates of *q*, then

$$\begin{split} g_{u} \circ r_{\frac{2\pi}{n_{u}}} \circ g_{u}^{-1})(q) &= (\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_{u} \circ \Pi \circ r_{\frac{2\pi}{n_{u}}} \circ \Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_{u}^{-1} \circ \Pi)(q) \\ &= (\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_{u} \circ \Pi \circ r_{\frac{2\pi}{n_{u}}} \circ \Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_{u}^{-1})(s,\beta) \\ &= (\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_{u} \circ \Pi \circ r_{\frac{2\pi}{n_{u}}} \circ \Pi^{-1}) \left(s^{\frac{6}{n_{u}}}, \frac{6}{n_{u}} \cdot \beta\right) \\ &= (\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_{u}) \left(s^{\frac{6}{n_{u}}}, \frac{6}{n_{u}} \cdot \beta + \frac{2\pi}{n_{u}}\right) \\ &= \Pi^{-1} \left(\left(s^{\frac{6}{n_{u}}}\right)^{\frac{n_{u}}{6}}, \frac{n_{u}}{6} \cdot \left(\frac{6}{n_{u}} \cdot \beta + \frac{2\pi}{n_{u}}\right)\right) \\ &= \Pi^{-1} \left(s, \beta + \frac{\pi}{3}\right) \\ &= r_{\frac{\pi}{3}}(q) \,. \end{split}$$

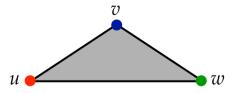
### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

Let *p* be a point in  $\Omega_u - \{(0,0)\}$ .

If  $(t, \alpha)$  are the polar coordinates of p and if  $-\theta$  is the angle of rotation of  $r_{uw}$ , then

$$(t, \alpha - \theta)$$
 and  $\left(t, \alpha - \theta - \frac{2\pi}{n_u}\right)$ 

are the polar coordinates of  $r_{uw}(p)$  and  $r_{uv}(p)$ , respectively, as we assumed (in our example) that *w* precedes *v* in a counterclockwise enumeration of the vertices of  $lk(u, \mathcal{K})$ .



### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

 $(g_u \circ r_{uw})(p) = (\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_u \circ \Pi \circ r_{uw})(p)$ =  $(\Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_u)(t, \alpha - \theta)$ =  $(\Pi^{-1})\left(t^{\frac{n_u}{6}}, \frac{n_u}{6} \cdot (\alpha - \theta)\right).$ 

So,

#### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

In turn,

$$(r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ g_u \circ r_{uv})(p) = (r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ \Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_u \circ \Pi \circ r_{uv})(p)$$
  
=  $(r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ \Pi^{-1} \circ \Gamma_u) \left( t, \alpha - \theta - \frac{2\pi}{n_u} \right)$   
=  $(r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ \Pi^{-1}) \left( t^{\frac{n_u}{6}}, \frac{n_u}{6} \cdot \left( \alpha - \theta - \frac{2\pi}{n_u} \right) \right)$   
=  $(r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ \Pi^{-1}) \left( t^{\frac{n_u}{6}}, \frac{n_u}{6} \cdot (\alpha - \theta) - \frac{\pi}{3} \right)$   
=  $\Pi^{-1} \left( t^{\frac{n_u}{6}}, \frac{n_u}{6} \cdot (\alpha - \theta) \right)$   
=  $(g_u \circ r_{uw})(p)$ .

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

So, the  $g_u$  map satisfies the following four conditions:

(1) The  $g_u$  map is a  $C^k$ -diffeomorphism of  $\mathbb{E}^2 - \{(0,0)\}$ , for every  $u \in I$ .

(2) The  $g_u$  map takes  $r_{uw}(\Omega_{uw})$  onto  $\overset{\circ}{Q}$ , for every  $(u, w) \in K$ .

(3) The 
$$g_u$$
 map satisfies  $(g_u \circ r_{\frac{2\pi}{n_u}} \circ g_u^{-1})(q) = r_{\frac{\pi}{3}}(q)$ , where  $q \in g_u(\Omega_u)$ .

(4) If  $f_u(w)$  precedes  $f_u(v)$  in a counterclockwise enumeration of the vertices of  $lk(u, \mathcal{K})$ , then  $(g_u \circ r_{uw})(p) = (r_{\frac{\pi}{3}} \circ g_u \circ r_{uv})(p)$ , for every point p in the gluing domain  $\Omega_{uw}$ .

### **Complex Functions as Mappings**

We have **not** checked the following assumption:

(5) For all u, v, w such that [u, v, w] is a triangle of  $\mathcal{K}$ , if  $\Omega_{wu} \cap \Omega_{wv} \neq \emptyset$  then

 $\varphi_{uw}(\Omega_{wu}\cap\Omega_{wv})=\Omega_{uv}\cap\Omega_{uw}.$ 

We will also explore that in a homework.