

Conformal transformations

Lecture 10

Conformal transformations are functions on the complex plane that preserve the angles between curves.

Suppose $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ is a curve on the plane. $f(z)$ is differentiable function of z at z_0 . $z = x + iy$ and $\gamma(t_0) = z_0$. The map $f(\gamma) \equiv \tilde{\gamma}(t)$ is a new map.

The tangent vector of $\gamma(t)$ is

$$\frac{d\gamma(t)}{dt} = \left(\frac{dx(t)}{dt}, \frac{dy(t)}{dt} \right)$$

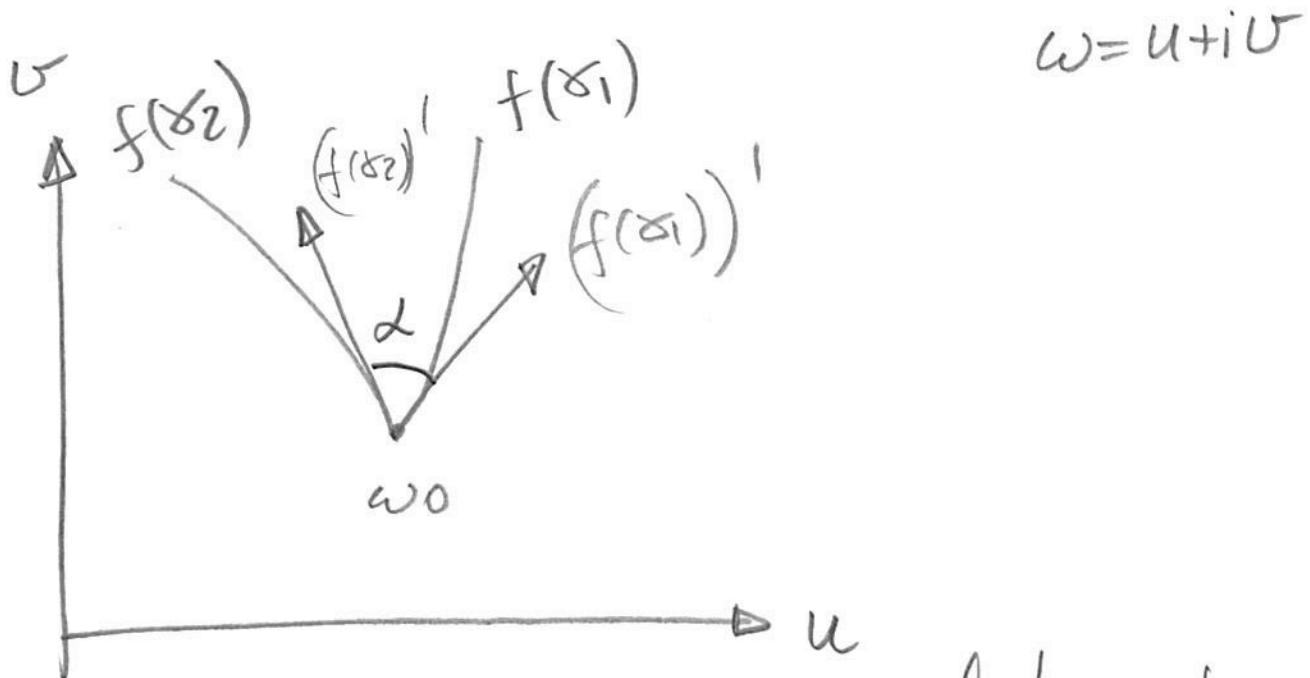
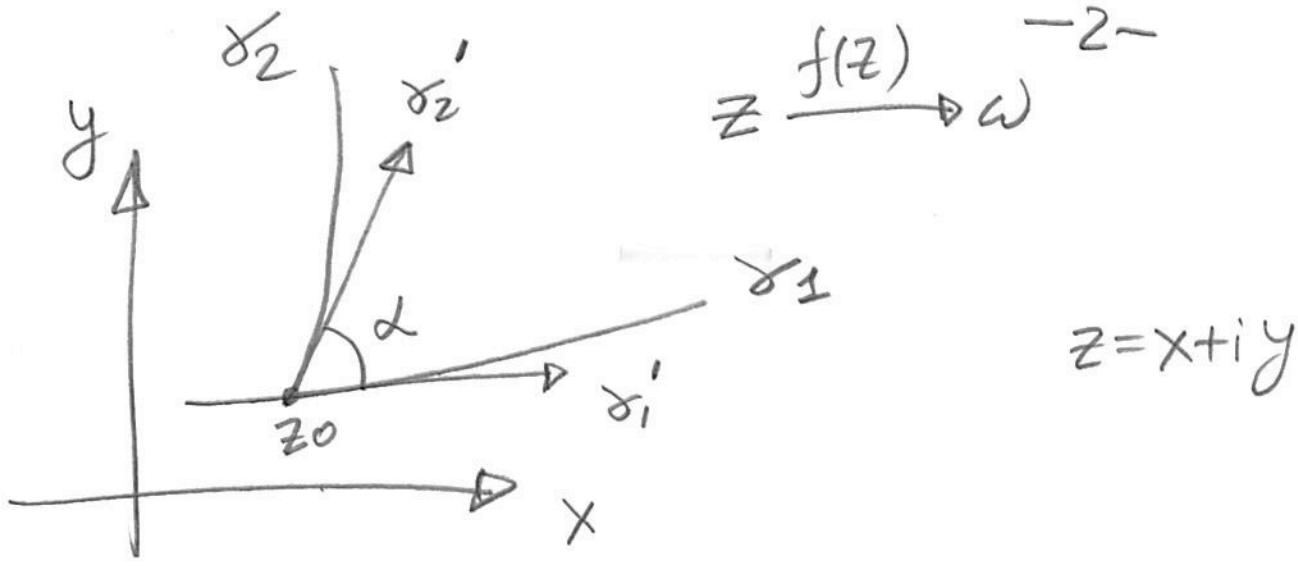
The tangent vector of the new map $\tilde{\gamma}$

$$\frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} f(\gamma(t)) = \frac{df}{dz} \frac{d\gamma}{dt} =$$

$$= \frac{df}{dz} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} + i \frac{dy}{dt} \right)$$

The components of the tangent vector are

$$\left(\frac{df}{dz} \frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{df}{dz} \frac{dy}{dt} \right)$$



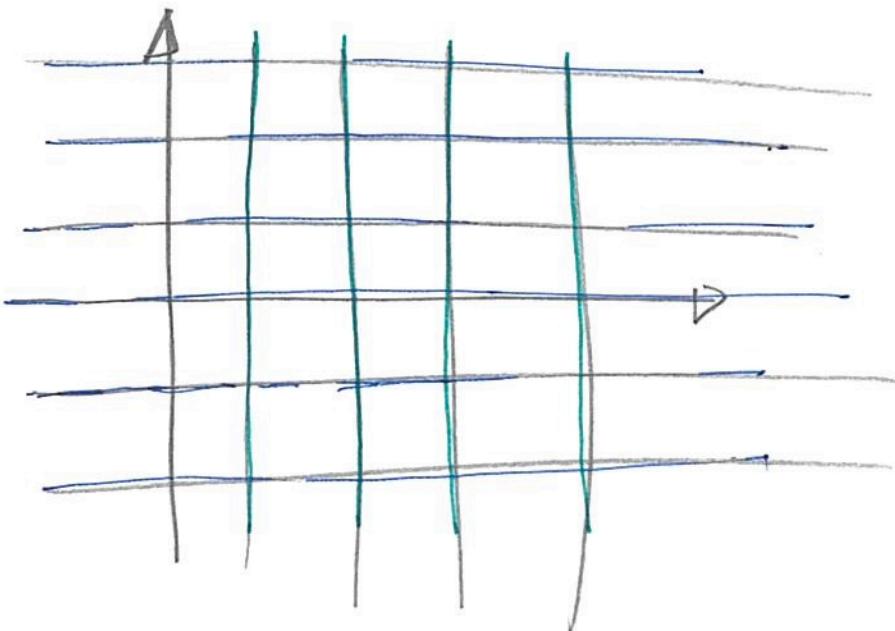
The function $f(z)$ is conformal at z if tangent vector of any smooth curve at z is rotated by the same angle and scaled by the same scalar.

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Example of conformal map

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

Look on the grid



$$z = x + ih$$

$$f(z) = z^2 = (x+ih)^2 = x^2 + 2ixh - h^2 =$$

$$= x^2 - h^2 + 2inx$$

$$u = x^2 - h^2$$

$$v = 2nx$$

$$u = (2nx)^2 \frac{1}{4h^2} - h^2 = \frac{v^2}{4h^2} - h^2$$

blue
lines

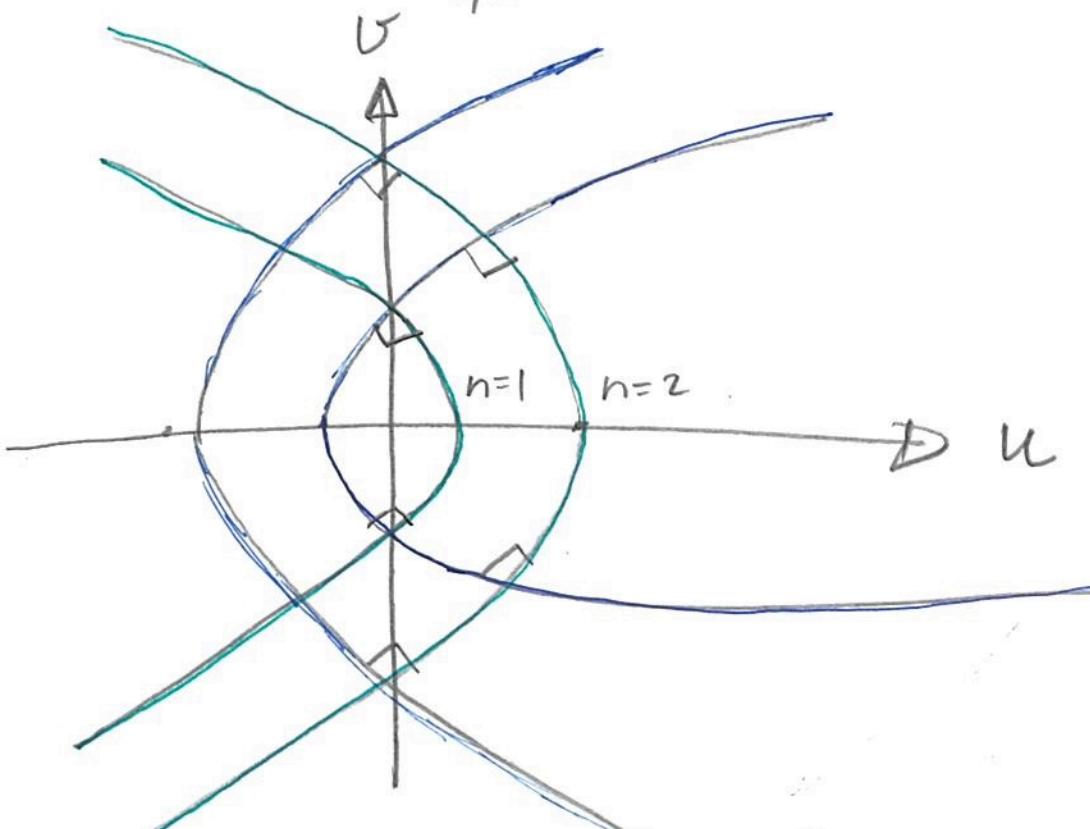
$z = n + iy$ green lines -4-

$$f(z) = z^2 = (n+iy)^2 = n^2 - y^2 + 2iny$$

$$u = n^2 - y^2$$

$$v = 2ny$$

$$u = n^2 - \frac{(2ny)^2}{4n^2} = n^2 - \frac{v^2}{4n^2}$$



grid lines remain perpendicular

Tangent vectors

$$\gamma'(t) = (x'(t), y'(t)) \leftrightarrow x'(t) + i y'(t)$$

complex representation

of a vector

Thus tangent vector is a complex number

in plane

Therefore the conformal transformation
that rotates and scales the vector is
just a multiplication by a complex
number $|a| e^{i\phi}$ rotation angle

scale

All analytic functions are conformal.

Proof. $\gamma(t) \mapsto f(\gamma(t))$

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} f(\gamma(t)) \right|_{t=t_0} = f'(\gamma(t_0)) \gamma'(t_0) = f'(z_0) \gamma'(t_0)$$

but $f'(z_0)$ is a complex number

$$f'(z_0) = |f'(z_0)| e^{i \operatorname{Arg} f'(z_0)}$$

therefore

it is conformal.

Simplest example of conformal map
is a constant map

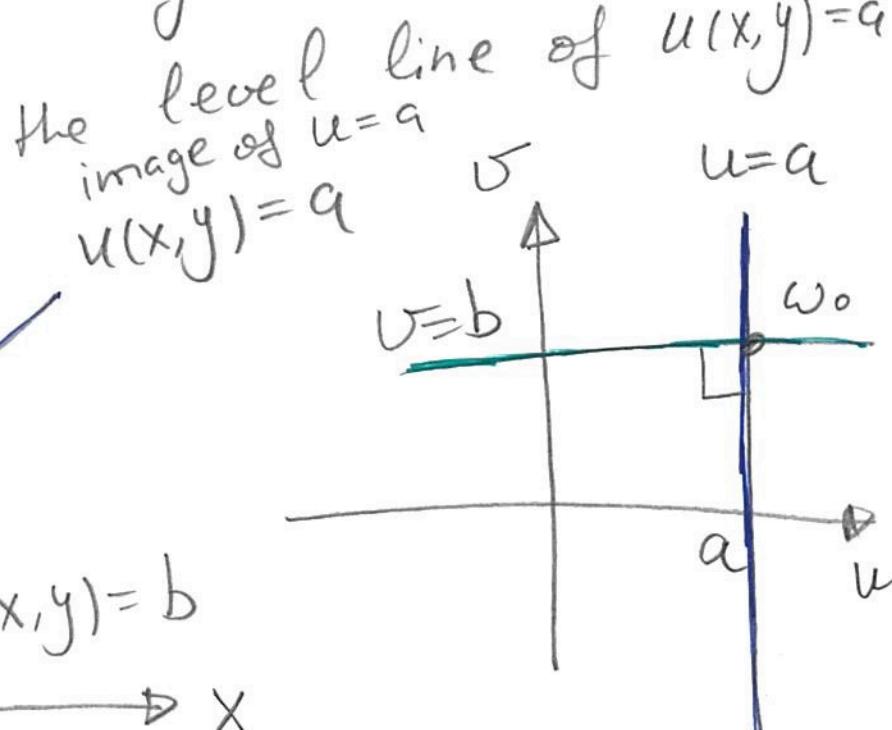
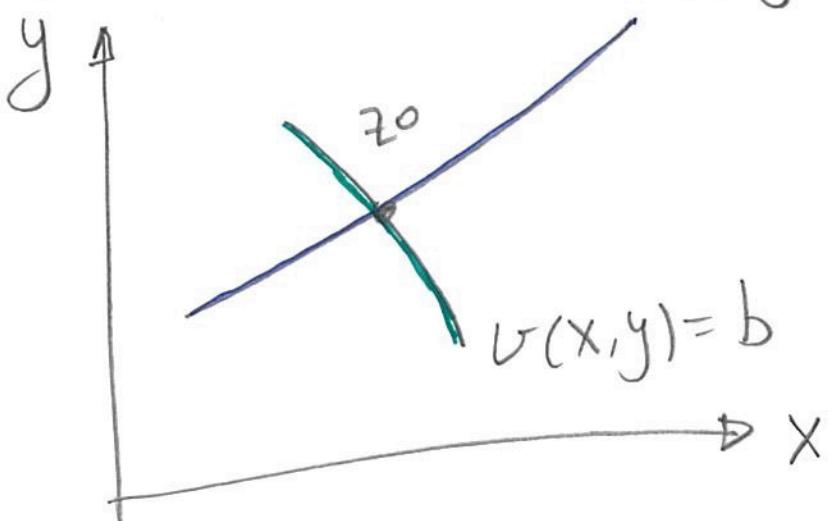
$$f(z) = c \cdot z$$

Digression to harmonic functions.

If u and v are harmonic conjugates
and $g = u + iv$ has $g'(z_0) \neq 0$ then
the levels of u and v are orthogonal.

We have already shown this via Cauchy-Riemann
equations. Here we ~~repeat this theorem~~
rederive this result using the idea of conformal
maps.

Let us consider



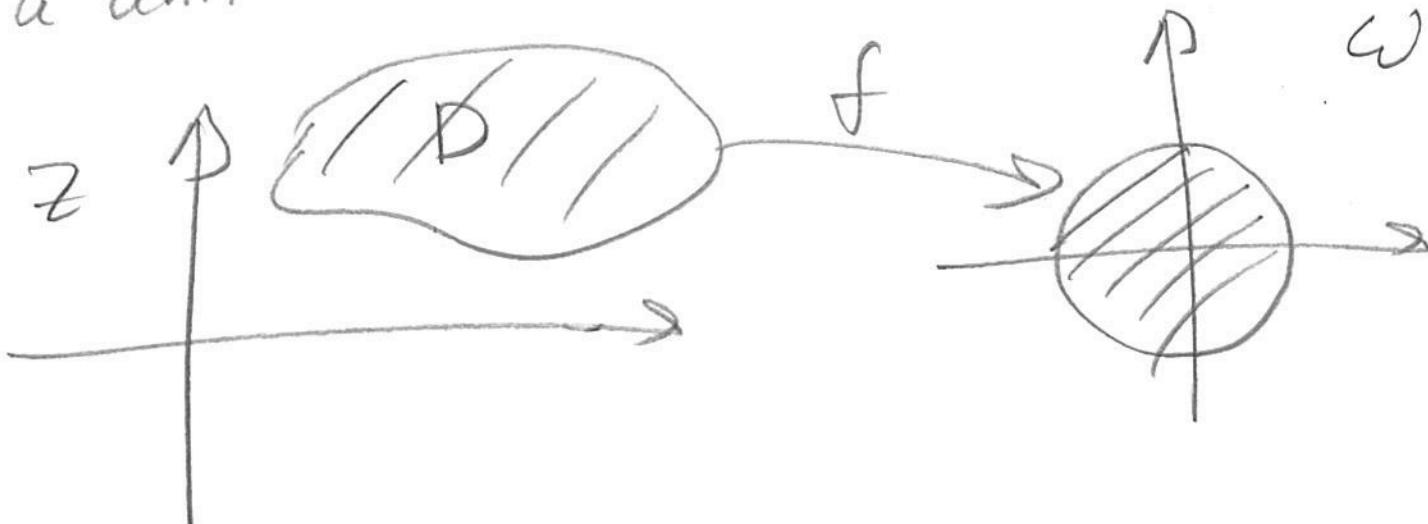
$$f(z_0) = w_0$$

this are
orthogonal

Since the map $g(x,y)$ is conformal
the angle between the curves is
preserved. Therefore the level lines
are orthogonal.

Riemann mapping theorem
[Very fundamental in math.]

Any two simple connected domains [other than the entire plane]
on the complex plane can be
conformally mapped to each other.
For example, any simply connected domain [other than the
entire plane] can be mapped onto
a unit disk



Fractional linear transformations

$$T(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$$

These are the Möbius transformations we discussed in the context of Riemann sphere. We have interpreted them as rotations of the sphere. Naturally, the angles were preserved. That is why they are globally conformal (on the entire plane). Let us look at one particular example.

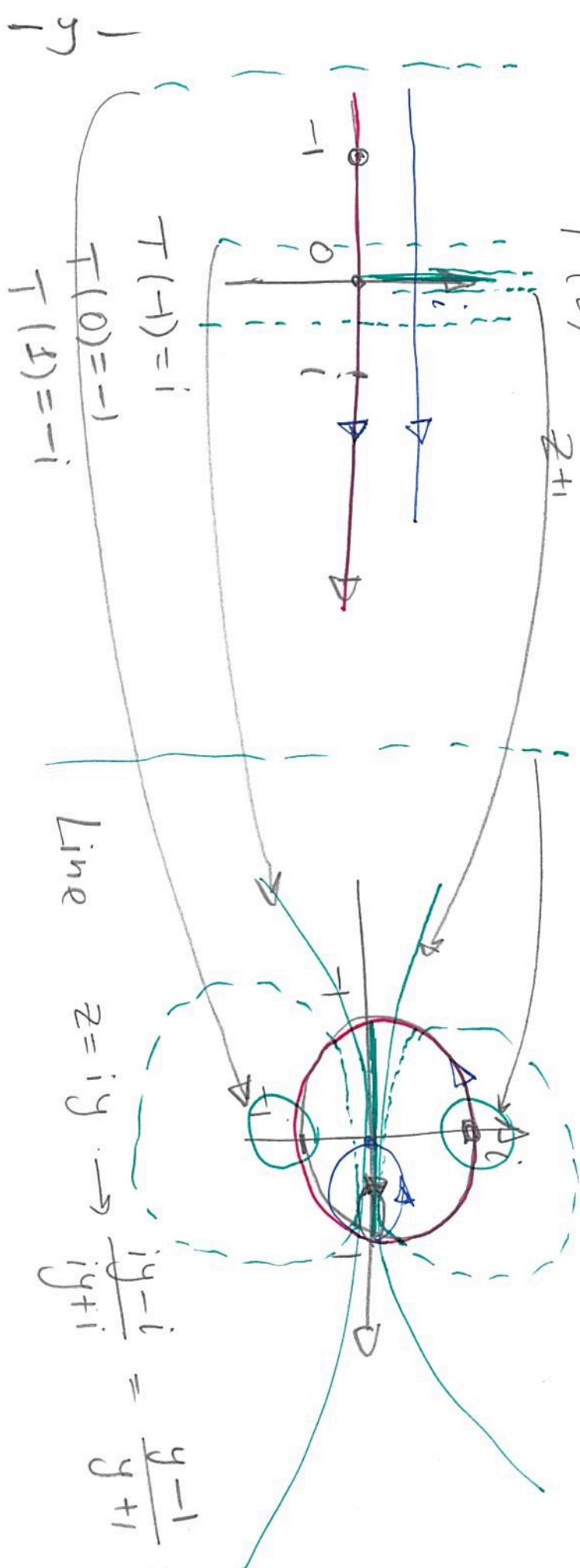
$$T(z) = \frac{z-i}{z+i}$$

and draw it in details. ~~conformally~~
We show that it maps ~~the upper~~ half plane to the interior of a unit circle (unit disk).

~~The half plane is mapped by~~

half plane to the unit circle

$$T(z) = \frac{z-i}{z+i}$$



$$\rho_1 - \frac{y_1 + i}{x_1 + iy_1 - i} = \frac{iy_1 - i}{iy_1 + i} = \frac{y_1 - 1}{y_1 + 1} = [E^{-1}, 1]$$

Line

$$z = x + iy$$

$$\rho_1 - \frac{y_1 + i}{x_1 + iy_1 - i}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(-i) &= i \\ T(0) &= -1 \\ T(i) &= -i \end{aligned}$$

Supplementary to the example 10.50

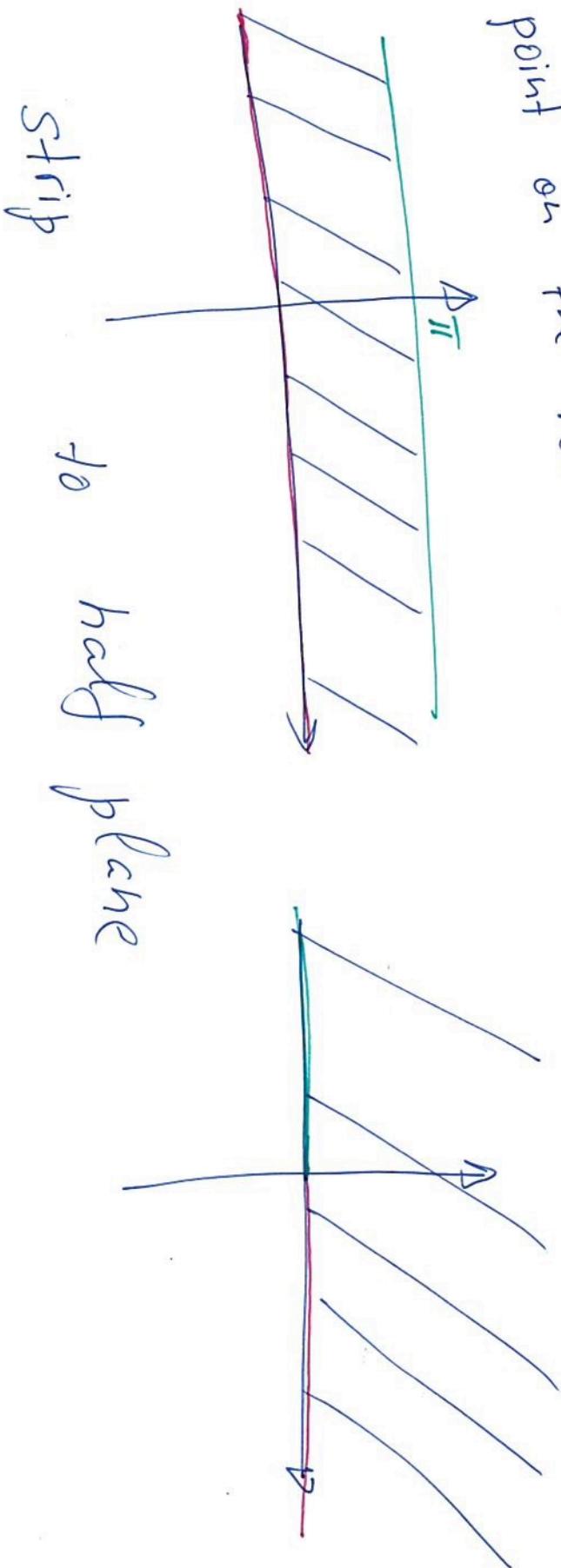
Another Example of conformal map

Strip to half plane

$$f(z) = e^z$$

$$0 < y < \pi$$

point on the real axis are mapped to positive semi axis



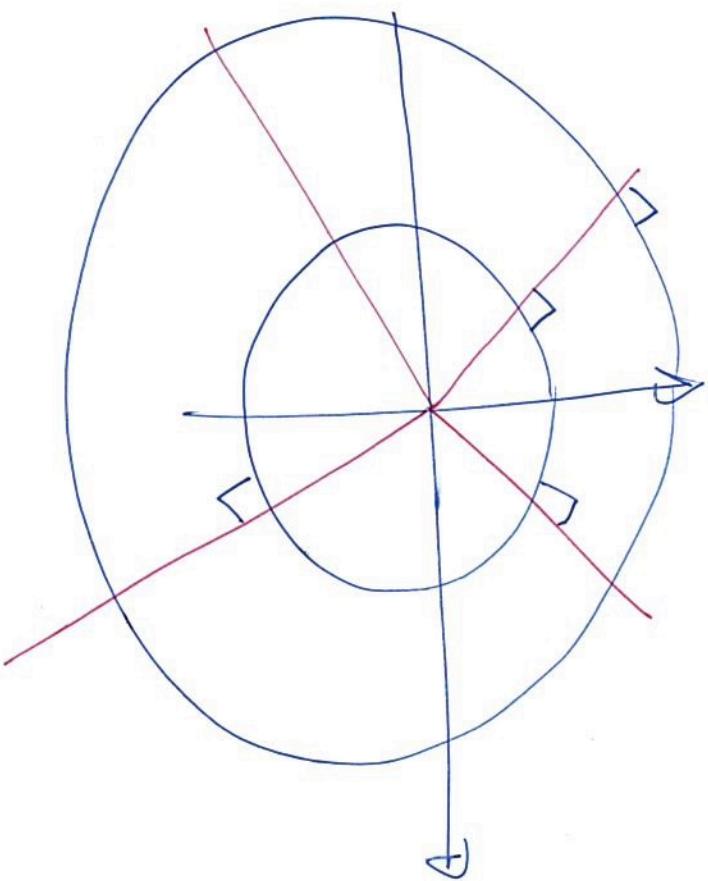
strip to half plane

Lines that forming grid

$$z = x + ia \rightarrow e^{x+ia} = e^x e^{ia}$$

$$z = b + iy \rightarrow e^{b+iy} = e^b (e^{iy} + i \sin y)$$

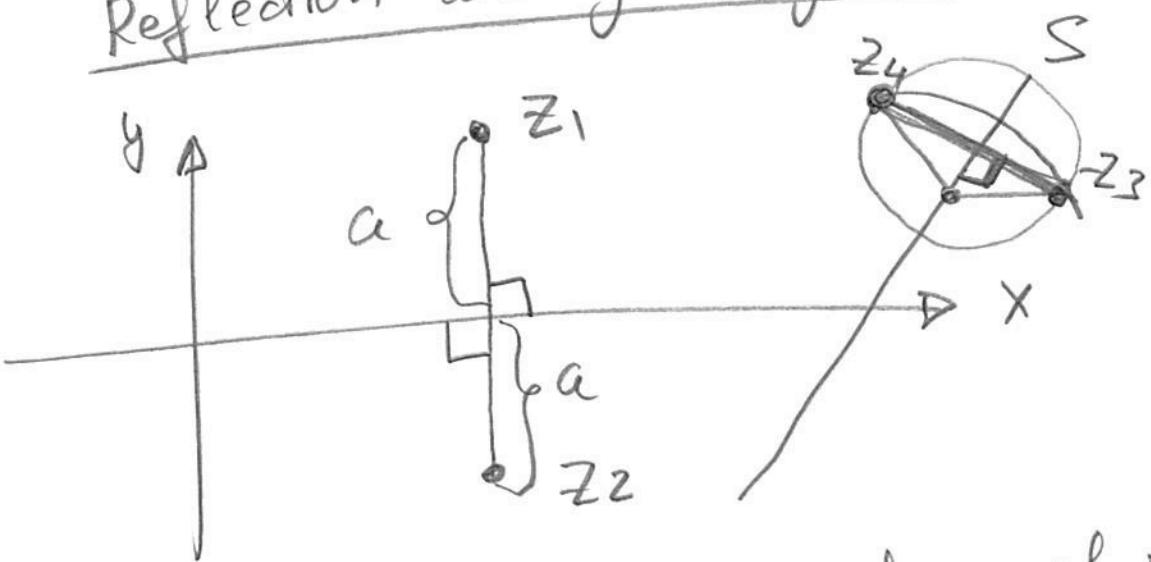
perpendicular



$$\frac{1}{i} = -i$$

Next we consider Reflection and symmetry

Reflection and symmetry in a line



point z_1 is a reflection of the point z_2 in a line x . In other words it is symmetric with respect to x .

The point z_3 and z_4 are symmetric with respect to S .

We now discuss the reflection with respect to a circle.

Note that if two points z_3, z_4 are symmetric with respect to a line S' then any circle through z_3 and z_4 intersects S' orthogonally.

Definition

Suppose S' is a line or a circle.

A pair of points z_1 and z_2 is called symmetric with respect to S' if every line or circle through the points z_1 and z_2 intersect S' orthogonally.

This definition matches a symmetric points with respect to a straight line where both properties hold.

But now it puts lines and circles on the same footing, and actually defines symmetry with respect to circles.

Note, that because ~~conformal transformation~~ Möbius transformation ~~preserves angles~~ maps lines and circles into lines and circles this is quite natural. Moreover, since they preserve angle between curves, point symmetric with respect to a line remain symmetric. $T(z_1)$ and $T(z_2)$ are symmetric with respect to $T(S)$.

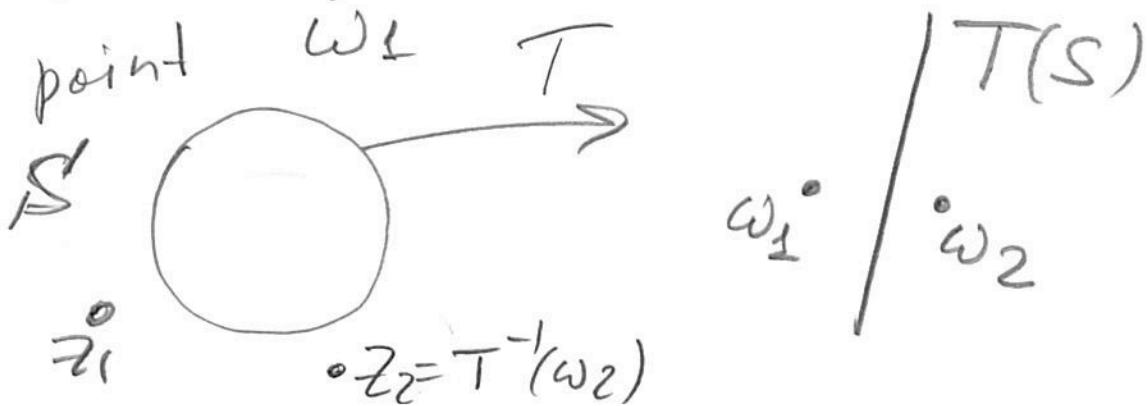
Theorem

Suppose S' is a line or circle and z_1 is a point not on S' .
There is a unique point z_2 such that
the pair z_1, z_2 is symmetric in S' .

Proof. Let T be a fractional linear transformation (Möbius transformation) that maps S' to a line.
(if S' is a line to begin with this is an identity transformation).
Point $z_3 \xrightarrow{T(z_1)} w_1$

$$w_1 = T(z_1)$$

We know from elementary geometry that there is one and only one reflection with respect to a line $T(S')$ of the



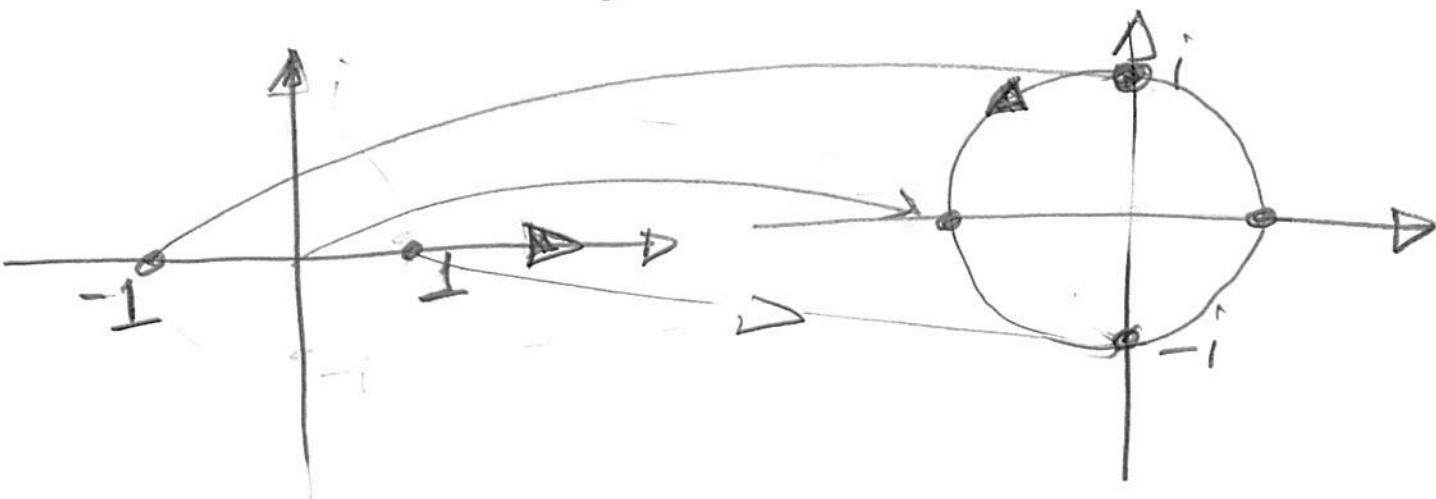
Since transformation T is reversible we can define $z_2 = T^{-1}(w_2)$ as the reflection of z_1 in S .

Let us explore the ^{geometric} meaning of reflection in the circle.

Focus on the unit circle.

The transformation that maps the real axis onto the unit circle is

$$T(z) = \frac{z-i}{z+i}$$



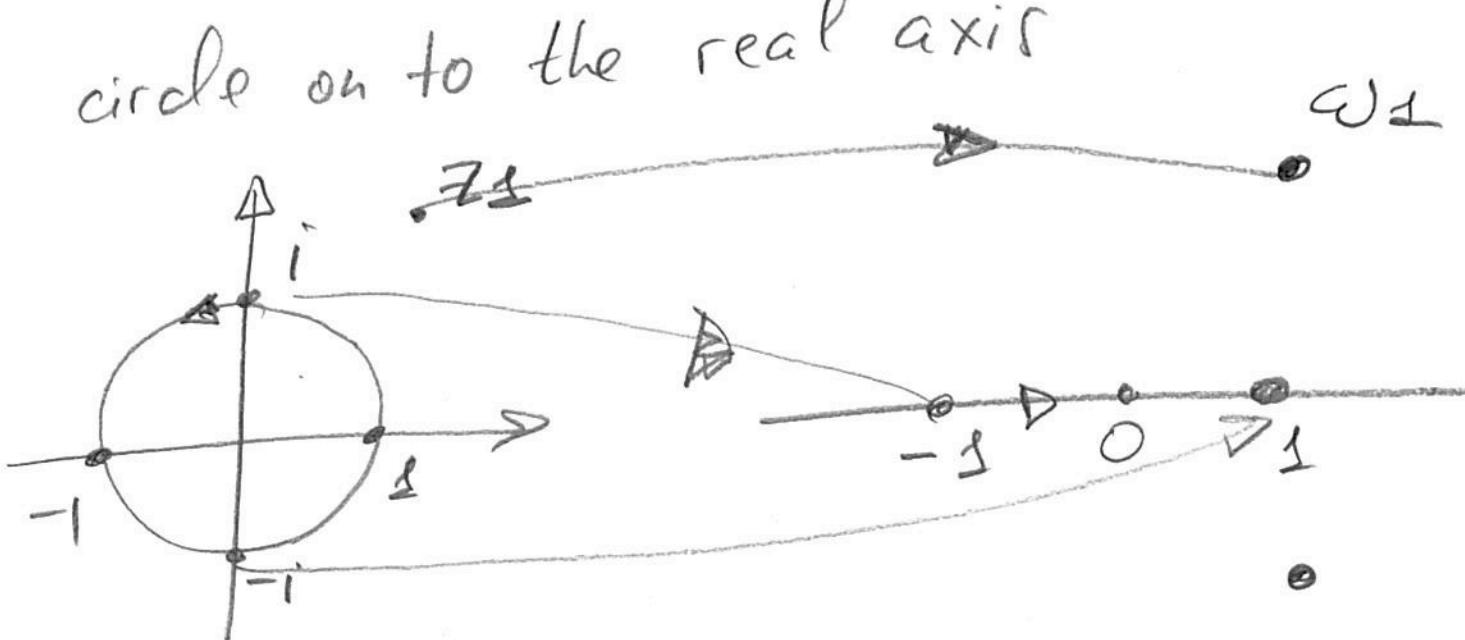
$$T(1) = \frac{1-i}{1+i} = \frac{(1-i)^2}{2} = \frac{1-2i}{2} = -i$$

$$T(-1) = \frac{-1-i}{-1+i} = + \frac{1+i}{1-i} = \frac{1}{-i} = i$$

$$T(0) = -1$$

Therefore we define a transformation

$$T(z) = -i \frac{z+1}{z-1} \quad \text{that maps unit circle on to the real axis}$$



$$T(1) = \infty$$

$$T(-1) = -i \frac{0}{-2} = 0$$

$$T(i) = -i \frac{1+i}{i-1} = \frac{1+i}{-i+1} = -1$$

$$T(-i) = -i \frac{1-i}{-1-i} = \frac{1-i}{i+1} = 1$$

$$\text{The point } z_1 \rightarrow \omega_1 = -i \frac{z_1+1}{z_1-1}$$

The reflection of ω_1 with respect to the real axis is $\omega_2 = \overline{\omega_1} = i \frac{\overline{z_1}+1}{\overline{z_1}-1}$

Therefore the reflection of z_2 with respect to the unit circle

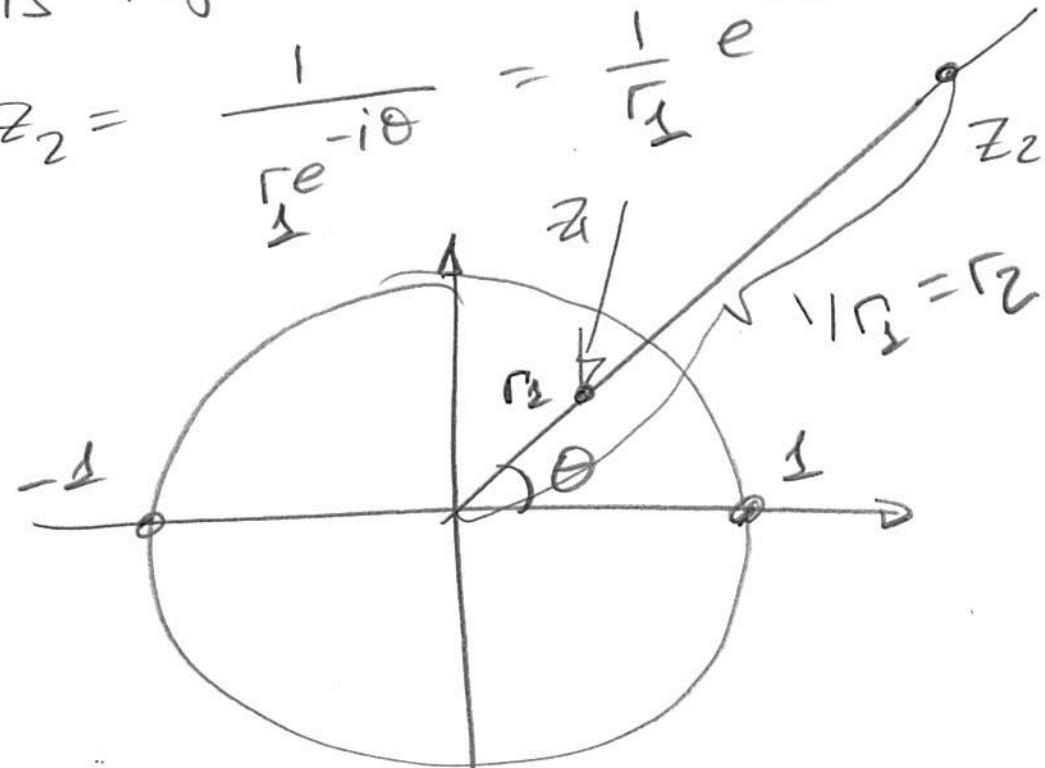
$$z_2 = T^{-1}(\omega_2) = \frac{\omega_2 - i}{\omega_2 + i} =$$

$$= \frac{i \frac{\bar{z}_1 + 1}{\bar{z}_1 - 1} - i}{i \frac{\bar{z}_1 + 1}{\bar{z}_1 - 1} + i} = \frac{(\bar{z}_1 + 1) - (\bar{z}_1 - 1)}{(\bar{z}_1 + 1) + (\bar{z}_1 - 1)} =$$
$$= \frac{2}{2\bar{z}_1} = \frac{1}{\bar{z}_1}$$

$i\theta$

Therefore if the point $z_1 = r e^{i\theta}$
its reflection

$$z_2 = \frac{1}{r e^{-i\theta}} = \frac{1}{r_1} e^{i\theta}$$

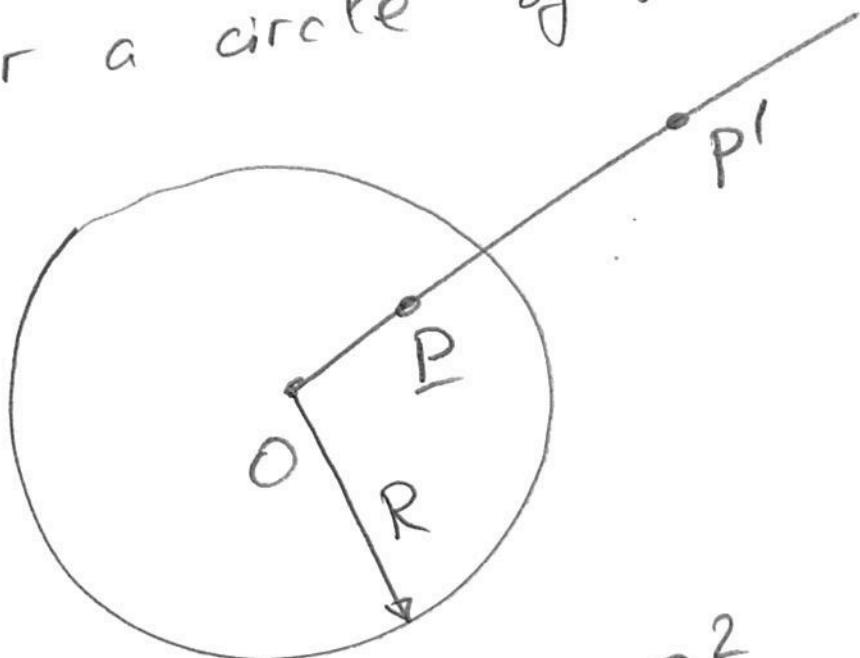


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The reflected point is on the radius vector at the distance

$$r_2 = \frac{1}{r_1} \text{ of the point } z_1$$

In geometry it is called an inverse point. This construction emerges in inversive geometry.
For a circle of the radius R

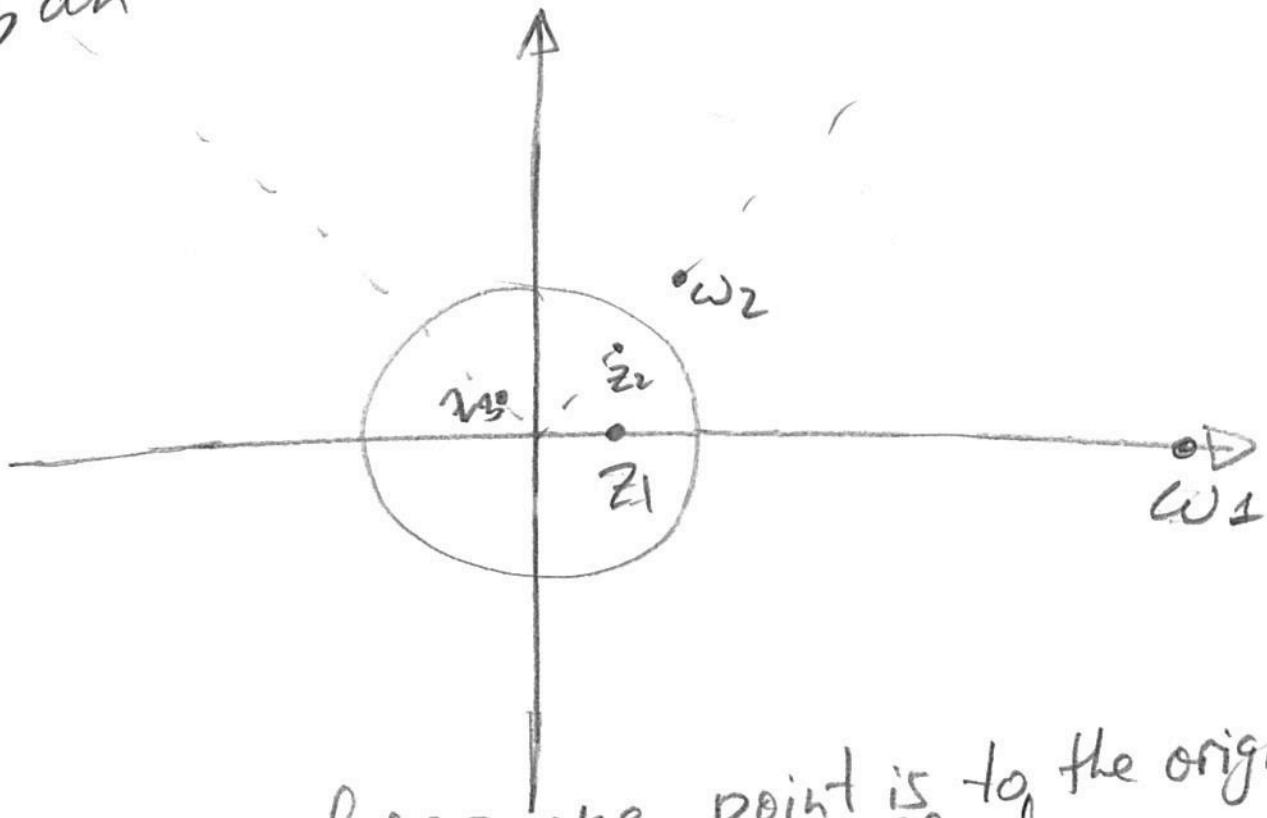


$$OP \cdot OP' = R^2$$

$$|OP'| = \frac{R^2}{|OP|}$$

Inversive geometry is the study of transformations of the Euclidean plane that maps circles or lines into circles or lines that preserve the angles between the crossing lines.

Note that we "discovered" inversive geometry from complex analysis "obviously", the same construction with a unit circle replaced by a circle of a finite radius agrees with an inversion with respect to a circle.



The closer one point is to the origin the further away is its reflection.
Origin maps to ∞ .

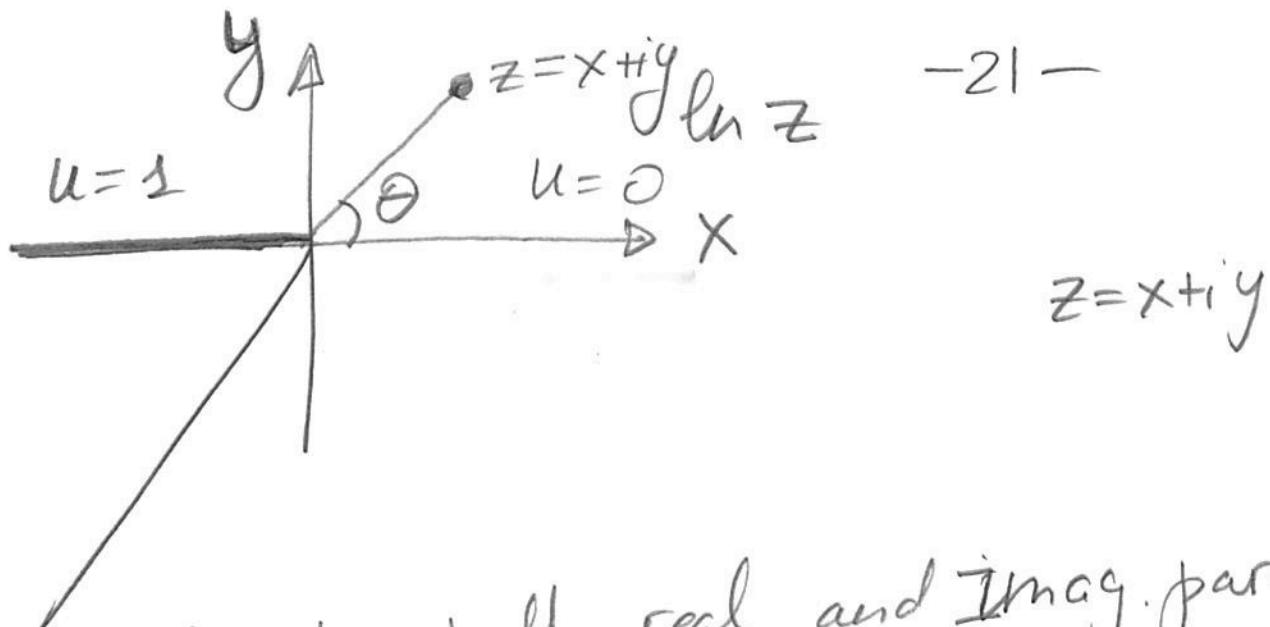
Dirichlet problem for harmonic functions

In general, a Dirichlet problem in a region D is to solve a diff. equation with the boundary conditions posed on the boundary of D , i.e. ∂D .

We will solve the Dirichlet problem for the harmonic function, mapping the region D onto something simple, say upper half plane.

Example . Find a harmonic function $u(x, y)$, $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$ that satisfies the b.c. at $y=0$
 $u(x, y=0) = \theta(x)$

Solution. Function $\log z = \log |z| + i \arg z$ is analytic in the upper half plane [choose the cut into a lower half plane]



By analyticity, both real and imag. parts are harmonic function.

Therefore

$$\operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{1}{i\pi} \ln z \right) = \frac{\arg z}{\pi}$$

if we use standard notations

$$\arg(x > 0) = 0$$

$$\arg(x < 0) = \pi$$

$$u(x, y) = \operatorname{Re} \left(\frac{1}{i\pi} \ln z \right)$$

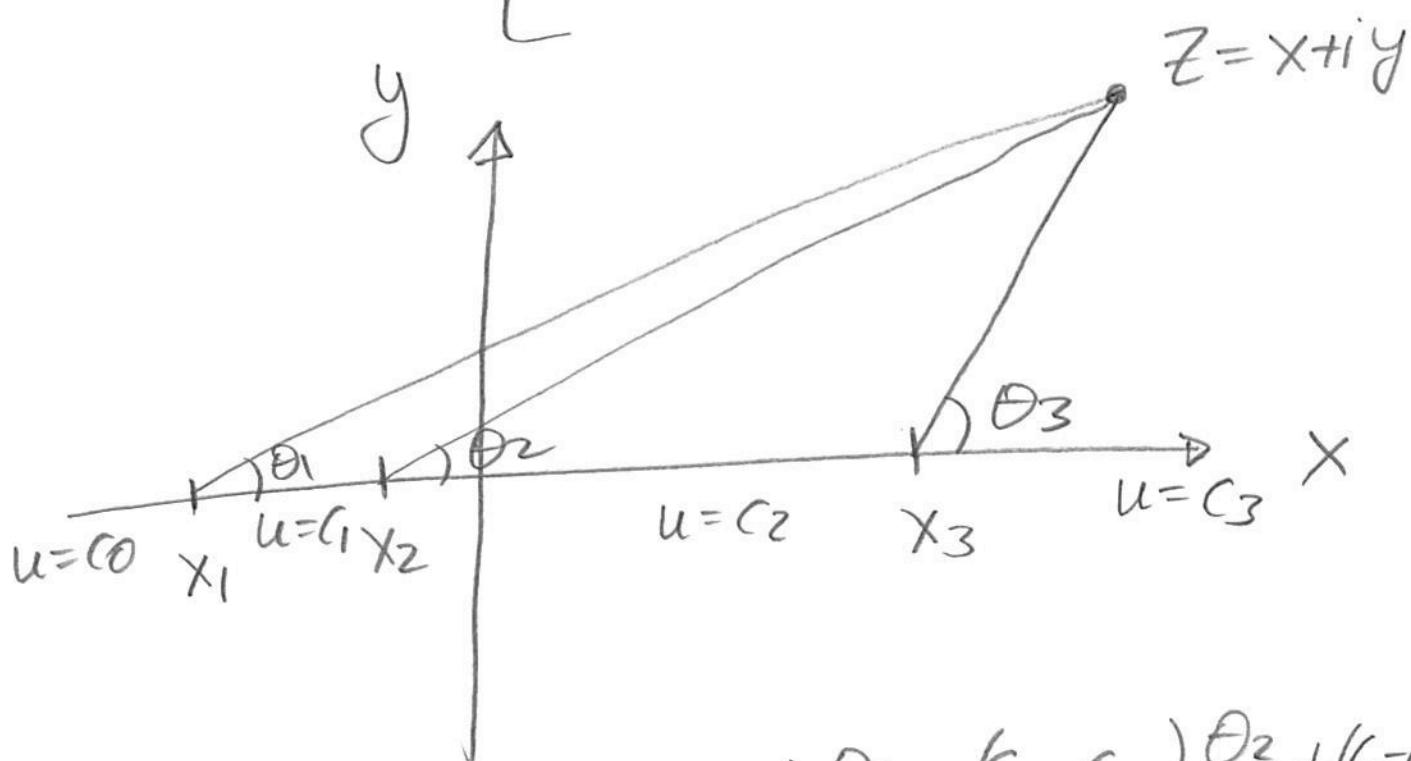
This function has the righ b.c. and is harmonic.

Example

Suppose $x_1 < x_2 < x_3$.

Find a harmonic function $u(x, y)$ that satisfies the boundary conditions

$$u(x, y=0) = \begin{cases} c_0, & x < x_1 \\ c_1, & x_1 < x < x_2 \\ c_2, & x_2 < x < x_3 \\ c_3, & x_3 < x \end{cases}$$



$$u(x, y) = c_3 + (c_2 - c_3) \frac{\theta_3}{\pi} + (c_1 - c_2) \frac{\theta_2}{2} + (c_0 - c_1) \frac{\theta_1}{\pi}$$

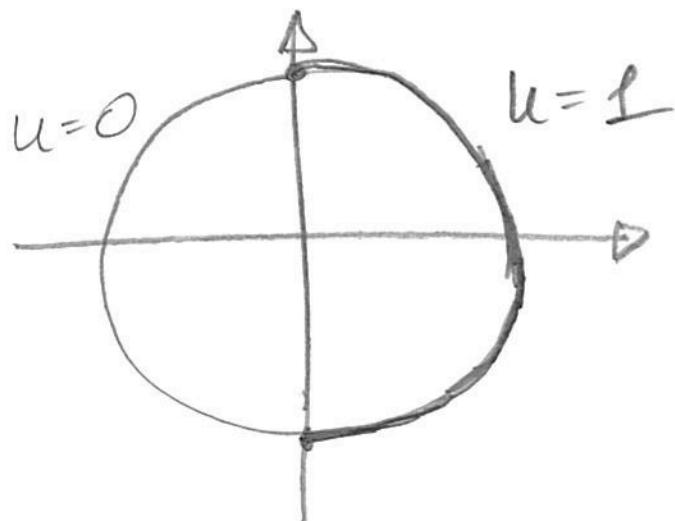
Using the same branch as before

$$u(x, y) = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ c_3 + \frac{(c_2 - c_3)}{i\pi} \ln(z - x_3) + \right. \\ \left. + \frac{(c_1 - c_2)}{i\pi} \ln(z - x_2) + \frac{c_0 - c_1}{i\pi} \ln(z - x_1) \right\}$$

Example

Find a harmonic function $u(x, y)$ within unit circle, such that on the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

$$u(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Let us use a map that send a unit circle onto upper half plane

$$\omega = -i \frac{z+1}{z-1} = T(z)$$

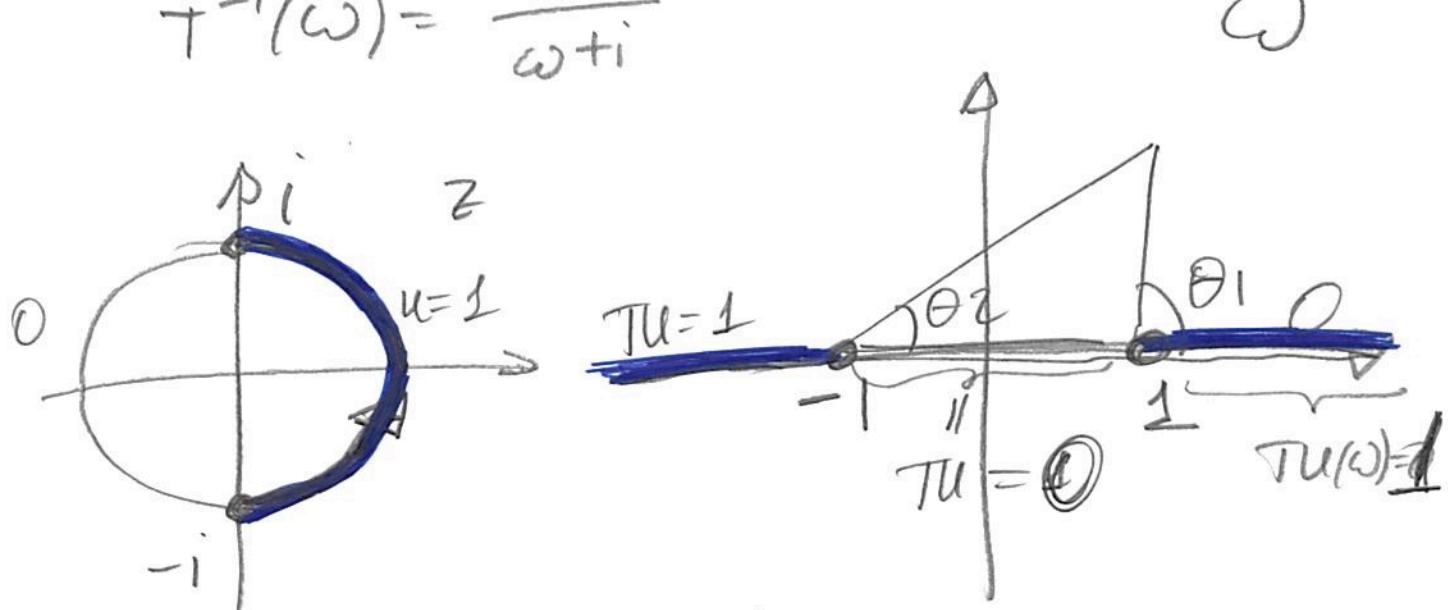
The inverse transformation

$$(z-1)\omega + i(z+1) = 0$$

$$z(\omega+i) + (i-\omega) = 0$$

$$z = -\frac{i-\omega}{i+\omega} = T^{-1}(\omega)$$

$$T^{-1}(\omega) = \frac{\omega-i}{\omega+i}$$



$$T(i) = -i \frac{1+i}{i-1} = \frac{1+i}{-1-i} = -1$$

$$T(-i) = -i \frac{1-i}{-1-i} = \frac{1-i}{-i+1} = 1$$

$$T(-1) = 0$$

$$\theta_1 = \theta_2 = 0 \rightarrow 1$$

$$\theta_1 = \theta_2 = \pi \rightarrow 1$$

$$\theta_1 = \pi \quad \theta_2 = 0 \rightarrow 0$$

$$U = -\frac{\theta_1}{\pi} + \frac{\theta_2}{\pi} + 1 =$$
$$= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\ln(\theta_1+1)}{\pi i} - \frac{\ln(\theta_2-1)}{\pi i} \right\}$$

On the ω plane this is the solution.
Map it back onto z plane

$$U(z) = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{\pi i} \ln \left(-i \frac{z+1}{z-1} + 1 \right) - \frac{1}{\pi i} \ln \left(-i \frac{z+1}{z-1} - 1 \right) \right\} =$$
$$= 1 + \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \frac{1}{\pi i} \ln \frac{-iz-i+z-1}{z-1} + \right.$$
$$\left. - \frac{1}{\pi i} \ln \frac{-iz-i-z+1}{z-1} \right\}$$