Elliptic Functions

Riemann surfaces of algebraic functions.

§4.1 Riemann surface of algebraic functions.

Hitherto: elliptic integrals and elliptic functions (mainly) over \mathbb{R} .

Let us *complexify* the theories!

Want: integrals of $R(x, \sqrt{\varphi(x)})$ on \mathbb{C} .

 \longrightarrow A problem of multi-valuedness (branches) of $\sqrt{\varphi(x)}$ occurs.

The simplest case: \sqrt{z} .

What is \sqrt{z} ? — "w which satisfies $w^2 = z$ ".

Then \sqrt{z} cannot be uniquely determined: if $w^2 = z$, then $(-w)^2 = z$.

Where does this "-" sign come from?

$$z = re^{i\theta} \ (r = |z|, \ \theta = \arg z; \ \mathsf{polar} \ \mathsf{form}) \Longrightarrow \sqrt{z} = \sqrt{r}e^{i\theta/2}.$$

- For $r \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, $\sqrt{r} > 0$ is uniquely determined.
- $\theta = \arg z$ is NOT unique! $\arg z$ is determined only up to $2\pi\mathbb{Z}$:

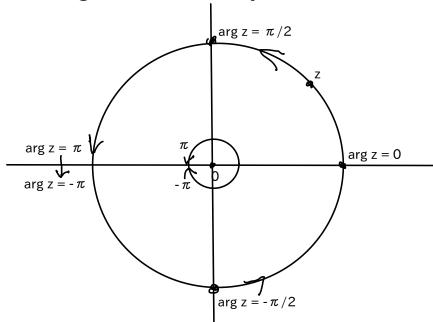
$$z = re^{i\theta} = re^{i(\theta \pm 2\pi)} = re^{i(\theta \pm 4\pi)} = \dots = re^{i(\theta + 2n\pi)}.$$

Correspondingly,

$$\sqrt{z} = \sqrt{r}e^{i(\theta + 2n\pi)/2} = \sqrt{r}e^{i\theta + in\pi} = (-1)^n\sqrt{r}e^{i\theta}.$$

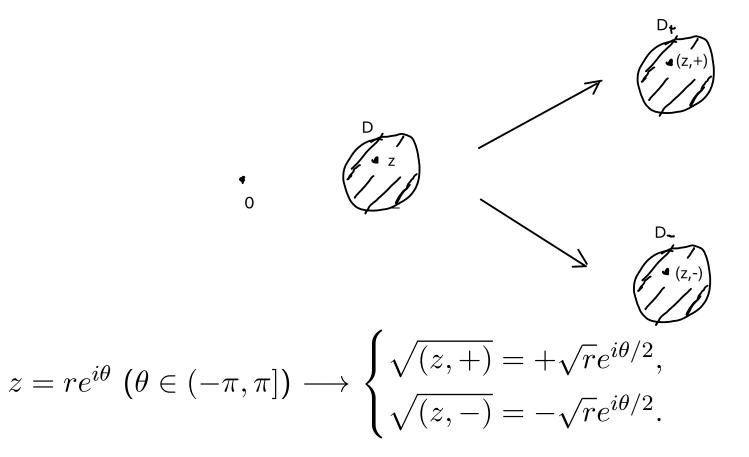
Two solutions to the multi-valuedness problem:

- 1. Restrict the range of arg (e.g., $-\pi < \arg z \le \pi$).
 - Not convenient, for example, to consider \sqrt{z} on a curve around 0. (cf. Figure.) The range is arbitrarily chosen.



- 2. Double the domain of definition (Riemann's idea):
 - Assign two "points" (z,+) and (z,-) to each $z \neq 0$.

D: "small" domain, $0 \notin D$. $\Longrightarrow D$ splits to D_+ and D_- .

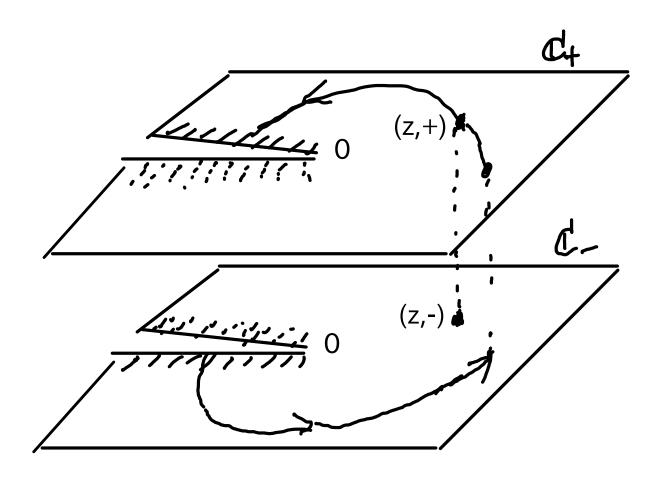


How about z=0? Since $\sqrt{0}=0$ is unique, it should not be split.

Then what occurs with the whole plane \mathbb{C} ?

Answer (by Riemann):

Glue $(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\})_+$ & $(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\})_-$ (= two copies of $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$) as follows:



Motion of $z = re^{i\varphi}$ $(r > 0, \varphi \in [0, 2\pi])$:

- 1. When $\varphi \leq \pi$, z moves on the upper plane.
- 2. When φ exceeds π , z transfers to the lower plane.
- 3. When $\varphi=2\pi$, z does not come back to the start!

$$\varphi = 0 \leftrightarrow (z, +) \rightsquigarrow (z, -) \leftrightarrow \varphi = 2\pi$$

Correspondingly, when $z = re^{i(\varphi + \theta)}$ ($0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$) moves arround 0:

$$\sqrt{z} = \sqrt{r}e^{i\varphi/2} \xrightarrow{0 \le \theta \le 2\pi} \sqrt{z} = -\sqrt{r}e^{i\varphi/2}.$$

Summarising: \sqrt{z} should be defined on

$$\mathcal{R} := (\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\})_{+} \cup \{0\} \cup (\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\})_{-}$$

$$\sqrt{z} : \sqrt{r}e^{i\varphi/2} \qquad 0 \qquad -\sqrt{r}e^{i\varphi/2}$$

$$\mathbb{R}$$

 \mathcal{R} : Riemann surface of \sqrt{z} quite "hand-made".

• Systematic construction of the Riemann surface:

Points of
$$\mathcal{R}$$
: $(z,\pm)\leadsto (z,w=\pm\sqrt{z}=\pm\sqrt{r}e^{i\varphi/2}).$
$$\mathcal{R}:=\{(z,w)\mid F(z,w):=w^2-z=0\}\subset\mathbb{C}^2.$$

- 0 is naturally included in \mathcal{R} as (0,0).
- ullet R has natural topology as a subset of \mathbb{C}^2 .
- \mathcal{R} is a one-dimensional complex manifold.

• Review: manifold

X: real $(C^r$ -)manifold

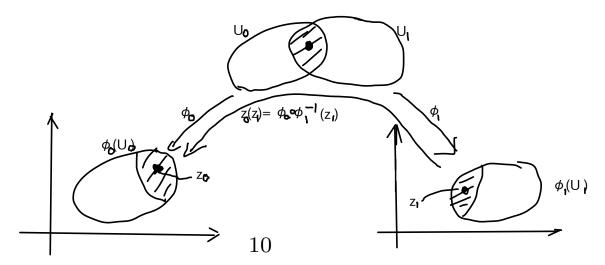
- X: Hausdorff space.
- $\{(U_{\lambda}, \phi_{\lambda})\}_{{\lambda} \in \Lambda}$: atlas of X, i.e.,

$$U_{\lambda} \subset X$$
: open, $\bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} U_{\lambda} = X$,

 $\phi_{\lambda}:U_{\lambda}\to V_{\lambda}\in\mathbb{R}^{N}:\mathsf{homeomorphism}$

• $\phi_{\lambda} \circ \phi_{\mu}^{-1} : \phi_{\mu}(U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}) \to \phi_{\lambda}(U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\mu}) : C^{r}$ -diffeomorphism.

(Figure)



Complex manifold: $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$, C^r -diffeomorphism \to holomorphic bijection.

Theorem:

Assumptions:

• F(z, w): polynomial.

•
$$\left(F, \frac{\partial F}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial F}{\partial w}\right) \neq (0, 0, 0)$$
 on a domain $U \subset \mathbb{C}^2$.

Then $\{(z,w)\mid F(z,w)=0\}\cap U$ is a one-dimensional complex manifold (possibly non-connected). \Box

Remark:

May assume that F(z, w) is a holomorphic function in (z, w).

We use only the polynomial case.

Lemma: (Holomorphic implicit function theorem)

$$F(z,w)$$
: as above. Assume $F(z_0,w_0)=0$, $\frac{\partial F}{\partial w}(z_0,w_0)\neq 0$.

Then,

• $\exists r, \rho > 0$ such that

$$\left\{ (z,w) \left| \begin{array}{c} |z - z_0| < r, |w - w_0| < \rho \\ F(z,w) = 0 \end{array} \right\} \ni (z,w) \mapsto z \in \{z \mid |z - z_0| < r\} \right\}$$

is bijective.

• the component $\varphi(z)$ of the inverse map $z\mapsto (z,\varphi(z))$ is holomorphic.

Obvious from the implicit function theorem in the real analysis?

... No. One has to prove that $\varphi(z)$ is holomorphic.

Proof:

$$f(w) := F(z_0, w)$$
: $f(w_0) = 0$, $f'(w_0) \neq 0$ by assumption.

 $\implies f$ has only one zero in a neighbourhood of w_0 :

(number of zeros in
$$|w - w_0| < \rho$$
) = $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{|w - w_0| = \rho} \frac{f'(w)}{f(w)} dw = 1$

for sufficiently small ρ .

In general, if $|z-z_0|$ is so small that $F(z,w)\neq 0$ on $\{w\mid |w-w_0|=\rho\}$,

$$N(z) := \sharp \{ w \mid F(z, w) = 0, \ |w - w_0| < \rho \} \qquad (\Rightarrow N(z) \in \mathbb{Z})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{|w - w_0| = \rho} \frac{\frac{\partial F}{\partial w}(z, w)}{F(z, w)} dw. \qquad (\Rightarrow N(z) \text{ is continuous in } z.)$$

 $\implies N(z)$: locally constant.

We know $N(z_0) = 1$. $\Longrightarrow N(z) = 1$ if $|z - z_0| < r$ (r: small).

This means that the projection

$$\left\{ (z,w) \left| \begin{array}{c} |z - z_0| < r, |w - w_0| < \rho \\ F(z,w) = 0 \end{array} \right\} \ni (z,w) \mapsto z \in \{z \mid |z - z_0| < r\} \right\}$$

is bijective.

$$z\mapsto (z,\varphi(z))$$
: the inverse map, i.e., $F(z,\varphi(z))=0$.

Formula in Complex Analysis:

- g(w), $\psi(w)$: holomorphic on a neighbourhood of $\{w \mid |w-w_0| \leq \rho\}$,
- $g(w) \neq 0$: on $\{w \mid |w w_0| = \rho\}$,

Then

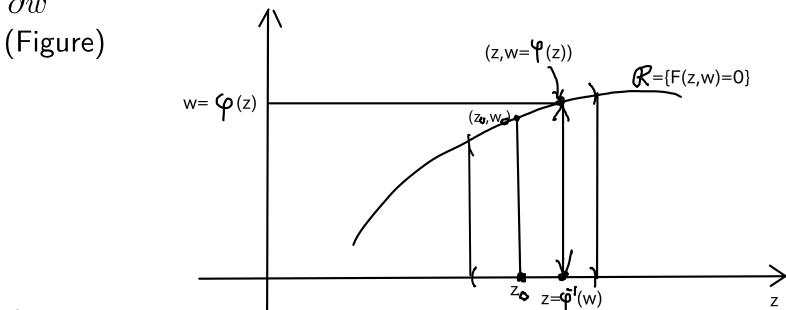
$$\sum_{\substack{w_i: g(w_i)=0\\|w_i-w_0|<\rho}} \psi(w_i) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{|w-w_0|=\rho} \frac{g'(w)}{g(w)} \psi(w) \, dw.$$

Apply this formula to g(w) = F(z, w) and $\psi(w) = w$:

$$\varphi(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{|w-w_0|=\rho} \frac{\frac{\partial F}{\partial w}(z,w)}{F(z,w)} w \, dw.$$

Integrand depends on z holomorphically. $\Longrightarrow \varphi(z)$: holomorphic.

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial w}(z_0, w_0) \neq 0 \Longrightarrow z: \text{ a coordinate of } \mathcal{R} = \{F(z, w) = 0\} \text{ near } (z_0, w_0):$$



$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial z}(z_0, w_0) \neq 0 \Longrightarrow w$$
: a coordinate of $\mathcal{R} = \{F(z, w) = 0\}$ near (z_0, w_0) .

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial w}(z_0,w_0)\neq 0$$
 and $\frac{\partial F}{\partial z}(z_0,w_0)\neq 0 \Longrightarrow z \& w$ can be a coordinate.

Coordinate changes: $z\mapsto w=\varphi(z)$, $w\mapsto z=\varphi^{-1}(w)$ are holomorphic.

(Recall: the inverse of a holomorphic function is holomorphic.)

Summarising,

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(z, w) \mid F(z, w) = 0\}$$
: one-dimensional complex manifold.

In algebraic geometry, it is called a non-singular algebraic curve:

- "non-singular": no singular points, where $\frac{\partial F}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = 0$.
- \bullet "algebraic": F is a polynomial.
- "curve": one-dimensional over \mathbb{C} .

Example: $F(z, w) = w^2 - z$, $\mathcal{R} = \{(z, w) \mid w^2 = z\}$.

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial w} = 2w, \qquad \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = -1.$$

Hence,

- z: coordinate except at (z, w) = (0, 0).
- w: coordinate everywhere.

The function \sqrt{z} on \mathcal{R} : $(z,w)\mapsto w$.

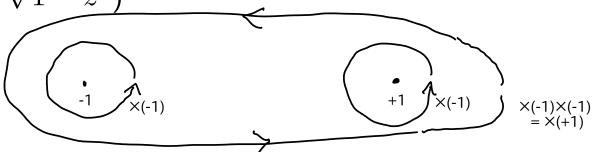
Defined everwhere! and holomorphic even at z = 0!

Riemann surface of $\sqrt{1-z^2}$.

$$f(z) := \sqrt{1 - z^2} = \sqrt{(1 - z)(1 + z)}$$

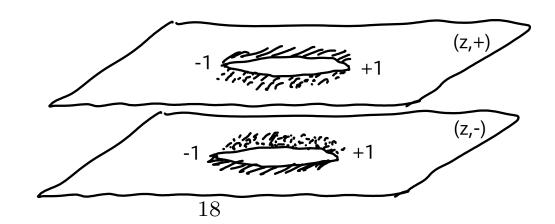
- ullet changes its sign when z goes around +1 or -1.
- ullet does not change its sign when z goes aound $\underline{\mathrm{both}}\ +1$ and -1.

(Figure of changes of the sign of $\sqrt{1-z^2}$)



 \Longrightarrow Riemann surface of f(z)= two \mathbb{C} 's cut along [-1,+1] glued together.

(Figure of gluing)



$$\mathcal{R} = (\mathbb{C} \setminus \{\pm 1\})_+ \cup \{-1, +1\} \cup (\mathbb{C} \setminus \{\pm 1\})_-.$$

Another definition: f(z) satisfies $f(z)^2 + z^2 - 1 = 0$. So,

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(z, w) \mid F(z, w) := z^2 + w^2 - 1 = 0\}.$$

Since

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial w} = 2w, \qquad \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = 2z,$$

- z is a coordinate around (z_0, w_0) , $w_0 \neq 0$, i.e., $z_0 \neq \pm 1$.
- w should be used as a coordinate around $(\pm 1, 0)$.

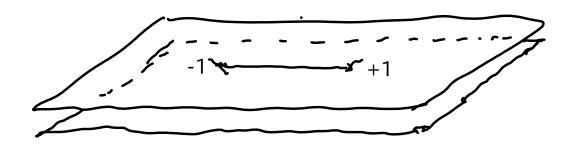
The function $f(z) = \sqrt{1-z^2}$ is defined as

$$f: \mathcal{R} \ni (z, w) \mapsto w$$

on $\mathcal R$ as a single-valued function.

What surface is R topologically?

In the picture of $\mathcal R$ as glued $\mathbb C$'s:

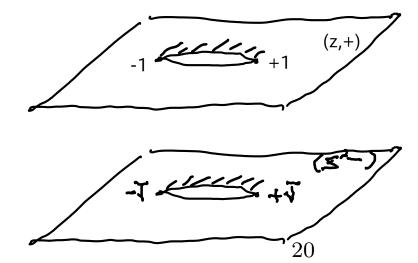


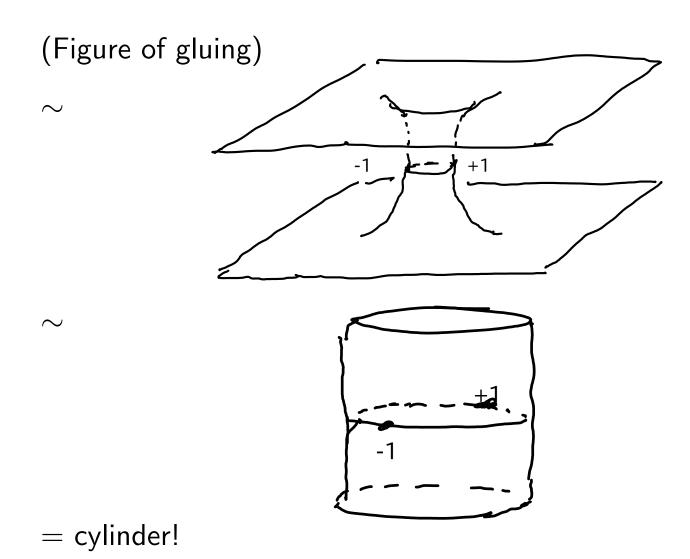
the interval [-1, +1] seems to be a self-intersection. But it is *NOT*!

$$\exists$$
 TWO points $(z,w)=(z,\pm\sqrt{1-z^2})$ for each $z\in[-1,+1]$.

⇒ Better to glue them with different orientations.

(Figure)





Recall: we want to study elliptic integrals with complex variables.

Prototype:
$$\int \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1-z^2}}.$$

Question: Where does the 1-form $\omega = \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1-z^2}}$ live?

Answer: on the Riemann surface \mathcal{R} of $\sqrt{1-z^2}$.

There we have to replace $\sqrt{1-z^2}$ by w: $\omega = \frac{dz}{w}$.

 $\Longrightarrow \omega$ is not defined when w=0, i.e., $z=\pm 1$, NO!

Recall that at $(\pm 1,0) \in \mathcal{R}$ we have to use w as a coordinate.

$$w^2=1-z^2\xrightarrow{\frac{d}{dz}}2wdw=-2zdz.$$

$$\implies \omega=\frac{1}{w}dz=\frac{1}{w}\frac{-w\,dw}{z}=\frac{dw}{z}=\frac{-dw}{\sqrt{1-w^2}}\text{: holomorphic at }(\pm 1,0).$$

$$\omega = \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1-z^2}} = \frac{dz}{w} = \frac{-dw}{z}$$
: holomorphic 1-form on the whole \mathcal{R} .

Recall: If f(z) is an entire function (= holomorphic on the whole \mathbb{C}), the indefinite integral

$$F(z) := \int_{z_0}^z f(z') dz'$$

defines a single-valued holomorphic function by virtue of Cauchy's integral theorem: (Figure $z_0 \xrightarrow{C \to C'} z$)

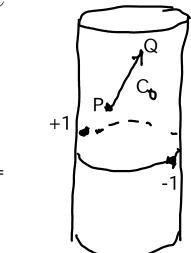
$$\int_C f(z) dz = \int_{C'} f(z') dz'.$$

How about the integral of $\omega = \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1-z^2}}$?

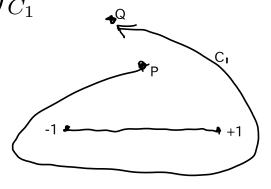
Because of the non-trivial topology of \mathcal{R} , $\int_C \omega \, \underline{\text{depends}}$ on C.

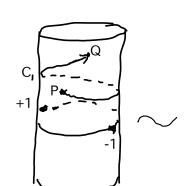
$$\int_C \omega \ \underline{\text{depends}} \ \text{on} \ C.$$

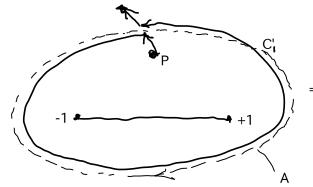


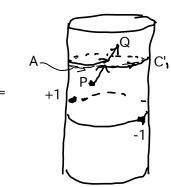


 ω : (Figure of C_1)









$$\Longrightarrow \int_{C_1} \omega - \int_{C_0} \omega = \int_A \omega.$$

$$\int_{C_2} \omega : \text{ (Figure of } C_2\text{)}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \int_{C_2} \omega - \int_{C_0} \omega = -\int_A \omega.$$

For general contours? — Better to use terminology in topology.

The first homology group of a topological space X: (very rough summary)

 $H_1(X,\mathbb{Z}) := \langle \text{Free abelian group generated by closed curves in } X \rangle / \sim.$

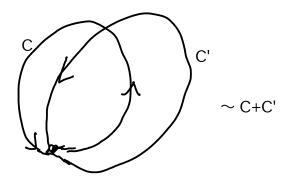
The equivalence relation: for closed curves C, C',

$$[C] \sim [C'] \iff C^{-1}C' = \bigcup (boundaries of domains).$$

("C and C' are homologically equivalent").

Figure: homological equivalence.





- ullet homotopically equivalent \Longrightarrow homologically equivalent.
- $H_1(X,\mathbb{Z})$: an abelian group.

Using this terminology:

$$\mathcal{R} \sim \text{ cylinder } \Longrightarrow H_1(\mathcal{R}, \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}[A].$$

Previous examples:

$$[C_1] - [C_0] = [A] \text{ in } H_1(\mathcal{R}, \mathbb{Z}) \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \int_{C_1} \omega - \int_{C_0} \omega = \int_A \omega.$$
$$[C_2] - [C_0] = -[A] \text{ in } H_1(\mathcal{R}, \mathbb{Z}) \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \int_{C_1} \omega - \int_{C_0} \omega = -\int_A \omega.$$

In general,

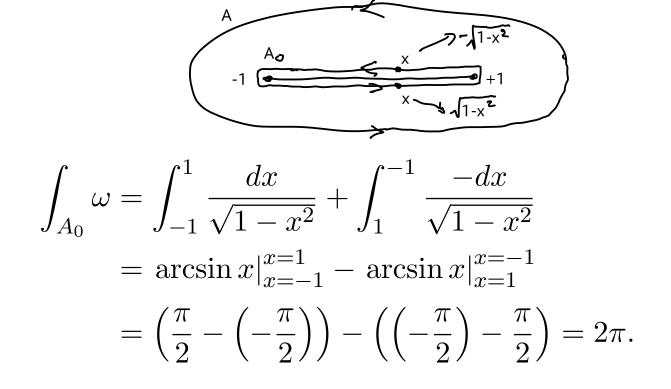
$$[C(P \to Q)] - [C_0] \in H_1(\mathcal{R}, \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}[A]$$

$$\Longrightarrow \int_{C(P \to Q)} \omega - \int_{C_0} \omega = n \int_A \omega, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

 $\int_A \omega$: period of 1-form ω over A.

Shrink
$$A$$
 to A_0 : $\int_A \omega = \int_{A_0} \omega$.

(Figure of A_0 : sign of $\sqrt{1-x^2}$ are different on each half plane.)



When P moves from $x \in \mathbb{C}$ and comes back to x,

$$u(P) = \int_0^P \omega$$

changes by $2\pi \times (\text{integer})$: $u(x) \rightsquigarrow u(x) + 2\pi n$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

 \iff the inverse function x(u) of u(x) has period 2π :

$$x(u+2\pi n) = x(u), \qquad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

In fact,

$$u(x) = \int_0^x \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} = \arcsin x, \qquad x(u) = \sin u.$$

" $\sin u$ is periodic because of the topology of the cylinder!"