Spectral Zeta Functions for Spherical Aharonov-Bohm Quantum Bags

E. Elizalde and S. Leseduarte
Departament E.C.M., Facultat de Física, Universitat de Barcelona,
Diagonal 647, 08028 Barcelona, Spain

and

A. Romeo
Departament de Matemàtiques Aplicada i Anàlisi,
Facultat de Matemàtiques, Universitat de Barcelona,
Gran Via de les Corts Catalanes 585, 08071 Barcelona, Spain

Abstract

We study the sum $\zeta_H(s) = \sum_j E_j^{-s}$ over the eigenvalues $E_j$ of the Schrödinger equation in a spherical domain with Dirichlet walls, threaded by a line of magnetic flux. Rather than using Green’s function techniques, we tackle the mathematically nontrivial problem of finding exact sum rules for the zeros of Bessel functions $J_\nu$, which are extremely helpful when seeking numerical approximations to ground state energies. These results are particularly valuable if $\nu$ is neither an integer nor half an odd one.

Dedicated to David Bohm, in memoriam

1E-mail address: eli @ ebubecm1.bitnet
1 Introduction

There is a large class of physically interesting problems where the Hamiltonian is closely related to the operator of Bessel’s equation, this includes, e.g.: (i) classical equations for vibrating strings and drumheads, heat conduction in cylinders, normal modes in resonant cavities, Fraunhofer diffraction through circular apertures, etc.; (ii) quantum particles which move freely within cylindrically or spherically symmetric domains, on whose boundaries the wave function vanishes (they play the role of reflecting or bouncing walls). The two-dimensional case has been made further complicated in two different ways: by altering the shape of the boundary —quantum billiards [1, 2]— and by introducing magnetic potentials such that the domain is threaded by a line of magnetic flux —Aharonov-Bohm quantum billiards [2].

This paper deals with the extension of the last situation to spherical domains of arbitrary radius, $a$, diametrically threaded by a flux line. For such a system, the time-independent Schrödinger equation takes the form

$$\frac{1}{2\mu}[-i\hbar\nabla - qA(r)]^2\Psi(r) = E\Psi(r),$$

where $\mu$ is the mass of the particle, $q$ its charge and $A(r)$ is some suitable vector potential, which produces a straight line of flux along the $z$-axis. To this end we choose

$$A(r) = \frac{\Phi}{2\pi r \sin \theta} e^\varphi,$$

where $\Phi$ is the value of the flux and $e^\varphi$ denotes the unitary tangent vector for increasing $\varphi$ (the usual spherical coordinates, $r, \theta$ and $\varphi$, are employed). This corresponds to selecting a gauge in which the lines of the vector potential become concentric circles. After noticing that $\nabla \cdot A = 0$, as should be expected, (1) reduces to

$$\left[\nabla^2 + k^2 - \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \left(2i\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} + \alpha^2 \right)\right]\Psi(r, \theta, \varphi) = 0,$$

where $k^2 = \frac{2\mu E}{\hbar^2}$ and $\alpha = \frac{q \Phi}{\hbar 2\pi}$. Applying the usual variable separation method, we set $\Psi(r, \theta, \varphi) = R(r)Y(\theta, \varphi)$ and arrive at

$$\left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + k^2 r^2 - C\right]R(r) = 0,$$
\[
\left[ \frac{1}{\sin \theta \partial \theta} \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} - 2i\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} - \alpha^2 \right) \right] \mathcal{Y}(\theta, \varphi) = 0, \tag{5}
\]

with \( C \) a separation constant. Writing \( C = \beta(\beta + 1) \), (5) becomes the spherical Bessel equation of parameter \( \beta \), not necessarily integer. Thus, the solution regular at \( r = 0 \) is

\[
R(r) \sim j_\beta(kr)\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2kr}}J_{\beta+1/2}(kr), \tag{6}
\]

where \( j_\beta \) denotes the spherical Bessel function. As a result of the boundary condition imposed on the surface \( r = a \), \( ka \) must be a zero of \( J_{\beta+1/2} \). The energy is therefore discretized in the way

\[
E_{\beta n} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu a^2}j_{\beta+1/2,n}, \tag{7}
\]

\( j_{\beta+1/2,n} \) being the \( n \)th positive zero of \( J_{\beta+1/2} \).

Taking \( \mathcal{Y}(\theta, \varphi) = \Theta(\theta)\phi(\varphi) \) with the function \( \phi(\varphi) \) of the form \( e^{im\varphi}, \ m \in \mathbb{Z} \), and doing the change of variables \( x = \cos \theta \), eq. (5) yields

\[
\left\{ (1-x^2)\frac{d^2}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{d}{dx} + \beta(\beta + 1) - \frac{(m - \alpha)^2}{1-x^2} \right\} \Theta(\theta) = 0, \tag{8}
\]

and writing \( \Theta(\theta) = (1-x^2)^{|m-\alpha|/2}u(x) \), the function \( u(x) \) satisfies the following equation

\[
(1-x^2) u'' - 2x( |m-\alpha| + 1 ) u' + [C - |m-\alpha|(|m-\alpha|+1)] u = 0. \tag{9}
\]

Since \( x = 0 \) is a regular point, we make the assay \( u(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k \), which leads to the recurrence

\[
a_{k+2} = \frac{(k + |m-\alpha|)(k + |m-\alpha|+1) - C}{(k+2)(k+1)} a_k. \tag{10}
\]

Good behaviour at \( x = \pm 1 \) can only be achieved by truncating the series into a polynomial. This takes place if there is some \( p \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( C = (|m-\alpha|+p)(|m-\alpha|+p+1) \). This recurrence would be the same as the one for Legendre’s associated functions \( P^m_l \), were it not for the presence of a (generally) noninteger \( \alpha \). Therefore, we adopt the notation

\[
\Theta(\theta) \sim P^{|m-\alpha|}_\beta(\cos \theta), \ |m-\alpha| \leq \beta, \tag{11}
\]
where $\beta \equiv |m - \alpha| + p$ is also non-integer, as a rule. The general form of the wave function is a superposition of the sort

$$\Psi(r, \theta, \varphi) = \sum_{n,l,m} c_{nlm} j_{\beta} \left( j_{\beta+1/2,n} \frac{r}{a} \right) P_{\beta}^{m-\alpha}(\cos \theta) e^{im\varphi}. \quad (12)$$

The angular eigenfunctions $\sim P_{\beta}^{m-\alpha}(\cos \theta) e^{im\varphi}$ generalize the spherical harmonics $Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi)$, corresponding to $\alpha = 0$. It is precisely for this reason —i.e. the presence of $\alpha$— that the solutions are no longer eigenfunctions of the angular momentum $L^2$ (they are instead eigenfunctions of the mechanical momentum $\Pi^2$). This was to be expected, as radial symmetry has been broken by $A(r)$. The energy spectrum has now turned into

$$E_{\beta,n} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu_\alpha^2} j_{\beta+1/2,n}^2, \quad m \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \beta = |m - \alpha| + p, \quad p \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (13)$$

The ground state energy is therefore $E_{0,1} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu_\alpha^2} j_{|\alpha|+1/2,1}^2$, for $|\alpha| \leq 1/2$. Notice that $\alpha = 1/2$ gives rise to double degeneracy, since states with $m$ and $-m + 1$ have the same energy. This is also true, in particular, for the ground state.

Let us recall that the zeta function of a Hermitean operator $A$ with infinitely many discrete eigenvalues $\lambda_i$ is defined as

$$\zeta_A(s) = \sum_i \frac{1}{\lambda_i^s} = \text{Tr} A^{-s}. \quad (14)$$

An alternative to the computer evaluation of these Bessel function zeros is their approximation by means of sum rules. When $A$ has a discrete spectrum $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \lambda_3 < \ldots$, several ways to find estimates of low-lying eigenvalues —quoted in [4]— are in order. The most adequate here is Euler’s method (originally applied to the zeros of $J_0$), which is based on the inequalities

$$\zeta_A(s)^{-1/s} < \lambda_1 \leq \frac{\zeta_A(s)}{\zeta_A(s+1)}. \quad (15)$$

In fact, $\lim_{s \to \infty} [\zeta_A(s)]^{-1/s} = \lim_{s \to \infty} \frac{\zeta_A(s)}{\zeta_A(s+1)} = \lambda_1$ and, prior to taking the limit, (15) always holds.
In our case, we will take $A$ to be the operator of the spherical Bessel equation (4) with $C \equiv (|m-\alpha|+p)(|m-\alpha|+p+1)$. Thus, for each possible $l$, the zeta function $\zeta_A(s)$ to be considered is of the type $\zeta_A(s) \sim \zeta_\nu(2s)$, with

$$\zeta_\nu(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j_\nu^n}, \quad \text{Re } s > 1,$$

(16)

where $j_\nu^n$ is the $n$th nonvanishing zero of $J_\nu$. The condition $\text{Re } s > 1$ stems from considering the asymptotic form of the $j_\nu^n$'s, which is roughly $\left(\nu - \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{\pi}{2} + \pi n$, and from comparing with the Hurwitz zeta function. At any rate, the existence of poles at some values of $s$ ought to be checked by operator heat-kernel expansion methods.

## 2 Recursive Rules for Zeta Functions associated to Bessel Operators

### 2.1 Quadratic Recursion

When written in the form of an infinite product involving its nonvanishing zeros, the $\nu$th Bessel function of the first species reads

$$J_\nu(z) = \frac{z^\nu}{2^\nu \Gamma(\nu + 1)} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{z^2}{j_{\nu n}^2}\right).$$

(17)

Differentiating the log of this expression with respect to $z$, and using the identity

$$J'_\nu(z) = \frac{\nu}{z} J_\nu(z) - J_{\nu+1}(z),$$

(18)

we arrive at

$$\frac{J_{\nu+1}(z)}{J_\nu(z)} = 2z \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j_{\nu n}^2 - z^2}$$

(19)

and, since $j_{\nu 1} < j_{\nu 2} < ...$, taking $|z| < j_{\nu 1}$ we are able to put

$$\frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{z}{j_{\nu n}}\right)^2} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{j_{\nu n}}\right)^{2m}.$$

Then, interchanging the summations and looking at (16) we come to

$$\frac{J_{\nu+1}(z)}{J_\nu(z)} = 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \zeta_\nu(2n) z^{2n-1}.$$
This formula will constitute our starting point and is a well known result (see e.g. [3], pg. 61). Now one can, of course, find the values of the zeta functions through
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(2n) = \frac{1}{2(2n - 1)!} \frac{d^{2n-1} J_{\nu+1}(z)}{dz^{2n-1}} \Bigg|_{z=0}. \]
Rather than doing this, we take the derivative of (20) with respect to \( z \), and making use of (18) and of \( J'_{\nu+1}(z) = J_{\nu}(z) - \frac{\nu + 1}{z} J_{\nu+1}(z) \), we obtain
\[ 1 - \frac{2\nu + 1}{z} \frac{J_{\nu+1}(z)}{J_{\nu}(z)} + \left( \frac{J_{\nu+1}(z)}{J_{\nu}(z)} \right)^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \zeta_{\nu}(2n) 2(2n - 1)z^{2n-2}. \tag{21} \]
Replacing \( \frac{J_{\nu+1}(z)}{J_{\nu}(z)} \) with the r.h.s. of (20), we get a sum of series which can be recast into the form
\[ 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ -4(\nu + n)\zeta_{\nu}(2n) + 4 \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \zeta_{\nu}(2l)\zeta_{\nu}(2n - 2l) \right] z^{2n-2} = 0. \tag{22} \]
Since it must be satisfied for any \( z \) with \( |z| < \tilde{j}_{\nu} \), the identity must hold separately for every power of this variable. In particular, for \( n = 1 \) we are led to
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(2) = \frac{1}{4(\nu + 1)}, \tag{23} \]
while, for \( n \geq 2 \), the ‘quadratic’ recursive relation
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(2n) = \frac{1}{n + \nu} \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \zeta_{\nu}(2l)\zeta_{\nu}(2n - 2l) \tag{24} \]
follows. In Appendix A we present an alternative derivation of this formula by direct integration over a convenient contour in the complex plane.

This equation, together with the previous, provides the value of \( \zeta_{\nu}(2n) \) at any even integer argument. The first results thus obtained are:
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(4) = \frac{1}{2^4(\nu + 1)^2(\nu + 2)}, \tag{25} \]
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(6) = \frac{1}{2^5(\nu + 1)^2(\nu + 2)(\nu + 3)}, \tag{26} \]
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(8) = \frac{5\nu + 11}{2^8(\nu + 1)^4(\nu + 2)^2(\nu + 3)(\nu + 4)}, \tag{27} \]
\[ \zeta_{\nu}(10) = \frac{7\nu + 19}{2^9(\nu + 1)^5(\nu + 2)^2(\nu + 3)(\nu + 4)(\nu + 5)}, \tag{28} \]
\[ \vdots \]
These expressions are quoted in [4] as due to Rayleigh. Now, with the help of (24), their derivation has been straightforward.

An immediate consequence of (24) is the nontrivial equality

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k,m=1 \atop k \neq m}^{\infty} \frac{1}{J_{2l} J_{2n-2l}} = (\nu + 1)\zeta_{\nu}(2n).$$

(29)

The procedure here described finds application to other functions that can be expressed as infinite products. For instance, we take

$$\sin z = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{z^2}{\pi^2 n^2}\right).$$

Its logarithmic derivative gives (assuming $|z| < \pi$) a known expansion for $\cot z$:

$$\cot z = \frac{1}{z} - 2 \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \zeta(2m + 2) \frac{z^{2m+1}}{\pi^{2m+2}},$$

(30)

where $\zeta$ is the Riemann zeta function itself. Differentiating with respect to $z$, the l.h.s. will be $-\csc^2 z = -(1 + \cot^2 z)$. Replacing $\cot z$ with the series (30), and the r.h.s. with its derivative, we obtain an identity which must be fulfilled for every power of $z$. Thus

$$\begin{cases}
\zeta(2) &= \frac{\pi^2}{6}, \\
\zeta(2n) &= \frac{1}{n + \frac{1}{2}} \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \zeta(2n - 2l)\zeta(2l), \ n \geq 2.
\end{cases}$$

(31)

This provides a method for the recurrent evaluation of $\zeta(2n)$ from just the knowledge of $\zeta(2)$. Bearing in mind the relation between zeta function and Bernoulli numbers, $\zeta(2n) = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{(2\pi)^{2n}}{2(2n)!} B_{2n}$, the previous equations read

$$\begin{cases}
B_2 &= \frac{1}{6}, \\
B_{2n} &= -\frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} \binom{2n}{2l} B_{2n-2l} B_{2l}, \ n \geq 2.
\end{cases}$$

(32)

They supply a different way of finding all the nonvanishing Bernoulli numbers ($B_1$ aside) from the value of $B_2$. Eq. (31) yields also

$$\sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \sum_{k,m=1 \atop k \neq m}^{\infty} \frac{1}{J_{2l} J_{2n-2l}} = \frac{3}{2} \zeta(2n).$$

(33)

Actually, all these results can as well be obtained from those for $\zeta_\nu$ by taking $\nu = \frac{1}{2}$, since $J_{1/2}(z) = \sqrt{\frac{z}{\pi}} \sin z$.  

7
2.2 Linear Recursion

The above recurrence has turned out to be a powerful tool for successively obtaining the zeta functions of even argument. But, having succeeded in finding a ‘second order’ law—as the r.h.s involves products of zeta functions at lower arguments—we would also like to have a linear rule available. The example of Euler’s method (shown, e.g., in [4], pg. 500) takes advantage of a linear recurrence among the \( \zeta_0(2n) \)'s. Now, our aim is to find the general form of such type of relation, thus extending the procedure to any \( \nu \).

We start, once more, by taking (20), this time written as

\[
J_{\nu+1}(z) = 2J_{\nu}(z) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \zeta_{\nu}(2n+2)z^{2n+1}.
\]  

(34)

Next, replacing the \( J_{\nu} \)'s with their power series expansions

\[
J_{\nu}(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!(k+\nu)!} \left( \frac{z}{2} \right)^{2k+\nu}
\]

(35)

(in general, these factorials are to be understood as gamma functions \((k+\nu)! \equiv \Gamma(k+\nu+1))\), we obtain a relationship between series which, after some index rearrangements, reads

\[
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{2n+\nu}} \left[ \frac{1}{2n!(n+\nu+1)!} - 2 \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^k 2^{2k}}{(n-k)!(n-k+\nu)!} \zeta_{\nu}(2k+2) \right] z^{2n+\nu+1} = 0.
\]  

(36)

Validity for any \( z \) calls for the vanishing of every coefficient. Therefore

\[
\frac{1}{4(n+\nu+1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k 4^k \frac{n!}{(n-k)!(n+\nu-k)!} \zeta_{\nu}(2k+2), \quad n \geq 0,
\]  

(37)

which amounts to

\[
\frac{1}{4(\nu+n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k 4^k (k!)^2 \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{\nu+n-1}{k} \zeta_{\nu}(2k+2), \quad n \geq 1.
\]  

(38)

This is the linear relation we were looking for.

The first resulting identities are:

\[
\frac{1}{4(\nu+1)} = \zeta_{\nu}(2),
\]

(39)
\[
\frac{1}{4(\nu + 2)} = \zeta_\nu(2) - 4(\nu + 1)\zeta_\nu(4),
\]

(40)

\[
\frac{1}{4(\nu + 3)} = \zeta_\nu(2) - 8(\nu + 2)\zeta_\nu(4) + 32(\nu + 1)(\nu + 2)\zeta_\nu(6),
\]

(41)

\[
\frac{1}{4(\nu + 4)} = \zeta_\nu(2) - 12(\nu + 3)\zeta_\nu(4) + 96(\nu + 2)(\nu + 3)\zeta_\nu(6)
- 384(\nu + 3)(\nu + 2)(\nu + 1)\zeta_\nu(8),
\]

(42)

\[
\frac{1}{4(\nu + 5)} = \zeta_\nu(2) - 16(\nu + 4)\zeta_\nu(4) + 192(\nu + 4)(\nu + 3)\zeta_\nu(6)
- 1536(\nu + 4)(\nu + 3)(\nu + 2)\zeta_\nu(8) + 6144(\nu + 4)(\nu + 3)(\nu + 2)(\nu + 1)\zeta_\nu(10).
\]

(43)

This can be regarded as a system of linear equations in \(\zeta_\nu(2), \zeta_\nu(4), \ldots, \zeta_\nu(10)\), which can be solved by repeated substitution from the first. It can be checked that its solution is (23), (25), (26), (27), (28). The following remark is in order: although a linear recursion looks in principle simpler than one involving products, in practice it is much easier to work with (24) than with (38).

3 Numerical evaluation of the ground state energies

Euler’s method, combined with (23), (24), turns out to be a very efficient procedure for the computation of \(j_{\nu,1}\), associated to the ground state (here \(\nu = |m - \alpha| + p + 1/2\)). The lower and upper bounds in (15) are now \([\zeta_\nu(2k)]^{-1/(2k)}\) and \(\sqrt{\zeta_\nu(2k)/\zeta_\nu(2k + 2)}\), respectively, where the square root comes from the factor 2 in the argument when going from \(\zeta_\nu\) to \(\zeta_A\). We calculate them for increasing \(k\)’s until convergence of both the lower and the upper successions becomes apparent. At every step, a new \(\zeta_\nu(2k)\) is found by means of a recursive function —implementing (23) and (24)— which is part of a simple C program. Table II shows the intermediate results obtained for the cases \(\nu = 0, 1/2\) and 1, whose first nonvanishing zeros are known to be 2.404826\ldots, \(\pi\) and 3.831706\ldots, respectively. The figures obtained after arriving at \(k = 10\) for different \(\nu\)’s between 0 and 1 are displayed in the right box. Of these results, only those for \(\nu \geq 1/2\) can be
physically meaningful, as the lowest possible ground state corresponds to $\nu = 1/2$. Such value would be attained only for $\alpha = 0$, while higher $\nu$'s correspond to nonvanishing $\alpha$'s.

The calculation has been repeated —with the same accuracy— using a program which implements the linear recursion instead of the quadratic one. No figure of the results shown in Table 1 has changed, although the execution time is now shorter. However, away from this range the numerical errors produced by both algorithms may differ. Actually, for $\nu$ close to 100, we have observed differences of the orders of $10^{-6}$ and even $10^{-5}$ within the first ten steps.

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
 k & \nu = 0 & \nu = 1/2 & \nu = 1 \\
 1 & 2.000000 & 2.449490 & 2.828427 \\
 2 & 2.378414 & 3.080070 & 3.722199 \\
 3 & 2.401874 & 3.132603 & 3.812737 \\
 4 & 2.404424 & 3.139995 & 3.827710 \\
 5 & 2.404766 & 3.141280 & 3.830778 \\
 6 & 2.404816 & 3.141528 & 3.831478 \\
 7 & 2.404824 & 3.141579 & 3.831648 \\
 8 & 2.404825 & 3.141590 & 3.831691 \\
 9 & 2.404826 & 3.141592 & 3.831702 \\
 10 & 2.404826 & 3.141593 & 3.831705 \\
\end{array}
\]

For each $\nu$, the values on the left and right columns are the lower and upper bounds, obtained as $[\zeta(2\nu)]^{-1/(2\nu)}$ and $[\zeta(2\nu)/\zeta(2\nu+2)]^{1/2}$ respectively. Right: different $j_{\nu_1}$'s for some values of $\nu$ between 0 and 1.

Table 1: Left: successive values in the approximation to $j_{\nu_1}$, corresponding to $\nu = 0, 1/2, 1$. For each $\nu$, the values on the left and right columns are the lower and upper bounds, obtained as $[\zeta(2\nu)]^{-1/(2\nu)}$ and $[\zeta(2\nu)/\zeta(2\nu+2)]^{1/2}$ respectively. Right: different $j_{\nu_1}$'s for some values of $\nu$ between 0 and 1.
4 Conclusions

We have focused in this paper on the derivation of exact and explicit formulas for the zeta function corresponding to the zeros of the Bessel function, \( \zeta_\nu(2k) \) (for arbitrary \( \nu \)), and in their systematic use for obtaining estimates of ground states of related Hamiltonian operators. The accuracy of the procedure here developed has proven to be excellent. Yet, the main advantage of the method has not been exploited fully. By this we mean the possibility of finding such approximations even in cases where the spectrum does not emerge from standard special functions, but \( \zeta_A \) can nevertheless be calculated, at least for some special values [5].

Another subject to be explored is the deformation of the spherical domain. The corresponding case in two dimensions was tackled by means of conformal mappings between the unit disc and other noncircular domains [2]. In three dimensions the difficulty would surely increase because such powerful complex transformations are lacking. We think that these subjects are worth studying in further detail.

In particular, here, by dealing with a problem of known spectrum, we have been able to relate the physical information concerning the energy levels with some remarkable numerical properties involving Bernoulli numbers and ordinary Riemann zeta functions.

Acknowledgments

This work has been partially supported by DGICYT (Spain), research project PB90-0022.
Appendix: Derivation of the quadratic recurrence by complex integration

The zeta function

\[ \zeta_\nu(z) \equiv \sum_{m=1}^\infty \lambda_m^{-z}, \quad J_\nu(\lambda_m) = 0, \]  \hspace{1cm} (44)

can be written as the integral

\[ \zeta_\nu(z) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C dt \frac{J'_\nu(t)}{J_\nu(t)} t^{-z} = \frac{iz}{2\pi} \int_C dt \ln [J(t)] t^{-z-1}, \]  \hspace{1cm} (45)

where \( C \) is the sector-like contour of the complex plane domain \(|\arg(t)| \leq \theta\), with \( 0 < \theta \leq \pi/2 \), and \(|t| \geq \epsilon\), with \( 0 < \epsilon < \lambda_1 \) and \( \text{Re} \ t > 1 \). Recalling that, for \(|\arg(w)| < \pi - \delta \ (\delta > 0)\) and \(|w| \to \infty\),

\[ J_\nu(w) \sim \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi w}} \left[ P_\nu(w) \cos \left( w - \left( \nu + \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{\pi}{2} \right) - Q_\nu(w) \sin \left( w - \left( \nu + \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right], \]  \hspace{1cm} (46)

where \( P_\nu \) and \( Q_\nu \) are series of negative powers in \( w \) (we assume that \( \nu > -1/2 \)), and particularizing it for the case \( w = \rho e^{i\pi/2} \ (\rho > 0)\), after substitution in expression (45), we obtain

\[ \zeta_\nu(z) = \frac{iz}{2\pi} \left\{ \sum_{\pm} \int_{C_{\pm}(\epsilon)} dt \ t^{-z-1} \ln \left[ \sqrt{2\pi t} \exp \left( \pm i \left( t - \frac{\pi}{2} \left( \nu + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right) \right) J(t) \right] \right. \]  \hspace{1cm} (47)

\[ + \left. 2 \left[ \frac{i \epsilon^{-z+1}}{1 - z} + i \left( \nu + \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{\pi}{2z} \epsilon^{-z} \right] \right\}, \]  \hspace{1cm} (48)

where we have taken here \( \theta = \pi/2 \) and \( C_{\pm}(\epsilon) \) are the two halves of the small circular part of the contour, of radius \( \epsilon \). The two integrals in (48) are analytical functions of \( z \), while the last term is an explicitly meromorphic function. We thus see that \( \zeta_\nu \) has simple pole at \( z = 1 \) with residue \( 1/\pi \).

Let us now consider the restriction of \( \zeta_\nu \) to the strip \(-1 < \text{Re} \ z < 0\). The limit \( \epsilon \to 0 \) yields the fundamental expression

\[ \zeta_\nu(z) = \frac{z}{\pi} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} z \right) \int_0^\infty d\rho \rho^{-z-1} \ln \left[ \sqrt{2\pi \rho} e^{-\rho} I_\nu(\rho) \right], \quad -1 < \text{Re} \ z < 0. \]  \hspace{1cm} (49)
It can be continued —in the value of $\text{Re } z$— to the right (and also to the left) of the real axis. Adding and subtracting in the integrand a term like $e^{-\rho \sum_{k=0}^{2p} \rho^k (a_k + b_k \ln \rho)}$, with $a_0 \equiv \ln[\sqrt{2\pi}/(2^{\nu} \nu!)]$, $b_0 \equiv \nu + 1/2$, and adjusting the remaining $a$’s and $b$’s so that the difference with the integrand in (49) be

$$\ln \left[ \sqrt{2\pi \rho} e^{-\rho I_{\nu}(\rho)} \right] - e^{-\rho \sum_{k=0}^{2p} \rho^k (a_k + b_k \ln \rho)} \simeq O \left( \rho^{2p+1} \ln \rho \right) \tag{50}$$

when $\rho \to 0$, it can be proven that the function $G_{\nu}(\rho) \equiv \ln [2^{\nu} \nu! \rho^{-\nu} e^{-\rho I_{\nu}(\rho)}]$ satisfies

$$G'' + G'^2 + G' \left( 2 + \frac{2\nu + 1}{\rho} \right) + \frac{2\nu + 1}{\rho} = 0, \tag{51}$$

which has a solution of the form $G(\rho) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_k \rho^k$, $c_1 = -1$, in a neighborhood of $\rho = 0$. In terms of $G_{\nu}(\rho)$ and $H_{\nu}(\rho) \equiv e^\rho G_{\nu}(\rho)$, the condition (50) is written as

$$H_{\nu}(\rho) - 2 \rho \sum_{k=1}^{2p} a_k \rho^k + (e^\rho - 1) \ln \left( \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2^{\nu} \nu!} \right) + M_{\nu}(\rho) \ln \rho \simeq O \left( \rho^{2p+1} \ln \rho \right), \tag{52}$$

where $M_{\nu}(\rho)$ is analytical around $\rho = 0$ and contains all the information on the $b$ coefficients —which are rigorously proven to exist but will not interest us here. The $a$’s are read off from (52), with the result

$$a_k = \frac{1}{k!} \ln \left( \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2^{\nu} \nu!} \right) + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{c_j}{(k-j)!}. \tag{53}$$

Back to (49), we see that

$$\zeta_{\nu}(z) = -\frac{z}{\pi} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} z \right) \int_0^{\infty} dp \rho^{-z-1} \left\{ \ln \left[ \sqrt{2\pi \rho} e^{-\rho I_{\nu}(\rho)} \right] - e^{-\rho \sum_{k=0}^{2p} (a_k + b_k \ln \rho) \rho^k} \right\}$$

$$+ \frac{z}{\pi} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} z \right) \sum_{k=0}^{2p} \left[ a_k \Gamma(k-z) + b_k \Gamma'(k-z) \right], \tag{54}$$

with the $a$’s and $b$’s determined as above, provides the desired analytical extension in the strip $-1 < \text{Re } z < 2p + 1$. After some straightforward manipulations we see that for $z$ a positive even integer, we get

$$\zeta_{\nu}(2m) = (-1)^{m+1} m c_{2m}. \tag{56}$$
It is also clear that the $b$'s do not contribute to the expression in the limit and, by working out the precise value of the $c$'s from (52), we obtain $\zeta(2) = [4(\nu + 1)]^{-1}$ and the quadratic recurrence

$$
\zeta(2(p + 1)) = \frac{1}{p + \nu + 1} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \zeta(2(k + 1))\zeta(2(p - k)),
$$

valid for any integer $p, p \geq 1$. 
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