



# Cylindrical symmetry: An aid to calculating the zeta-function in 3 + 1 dimensional curved space

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The spherically symmetric Schwarzschild solution is a staple of textbooks on general relativity; not so perhaps, the static but cylindrically symmetric ones, though they were obtained almost contemporaneously by H. Weyl, Ann.Phys.Lpz.**54** (1917) 117 and T. Levi-Civita, Atti Acc. Lincei Rend. **28** (1919) 101. A renewed interest in this subject in C.S. Trendafilova and S.A. Fulling , Eur.J.Phys. **32** (2011) 1663 – to which the reader is referred to for more references – motivates this work; thus, we rework the Antonsen-Bormann idea – arXiv:hep-th/9608141v1 – that was originally intended to compute the\_heat kernel in curved space, to determine – following D.McKeon and T.Sherry, Phys.Rev.D**35** (1987) 3584 – the zeta-function associated with the Lagrangian density for a massive real scalar field theory in 3 + 1 dimensional stationary curved space, the metric for which is cylindrically symmetric. As a calculation, it pays to use a metric characterised by the parameters *j*, *k* with *j* = – 4 and *k* = – 4, *j*, *k* being integer solutions to 2(j+k) = -jk. Importantly, this enables – unlike the obvious solution j = 2, k = -1, an easy evaluation of the momentum integrals implied in the Schwinger expansion for the zeta-function. Happily, the work reported here is easy to go through – relative to that presented by the author at ICHEP2014 with the Schwarzschild metric, and this contrast will be taken up in some detail.

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#### Two integrals and their evaluation

Consider the integral

$$(\pi)^{2} I = \int_{r} e^{-s(1-u)p^{2}} K(r,p) e^{-usr^{2}}, K(r,p) = \frac{(r^{2} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{p})(p^{2} - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{r})}{(\vec{r} - \vec{p})^{4}}$$
(1)

with  $\int_{r} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d^2 r$ , s and u being non-negative constants with the latter less than 1; with standard methods one easily gets

$$2\pi I = e^{-sp^2} \left( 2p^2 + z(e^{az} - 1) - p^2 \int_0^z dt \, \frac{e^{at}}{t} \right), z = \frac{1}{us}, a = \frac{p^2}{z^2}$$
(2)

As a second example with m = s(1-u), n = us(1-w) let's calculate

$$(\pi)^{3} J = \int_{rj} e^{-mp^{2}} K(r, j, p) e^{-nr^{2}} e^{-uswj^{2}}, K(r, j, p) = \frac{r^{2} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{p}}{(\vec{r} - \vec{p})^{2}} \frac{j^{2} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{r} - \vec{j})^{2}} \frac{p^{2} - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{p} - \vec{j})^{2}}$$
(3)

with  $\int_{r} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d^2 r$ , as before and *s*, *u* and *w* being non-negative constants with each of the latter two less than 1.

With two Feynman parameters a, b one gets with h = a + b + n,  $\vec{k} = a \vec{p} + b \vec{j}$ ,

$$\int_{r} \frac{r^{2} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{p}}{(\vec{r} - \vec{p})^{2}} \frac{j^{2} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{r} - \vec{j})^{2}} e^{-nr^{2}} = \frac{\pi}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{dadb}{h^{3}} e^{-ap^{2} - bj^{2}} e^{\frac{k^{2}}{h}} N(p, j)$$
(4)

where

$$N(p,j) = h\,\vec{j}\cdot\vec{p} + 2\,\vec{j}\cdot\vec{k}\,\vec{k}\cdot\vec{p} + 2\,j^2\left(h + k^2 - h\,\vec{k}\cdot\vec{p}\right) - \frac{1}{h}\left(4h\,\vec{j}\cdot\vec{k} + 2k^2\,\vec{j}\cdot\vec{k}\right)$$

The inconvenience inherent to the integration over a, b in (4) suggests a rewrite of eq.(3) as

$$(\pi)^{3} J = \int_{rja} e^{-mp^{2}} K(r,a,j,p) e^{-nr^{2}} e^{-uswj^{2}}, \quad K(r,a,j,p) = \frac{r^{2} - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{p}}{(\vec{r} - \vec{p})^{2}} \frac{j^{2} - \vec{a} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{a} - \vec{j})^{2}} \frac{p^{2} - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{p} - \vec{j})^{2}} \delta^{(2)}(\vec{r} - \vec{a})$$

and the integral representation for the delta-function now helps to obtain

$$R = \int_{ra} \frac{r^2 - \vec{r} \cdot \vec{p}}{(\vec{r} - \vec{p})^2} \frac{j^2 - \vec{a} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{a} - \vec{j})^2} \delta^{(2)}(\vec{r} - \vec{a}) e^{-nr^2} = 2\pi e^{-np^2} (I_1 + I_2)$$
(5)

where

$$I_{1} = \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{db}{g} e^{ib(n^{2}p^{2} + i\varepsilon)} L(p, j) , I_{2} = -\frac{1}{4m} \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{db}{q} e^{r(n^{2}p^{2} + i\varepsilon)} M(p, j)$$

with b a Feynman parameter,

$$2i\vec{s} = (\vec{j} - (1 - ibn)\vec{p}), i\vec{x} = (\vec{j} - (1 - rn)\vec{p}), nr = (1 + ibn), g = 4s^2, q = x^2$$

and

$$L(p,j) = A(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{s}) + e^{-\frac{ig}{b}} B(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{s}) \quad , \ A(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{s}) = -\left(np^2 + \frac{2i}{g}\vec{p}\cdot\vec{s}\right) \vec{j}\cdot\vec{s} + \frac{i}{4}\vec{j}\cdot\vec{p} ,$$

$$B(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{s}) = -A(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{s}) - \frac{2}{b}\vec{p}\cdot\vec{s} \ \vec{j}\cdot\vec{s} \ , \ M(p,j) = C(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{z}) + e^{\frac{q}{r}} D(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{z}) ,$$

$$C(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{x}) = -in\left(\vec{j}\cdot\vec{p} - \frac{2}{q}\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}\ \vec{j}\cdot\vec{x}\right), D(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{x}) = -C(\vec{j},\vec{p},\vec{x}) + \frac{2}{r}\vec{j}\cdot\vec{x}\left(\frac{q}{r} + in\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}\right)$$
(6)

As eq.(5) is easier to work with than (4) and the calculation of J needs just the evaluation of

$$2\pi e^{-np^2} \int_{j} (I_1 + I_2) \frac{p^2 - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{j}}{(\vec{p} - \vec{j})^2} e^{-uswj^2}$$
(7)

it pays to pause the calculation at this stage so as to net more dividends elsewhere with the approach adopted here.

### A physical setting for I and J

Consider the following line element in 3 + 1 dimensional curved space

$$ds^{2} = \frac{a^{4}}{r^{4}}c^{2}dt^{2} - \frac{a^{8}}{r^{8}}dr^{2} - r^{2}d\theta^{2} - \frac{a^{4}}{r^{4}}dz^{2}$$
(8)

with  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$ , and *a* a constant. Eq.(8) yields a time – independent, cylindrically symmetric metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$  whose non –zero elements in Cartesian coordinates are

$$g_{00} = \frac{a^4}{r^4}, g_{11} = -\frac{a^8 x^2}{r^{10}} - \frac{y^2}{r^2}, g_{12} = -\frac{a^8 xy}{r^{10}} + \frac{xy}{r^2}, g_{22} = -\frac{a^8 y^2}{r^{10}} - \frac{x^2}{r^2}, g_{33} = -\frac{a^4}{r^4}$$
(9)

the others being zero. With  $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{ab} e^a_{\mu} e^b_{\nu}$ ,  $\eta_{ab} = diag(1-1-1-1)$  the vierbeins  $e^a_{\mu}$  – repeated latin and greek indices are summed from 0 to 3 respectively – can now be worked out and one favours the following set for its calculational advantage :

$$e_{0}^{0} = 0, \ e_{0}^{1} = \frac{ia^{2}}{r^{2}\sqrt{2}}, \ e_{0}^{2} = -\frac{ia^{2}}{r^{2}\sqrt{2}}, \ e_{0}^{3} = 0 \ ; \ e_{1}^{0} = \frac{ia^{4}x}{r^{5}}, \ e_{1}^{1} = 0, \ e_{1}^{2} = 0, \ e_{1}^{3} = \frac{y}{r}$$

$$e_{2}^{0} = \frac{ia^{4}y}{r^{5}}, \ e_{2}^{1} = 0, \ e_{2}^{2} = 0, \ e_{2}^{3} = -\frac{x}{r} \ ; \ e_{3}^{0} = 0, \ e_{3}^{1} = \frac{a^{2}}{r^{2}\sqrt{2}}, \ e_{3}^{2} = \frac{a^{2}}{r^{2}\sqrt{2}}, \ e_{3}^{3} = 0$$
(10)

Their inverses  $e_b^{\mu}$  got from  $e_{\mu}^a e_b^{\mu} = \delta_b^a$  work to

$$e_{0}^{0} = 0, \ e_{0}^{1} = -\frac{ixr^{3}}{a^{4}}, e_{0}^{2} = -\frac{iyr^{3}}{a^{4}}, \ e_{0}^{3} = 0 \ ; \ e_{1}^{0} = -\frac{ir^{2}}{a^{2}\sqrt{2}}, \ e_{1}^{1} = 0, \ e_{1}^{2} = 0, \ e_{1}^{3} = \frac{r^{2}}{a^{2}\sqrt{2}}$$

$$e_{2}^{0} = \frac{ir^{2}}{a^{2}\sqrt{2}}, \ e_{2}^{1} = 0, \ e_{2}^{2} = 0, \ e_{2}^{3} = \frac{r^{2}}{a^{2}\sqrt{2}}; \ e_{3}^{0} = 0, \ e_{3}^{1} = \frac{y}{r}, \ e_{3}^{2} = -\frac{x}{r}, \ e_{3}^{3} = 0$$

$$(11)$$

and determine  $g^{\mu\nu} = \eta^{ab} e^{\mu}_{a} e^{\nu}_{b}$  with  $\eta^{ab} = diag(1-1-1)$ . Eqs.(1) and (3) can now be motivated with the Lagrangian density for a real massive scalar field in 3 + 1 dimensional curved space namely,

$$L = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} \partial_{\mu} \phi \partial_{\nu} \phi - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$
(12)

Following Antonsen and Bormann [1,2] the operator  $B = -\partial_{\mu} (g^{\mu\nu} \partial_{\nu}) - m^2$  associated with (12) is first reworked as

$$B = -\partial_{\mu} \left( \eta^{ab} e^{\mu}_{a} e^{\nu}_{b} \partial_{\nu} \right) - m^{2} = -\eta^{ab} \partial_{a} \partial_{b} - m^{2} - e^{a}_{\mu} \partial_{a} \left( e^{\mu}_{b} \right) \partial^{b}$$
$$= p^{2}_{0} - \vec{p}^{2} - m^{2} - e^{a}_{\mu} \partial_{a} \left( e^{\mu}_{b} \right) \partial^{b} \Longrightarrow p^{2}_{0} + \vec{p}^{2} - m^{2} - e^{a}_{\mu} \partial_{a} \left( e^{\mu}_{b} \right) \partial^{b}$$
(13)

in momentum space, with (13) being obtained from the transition to Euclidean space. With the vierbeins in eqs.(10) and (11) the last term in (13) labelled heretofore as  $H_2$  works to  $H_2 = \frac{2i}{r^2} (xp_1 + yp_2)$  and with  $H_0 = p_0^2 + p_3^2 - m^2$ ,  $I_0 = p_1^2 + p_2^2$  one now has  $e^{-sB} = e^{-sH_0}e^{-s(I_0+H_2)}$  with  $B = H_0 + I_0 + H_2$  and s a scalar. Following McKeon and Sherry [3] the zeta-function  $\zeta(s)$  is now defined as

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \int_{0}^{\infty} du \, u^{s-1} tr(e^{-Bu}) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \int_{0}^{\infty} du \, u^{s-1} tr(e^{-uH_{0}} e^{-u(I_{0}+H_{2})})$$
(14)

and one can now write the Schwinger expansion[3,4] to the third order for the operator  $e^{-u(I_0+H_2)}$ ; it is

$$e^{-(I_0+H_2)u} = e^{-I_0u} + (-u)e^{-I_0u}H_2 + \frac{(-u)^2}{2!}\int_0^1 dw e^{-u(1-w)I_0}H_2 e^{-uwI_0}H_2 + \frac{(-u)^3}{3!}\int_0^1 w dw \int_0^1 dw_1 e^{-u(1-w)I_0}H_2 e^{-uw(1-w_1)I_0}H_2 e^{-uww_1I_0}H_2 + \dots$$
(15)

The integrals I and J are the matrix elements of the third and fourth terms in eq.(15) respectively, they being determined as in Ref.3 and the second term likewise works to  $L = -\frac{2ie^{-i\vec{p}^2}}{(2\pi)^2} \int_x \frac{(\vec{r} \cdot \vec{p})}{r^2 + i\varepsilon} = 0$ . With eq.(2), one

now has the main result of this report – inspired by cylindrical symmetry in 3 + 1 dimensional curved space using the method of operator regularization[3,4] to 1- loop order – viz.

$$\zeta(s) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \int_{0}^{\infty} du \, u^{s-1} tr \left( e^{-u(H_0 + p^2)} \left\{ 1 + \frac{(-u)^2}{4\pi} \int_{0}^{1} dw \left( 2p^2 + z(e^{az} - 1) - p^2 \int_{0}^{z} dt \, \frac{e^{at}}{t} \right) \right\} \right)$$
(16)

with uwz = 1,  $az^2 = p^2$  in eq.(16). Parenthetically, a similar derivation has been carried out elsewhere[5] but with the BTZ metric [6] in 2 + 1 dimensions.

Qualitatively, the calculation presented here is viable relative to that with the spherically symmetric Schwarzschild metric[7].Put differently, the counterpart of  $H_2$  above but with the Schwarzschild metric is far too cumbersome to make an exact evaluation[8] of even the third term in eq.(15) in terms of matrix elements worthwhile; on the other hand, the exact evaluation of eq.(1) above and its further use to get eq.(16) here underlines our assertion that with cylindrical symmetry – and an appropriate choice of the vierbeins  $e^a_{\mu}$  – an easier calculation happens. To emphasise this latter remark, note that eq.(8) is just one example of a more general cylindrically symmetric solution discussed recently by Trendafilova and Fulling[9] namely,

$$ds^{2} = -r^{2a}dt^{2} + r^{2(a+b)}dr^{2} + r^{2}d\theta^{2} + r^{2b}dz^{2}$$
(17)

with the parameters a, b being solutions of ab = -(a+b). Continuing, it is easy to check that the form of  $H_2$  with the appropriate  $e_{\mu}^a$  for

$$ds^{2} = \frac{r^{2}}{b^{2}}c^{2}dt^{2} - \frac{r}{b}dr^{2} - r^{2}d\theta^{2} - \frac{b}{r}dz^{2}$$
(18)

with b a constant in (18) has the same infirmity as that with the spherically symmetric metric of Schwarzschild[7]; in conclusion, eqs.(8) and (18) are just special cases of

$$ds^{2} = r^{j}c^{2}dt^{2} - r^{(j+k)}dr^{2} - r^{2}d\theta^{2} - r^{k}dz^{2}$$
(19)

where 2(j + k) = -jk, but the edge the former has over the latter for the derivation reported here spurs a second look at (16) using Ref.3 to determine the one-loop corrected propagator in curved space-time; this will be dealt with elsewhere.

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