ZETA FUNCTIONS OF GRAPHS WITH $\ensuremath{\mathbb{Z}}$ actions

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ABSTRACT. Suppose Y is a regular covering of a graph X with covering transformation group $\pi = \mathbb{Z}$. This paper gives an explicit formula for the L^2 zeta function of Y and computes examples. When $\pi = \mathbb{Z}$, the L^2 zeta function is an algebraic function. As a consequence it extends to a meromorphic function on a Riemann surface. The meromorphic extension provides a setting to generalize known properties of zeta functions of regular graphs, such as the location of singularities and the functional equation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Given a finite graph, there is a zeta function which encodes some of the combinatorics of the graph. The zeta function was defined by Ihara and extended by Hashimoto and then Bass. Stark and Terras [6] give a fine introduction to the subject taking a geometric approach.

There is an analogous zeta function for any infinite graph with cofinite action of a discrete group. Let Y = (VY, EY) be a locally finite (but typically infinite) graph and suppose the group π acts freely on Y with finite quotient graph X. Let P denote the set of free homotopy classes of primitive closed paths in Y. For $\gamma \in P$, $\ell(\gamma)$ is the length of the shortest representative of γ . The group π_{γ} is the stabilizer of γ under the action of π . The L^2 zeta function of Y is the infinite product

$$Z_Y^{(2)}(u)^{-1} = \prod_{\gamma \in \pi \setminus P} \left(1 - u^{\ell(\gamma)} \right)^{\frac{1}{|\pi_\gamma|}}.$$
 (1.1)

This definition was first given in [2] as a specialization from a more general setting, but beware that the notation Z in [2] refers to the reciprocal of the zeta function considered here and elsewhere in the literature. See [5] for a more direct treatment of the case considered here.

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For finite graphs, the fundamental theorem is the Ihara-Hashimoto-Bass rationality formula, which says that the zeta function is the reciprocal of a polynomial. The analogous theorem for infinite graphs requires techniques of von Neumann algebras. The infinite graph result is formally similar, and implies convergence of (1.1), but the L^2 zeta function is not typically a rational function.

Let δ be the adjacency operator of Y acting on $l^2(VY)$. For $f \in l^2(VY)$ let Qf(v) = q(v)f(v) where q(v) + 1 is the degree of the vertex v. Put $\Delta_u = I - \delta u + Qu^2$. Then from [2, Theorem 0.3],

$$Z_Y^{(2)}(u)^{-1} = (1 - u^2)^{-\chi(X)} \operatorname{Det}_{\pi} \Delta_u$$
(1.2)

where Det_{π} is a von Neumann determinant defined in [2]. In particular, the product in (1.1) converges for small u (which was not a priori obvious).

In this paper, the only group considered is $\pi = \mathbb{Z}$, so that $X = Y/\mathbb{Z}$. Theorem 2.2 computes $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ in this case. The main difficulties to overcome are the evaluation of a particular definite integral and careful bookeeping with branches of multi-valued complex functions.

The formula for $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ is algebraic, and Theorem 2.3 takes advantage of this to extend $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ to a meromorphic function \tilde{Z} defined on a compact Riemann surface S (which depends on Y). From another viewpoint, $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ is naturally a multi-valued meromorphic function defined on all of \mathbb{C} .

The surface S covers the Riemann sphere $\mathbb{C}P^1$ with branch points, and the branch points play a similar role for infinite graphs as the poles do for zeta functions of finite graphs. Specifically, Theorem 3.2 gives conditions for \tilde{Z} of a q + 1 regular graph Y to have all its branch points over the set

$$C = \{ u \in \mathbb{C} : |u| = q^{-1/2} \} \cup [-1, -\frac{1}{q}] \cup [\frac{1}{q}, 1].$$

C is exactly the set where poles may occur for zeta functions of finite q + 1 regular graphs.

The extension to \tilde{Z} gives a meaningful context for functional equations relating $u \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{au}$, and Section 3.1 explores these.

Finally, Section 4 gives a number of computations for specific Y.

This paper is intended as a model for how one might attack more general $\pi \neq \mathbb{Z}$. It is shown in [3] that for a *q*-regular graph, the L^2 zeta function always extends holomorphically to the interior of the set C. In the most optimistic scenario, the L^2 zeta function is always algebraic and therefore extends past C to a compact Riemann surface. More likely, one may need to allow noncompact surfaces with infinitely many sheets over $\mathbb{C}P^1$. In the worst scenario, the "branch points" could spread out continuously over C and prevent any further extension of domain. In any event, the explicit computation that provides the key here is not likely to unlock the more general case.

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1.1. Group Von Neumann Algebras. For completeness, here is a quick overview of relevant material from von Neumann algebras. For π a countable discrete group, the von Neumann algebra of π is the algebra $\mathcal{N}(\pi)$ of bounded π -equivariant operators from $l^2(\pi)$ to $l^2(\pi)$.

The von Neumann trace of an element $f \in \mathcal{N}(\pi)$ is defined by

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{\pi} f = \langle f(e), e \rangle$$

for $e \in \pi$ the unit element. The group ring $\mathbb{C}[\pi]$ is contained in $\mathcal{N}(\pi)$, acting on $l^2(\pi)$ by right multiplication. It is a dense subspace. The trace of an element of the group ring is simply the coefficient of the identity.

For $H = \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} l^2(\pi)$ and a bounded π -equivariant operator $f: H \to H$, define

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{\pi} f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Tr}_{\pi} f_{ii}$$

The trace as defined is independent of the decomposition of H. The determinant $\operatorname{Det}_{\pi} \Delta(Y, u)$ is defined via formal power series as $(\operatorname{Exp} \circ \operatorname{Tr}_{\pi} \circ \operatorname{Log})\Delta(Y, u)$ and converges for small u.

Example 1.1. When $\pi = \mathbb{Z}$, Fourier transform identifies $l^2(\mathbb{Z})$ with $L^2(S^1)$. An element $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n t^n \in \mathcal{N}(\pi)$ transforms to multiplication by $f(\theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{in\theta}$, and

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{\pi} f = \langle f \cdot 1, 1 \rangle = \int_{S^1} f(\theta) d\theta = c_0.$$

2. Graphs with \mathbbm{Z} actions

We assume $\pi = \mathbb{Z} = \langle t \rangle$, the free abelian group on one generator t. Suppose $X = Y/\mathbb{Z}$ has v vertices. Choosing lifts of these vertices to Y, we identify

$$l^2(VY) = \bigoplus_v l^2(Z)$$

and the adjacency operator δ is then a $v \times v$ matrix with entries in the group ring $\mathbb{Z}[\langle t \rangle]$. Since δ is self-adjoint, it satisfies $\delta(t) = \delta(t^{-1})^T$. Similarly, $\Delta_u(t) = \Delta_u(t^{-1})^T$ (but beware that Δ_u is not generally self-adjoint). Therefore, $\text{Det} \Delta_u \in \mathbb{C}[\langle t \rangle]$ is symmetric in t and t^{-1} , and we can write $\text{Det} \Delta_u = P_u(\frac{t+t^{-1}}{2})$ for some polynomial P_u . The coefficients of P_u are integer polynomials in u.

We know in general that $\text{Det}_{\pi} \Delta_u$ is idependent of the choice of lifts of vertices, but here it is very clear, since choosing a different lift will multiply a row by t^k and the corresponding column by t^{-k} (for some k). In particular, P_u depends only on Y and the \mathbb{Z} action.

Now, under Fourier transform, $\bigoplus_{v} l^2(Z) = \bigoplus_{v} L^2(S^1)$. Here $S^1 = \{e^{i\theta} | \theta \in (-\pi, \pi]\}$ with measure normalized to have total measure 1. Under Fourier transform, multiplication by t becomes multiplication by the function $e^{i\theta}$, and hence Δ_u is represented by a $v \times v$ matrix which will be denoted $M_u(\theta)$. To compute the zeta function,

$$Det_{\pi} \Delta_u = \exp \operatorname{Tr}_{\pi} \operatorname{Log}(\Delta_u) \tag{2.1}$$

$$= \exp \int_{S^1} \operatorname{Tr} \operatorname{Log}(M_u(\theta)) d\theta \qquad (2.2)$$

$$= \exp \int_{S^1} \log \det(M_u(\theta)) d\theta \qquad (2.3)$$

$$= \exp \int_{S^1} \log P_u(\cos(\theta)) d\theta.$$
 (2.4)

2.1. The Line. To proceed further, we work out a crucial example. Let $VY = \mathbb{Z}$, and connnect n to n + 1 with an edge (so Y is a line). Then

$$\Delta_u = 1 - (t + t^{-1})u + u^2,$$

$$M_u(\theta) = 1 - 2\cos(\theta)u + u^2,$$

and

$$P_u(x) = 1 - 2ux + u^2.$$

Notice that for |u| < 1 and for all θ , $M_u(\theta) \notin (-\infty, 0]$. In what follows, log will be the principal branch of the logarithm.

Now restrict to |u| < 1. Because Y has no loops, the L^2 zeta function for Y is identically 1. Therefore, by [2, Theorem 0.3]

$$1 = (1 - u^2)^0 \operatorname{Det}_{\pi} \Delta_u$$

= $\exp \int_{S^1} \log(1 - 2u\cos(\theta) + u^2) d\theta$ (2.5)

$$= \exp \int_{S^1} \log(2u) + \log(\frac{u+u^{-1}}{2} - \cos(\theta))d\theta$$
 (2.6)

$$= 2u \exp \int_{S^1} \log(r - \cos(\theta)) d\theta.$$
(2.7)

Here, we have assumed $u \neq 0$ and put $r = (u + u^{-1})/2$. Generally, some care must be taken when writing $\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$. If $u \in (-1, 0)$, then $r - \cos(\theta) < 0$ and the identity is off by $2\pi i$. However, the $2\pi i$ is washed out by the exp in front. For other values of u there is no problem, because the imaginary parts of u and rhave opposite sign.

Notice that $r = \cosh(-\log(u))$, so that $u = e^{-\operatorname{arccosh}(r)}$. Here, arccosh has a branch cut discontinuity on $(-\infty, 1]$ and range $\{a + bi | a > 0, b \in (-\pi, \pi]\} \cup [0, \pi]i$.

Proposition 2.1. Suppose $r \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

$$\int_{S^1} \log(r - \cos(\theta)) d\theta = \operatorname{arccosh}(r) - \log(2).$$
(2.8)

Proof. The discussion above proves that for $r \in \mathbb{C} - [-1, 1]$,

$$\exp \int_{S^1} \log(r - \cos(\theta)) d\theta = \frac{1}{2} e^{\operatorname{arccosh}(r)}.$$

Taking the log of both sides,

$$\int_{S^1} \log(r - \cos(\theta)) d\theta = \operatorname{arccosh}(r) - \log(2)$$
(2.9)

In principle, this is only true up to $2\pi i k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. However, k must be zero since both log and arccosh have imaginary part in the range $(-\pi, \pi]$.

Now we extend (2.9) to all of \mathbb{C} . We check the imaginary part explicitly. For $r \in [-1,1]$, put $r = \cos(\phi), \phi \in [0,\pi]$. Then $\Im(\operatorname{arccosh}(r) - \log 2) = \phi$. On the

other hand, $\arg(r - \cos(\theta)) = \pi$ when $\cos(\theta) > r$ and is 0 otherwise. Therefore,

$$\int_{S^1} \Im(\log(r - \cos(\theta))) d\theta = \int_{S^1} \arg(r - \cos(\theta)) d\theta$$
(2.10)

$$= \pi \cdot m\{\theta | \cos(\theta) > \cos(\phi)\}$$
(2.11)

$$=\pi \cdot \frac{2\phi}{2\pi} = \phi. \tag{2.12}$$

Next, consider the real part of (2.9). The real part of the left hand side is

$$\int_{S^1} \log |r - \cos(\theta)| d\theta.$$

It is not hard to see that this integral is finite even for $r \in [-1, 1]$. On the other hand, $\Re(\operatorname{arccosh}(r) - \log 2)$ is a continuous function on all of \mathbb{C} (and equals $-\log 2$ on [-1, 1]). Thus the two sides are defined on all of \mathbb{C} , equal on $\mathbb{C} - [-1, 1]$, and the right side is continuous.

Now, for $r \in [-1, 1], n = 1, 2, ...$ put

$$f_n(\theta) = \log |r - \cos(\theta) + i/n|.$$

The f_n are a decreasing sequence of functions, bounded above (by $\sqrt{5}$), and converging a.e. to $\log |r - \cos(\theta)|$. By the Monotone Convergence Theorem,

$$-\log 2 = \lim_{n \to \infty} \Re(\operatorname{arccosh}(r+i/n) - \log 2)$$
(2.13)

$$=\lim_{n\to\infty}\int_{S^1}f_n(\theta)d\theta$$
(2.14)

$$= \int_{S^1} \log |r - \cos(\theta)| d\theta, \qquad (2.15)$$

Remark 1. Computing the integral in (2.8) is a good, difficult calculus exercise for r > 1. I know of no elementary way to compute it in general.

Remark 2. The inverse hyperbolic cosine function satisfies

$$\operatorname{arccosh}(r) = \log\left(r + \sqrt{r+1}\sqrt{r-1}\right)$$

where the principal branches of arccosh, log, and \sqrt{z} are used. In particular, $\Re(\operatorname{arccosh}(r)) = \log |r + \sqrt{r+1}\sqrt{r-1}|$ is a continuous function. Taking the real part of both sides of (2.8) gives the integral

$$\int_{S^1} \log|r - \cos(\theta)| d\theta = \log \frac{1}{2} \left| r + \sqrt{r+1}\sqrt{r-1} \right|.$$
 (2.16)

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for all $r \in \mathbb{C}$.

2.2. The explicit formula.

Theorem 2.2. Let Y be a regular \mathbb{Z} covering of a finite graph X. Let $P_u(x)$ be the degree n polynomial so that

$$\det \Delta_u = P_u\left(\frac{t+t^{-1}}{2}\right).$$

There is R > 0 so that for all 0 < |u| < R,

$$Z_Y^{(2)}(u)^{-1} = (1 - u^2)^{-\chi(X)} \frac{\alpha(u)}{2^n} \prod_i \left(r_i + \sqrt{r_i + 1} \sqrt{r_i - 1} \right).$$
(2.17)

Here $P_u(x) = \alpha(u) \prod_{i=1}^n (r_i(u) - x)$, and $r_i(u)$ are the roots of P_u . The square roots are principal, in the sense that $\sqrt{z} = \exp(\frac{1}{2}\log(z))$.

Proof. The polynomial $(-1)^n \alpha(u)$ is the coefficient of the top degree term x^n of P_u . Since $P_0 = 1$, 0 is a root of α . There is $R_1 > 0$ with $\alpha(u) \neq 0$ on $0 < |u| < R_1$, and so one can write $P_u(x) = \alpha(u) \prod_{i=1}^n (r_i(u) - x)$.

From (1.2), one need only compute $\text{Det}_{\pi} \Delta_u$. There is a subtle point involving the log of a product, but the heart of the argument is the computation below, which begins with (2.4), and uses Proposition 2.1:

$$\operatorname{Det}_{\pi} \Delta_u = \exp \int_{S^1} \log P_u(\cos(\theta)) d\theta$$
(2.18)

$$= \exp \int_{S^1} \log \alpha(u) \prod_{i=1}^n (r_i(u) - \cos(\theta)) d\theta$$
(2.19)

$$= \exp\left(\log\alpha(u) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{S^1} \log(r_i(u) - \cos(\theta)) d\theta\right)$$
(2.20)

$$= \exp\left(\log\alpha(u) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\operatorname{arccosh}(r_i) - \log(2))\right)$$
(2.21)

$$= \frac{\alpha(u)}{2^n} \prod_i \exp(\operatorname{arccosh}(r_i))$$
(2.22)

$$= \frac{\alpha(u)}{2^n} \prod_i \left(r_i + \sqrt{r_i + 1}\sqrt{r_i - 1} \right).$$
 (2.23)

It remains to justify the transition from (2.19) to (2.20).

Write

$$\log P_u(x) = \log \alpha(u) + \sum_{i=1}^n \log(r_i(u) - x) + 2\pi i k(u, x).$$
 (2.24)

The function k(u, x) is always an integer. We will show that k(u, x) = k(u) is independent of $x \in [-1, 1]$ and therefore pulls through the integral in (2.19) to be eaten by the exp.

Since $\Delta_u = I - \delta u + Qu^2$, we can write $P_u(x) = 1 + uT_u(x)$ for some polynomial *T*. Then there is $R_2 > 0$ so that for $|u| < R_2$ and $x \in [-1, 1]$ we have $\Re(P_u(x)) > 0$. Therefore, $\log(P_u(x))$ is a continuous function of $x \in [-1, 1]$.

In addition, for $0 < |u| < R_2$, we see that $P_u(x)$ has no roots on [-1,1], *i.e.* $r_i(u) \notin [-1,1]$. Therefore $\log(r_i(u) - x)$ is a continuous function of $x \in [-1,1]$ (since we're using the principal branch of the logarithm).

We have shown that all other terms in (2.24) are continuous functions of x, and therefore k(u, x) is a continuous function of x on [-1, 1], hence constant in x.

Setting
$$R = \min\{R_1, R_2\}$$
 completes the proof.

2.3. The meromorphic extension. From Theorem 2.2, it is apparent that $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ is an algebraic function of u. In this section, we make this more explicit and then explore the consequences.

Let
$$s_i = \sqrt{r_i + 1}\sqrt{r_i - 1}$$
, and for $I = (\iota_1, \dots, \iota_n) \in \{\pm 1\}^n = \mathbb{Z}_2^n$, put
$$W_I = \prod_{i=1}^n r_i + \iota_i s_i.$$

Note that $(r_i + s_i)(r_i - s_i) = 1$ so that $W_I^{-1} = W_{-I}$. Theorem 2.2 then says that

$$Z_Y^{(2)}(u) = (1 - u^2)^{\chi(X)} \frac{2^n}{\alpha(u)} W_{-1, -1, \dots, -1}.$$
(2.25)

Let

$$\Omega(T) = \prod_{I \in \mathbb{Z}_2^n} (T - W_I).$$
(2.26)

Then Ω is a polynomial in T of degree 2^n . It is invariant under the transformation $s_i \to -s_i$, hence it is even degree in each s_i . We can replace s_i^2 with $r_i^2 - 1$ so that Ω is a degree n polynomial in r_i , symmetric in the r_i . This means that Ω is in fact a polynomial in the elementary symmetric functions $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$ of the r_i , for example:

$$\Omega(T) = \begin{cases} T^2 - 2T\sigma_1 + 1 & \text{for } n = 1, \\ T^4 - 4T^3\sigma_2 + T^2\left(-2 + 4\sigma_1^2 - 8\sigma_2\right) - 4T\sigma_2 + 1 & \text{for } n = 2, \end{cases}$$
(2.27)

and when n = 3,

$$\Omega(T) = T^8 - 8T^7 \sigma_3 + T^6 \left(4 - 8\sigma_1^2 + 16\sigma_2 + 16\sigma_2^2 - 32\sigma_1\sigma_3\right) - T^5 \left(-40\sigma_3 + 32\sigma_1^2\sigma_3 - 64\sigma_2\sigma_3\right) + T^4 \left(6 - 16\sigma_1^2 + 16\sigma_1^4 + 32\sigma_2 - 64\sigma_1^2\sigma_2 + 32\sigma_2^2 + 64\sigma_1\sigma_3 + 64\sigma_3^2\right) - \dots - 8T\sigma_3 + 1$$
(2.28)

using the symmetry of coefficients to finish (roots of Ω occur in reciprocal pairs).

Since the r_i are the roots of P_u ,

$$\sigma_i = (-1)^{n-i} \left(\text{the } n - i^{\text{th}} \text{ coefficient of } \frac{P_u}{\alpha(u)} \right).$$

Thus σ_i is a rational function of u, and so $\Omega \in \mathbb{C}(u)[T]$.

We have shown that W_I and therefore $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ are algebraic functions of u of degree less than or equal to 2^n .

Theorem 2.3. Let Y be a regular $\mathbb{Z} = \pi$ covering of a finite graph X. Then $Z_Y^{(2)}(u)$ extends uniquely to a meromorphic function on a Riemann surface.

More precisely, there exists a compact Riemann surface S, a (branched) covering map $\Pi : S \to \mathbb{C}P^1$, and a meromorphic function \tilde{Z} on S. There is a point $z_0 \in$ $\Pi^{-1}(0)$ and a neighborhood U of z_0 on which Π is biholomorphic such that $\tilde{Z}(z) =$ $Z_Y^{(2)}(\Pi(z))$ for all $z \in U$.

The triple (S, Π, \tilde{Z}) is unique in the following sense: If (S', Π', \tilde{Z}') has the corresponding properties, then there exists exactly one fiber preserving biholomorphic mapping $\tau : S \to S'$ such that $\tilde{Z} = \tilde{Z}' \circ \tau$.

Remark 3. The number of sheets of Π is less than or equal to 2^n , where n is the degree of the polynomial P_u defined earlier.

Proof. Define W_I and Ω as above. The difficult work is finished, as we showed already that W_I is algebraic. Since $W_{-1,-1,\dots,-1}$ is holomorphic in a neighborhood of 0 and $\Omega(W_{-1,-1,\dots,-1}) = 0$, there is a unique irreducible factor $\Phi \in \mathbb{C}(u)[T]$ with

$$\Phi(W_{-1,-1,\dots,-1}) = 0. \tag{2.29}$$

in a neighborhood of 0.

The algebraic function defined by $\Phi(T)$ consists of S and Π as above, plus a meromorphic function f on S such that $(\Pi^*\Phi)(f) = 0$. It is unique in the sense of fiber preserving biholomorphic mappings as above (see [4, I.8] for details).

Since $W_{-1,-1,\dots,-1}$ is holomorphic in a neighborhood of 0, there is a point $z_0 \in \Pi^{-1}(0)$ and a neighborhood U of z_0 on which Π is biholomorphic with $f(z) = W_{-1,-1,\dots,-1}(\Pi(z))$ for $z \in U$.

For $z \in S$, let $u = \Pi(z)$ and put

$$\tilde{Z}(z) = (1 - u^2)^{\chi(X)} \frac{2^n}{\alpha(u)} f(z).$$
(2.30)

to complete the proof.

3. Regular graphs

In this section, assume that X is q + 1 regular.

3.1. Functional Equations. The zeta function for finite regular graphs satisifies a number of functional equations under the transformation

$$\tau: u \to \frac{1}{qu}$$

(see [6]). The situation for L^2 zeta functions is somewhat less simple.

First notice that

$$\Delta_{1/qu} = I - \delta \frac{1}{qu} + q \frac{1}{(qu)^2} = \frac{1}{qu^2} \left(I - \delta u + qu^2 \right) = \frac{1}{qu^2} \Delta_u.$$

Then the polynomial $P_{1/qu}(x)$ has the same roots r_1, \ldots, r_n as $P_u(x)$. Since Ω and $W_{-1,-1,\ldots,-1}$ are symmetric functions of the r's, they are invariant under τ .

Suppose Ω is irreducible, so that the L^2 zeta function is defined on the Riemann surface S for Ω by (2.30). Then the transformation $u \to \frac{1}{qu}$ induces a biholomorphic involution $\tilde{\tau} : S \to S$ so that $f \circ \tilde{\tau} = f$. It is then easy to find functional equations for \tilde{Z} . For example:

Proposition 3.1. Suppose X is q + 1-regular and Ω is irreducible. For $z \in S$ put $u = \Pi(z)$. Then

$$\left(\tilde{Z}\circ\tilde{\tau}\right)(z) = q^{2e-v}u^{2e}\left(\frac{1-u^2}{q^2u^2-1}\right)^{-\chi}\tilde{Z}(z).$$
(3.1)

Here v and e are the number of vertices and edges of X, and $\chi = \chi(X) = v - e$. (Compare [1, Cor 3.10])

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Proof. This is a straightforward calculation using $f \circ \tilde{\tau} = f$, equation (2.30), and

$$\alpha(\frac{1}{qu}) = \left(\frac{1}{qu^2}\right)^v \alpha(u).$$

If Ω is reducible, one gets a collection of disjoint Riemann surfaces S_1, \ldots, S_k and the map $\tilde{\tau}$ may permute them. We are interested in \tilde{Z} on a particular choice S, and so it will not satisfy a functional equation in any traditional sense. The line (example 4.1) is a good example of this.

3.2. Location of branch points. The zeta function for a finite, q + 1 regular graph has all of its poles in the set

$$C = \{ u \in \mathbb{C} : |u| = q^{-1/2} \} \cup [-1, -\frac{1}{q}] \cup [\frac{1}{q}, 1].$$

For the L^2 zeta function, we can make a slightly weaker statement for branch points.

Theorem 3.2. Let Y be a regular $\mathbb{Z} = \pi$ covering of a finite graph X. Suppose that X is q + 1 regular. Let Ω be the polynomial defined in (2.26), and assume Ω is irreducible. If the field extension $\mathbb{C}(u)[T]/(\Omega(T)) : \mathbb{C}(u)$ is Galois, then the covering Π from Theorem 2.3 has all of its branch points over C.

Proof. Let D_0 and D_∞ be the connected components of $\mathbb{C} - C$. The L^2 zeta function $Z_{\pi}(Y, u)$ extends holomorphically to D_0 , so the neighborhood U from Theorem 2.3 must also extend to cover D_0 with no branch points. The field extension $\mathbb{C}(u)[T]/(\Phi(T)) : \mathbb{C}(u)$ is Galois if and only if the deck transformations of S over $\mathbb{C}P^1$ act transitively on the sheets of S ([4, pg. 57]). Then $\Pi^{-1}(D_0)$ is a union of copies of U and has no branch points. The involution $\tilde{\tau}$ from the functional equation biholomorphically interchanges $\Pi^{-1}D_0$ with $\Pi^{-1}D_\infty$, so that Π can only be branched on C.

In example 4.3, we will see a graph for which the L^2 zeta function is branched over 0 and the deck transformations of S are not transitive.

The assumption that Ω is irreducible is less well motivated. As in example 4.4, the zeta function for a graph with reducible Ω will still satisfy a functional equation if $\tilde{\tau}$ perserves S.

The following argument gives hope for a close relationship between branch points of \tilde{Z} for Y and zeros of Z(X). To compute the zeta function Z(X) of the quotient graph $X = Y/\mathbb{Z}$, one takes the determinant of $\Delta_X(u) = I - \delta_X u + Qu^2$, where δ_X is the adjacency operator on X. Poles of Z(X) occur when det $\Delta_X(u) = 0$. But δ_X is equal to δ on Y under $t \to 1$, and so poles of Z(X) occur when $P_u(1) = 0$, or equivalently when some root $r_i(u) = 1$.

If $r_i(u) = 1$ then the terms $r_i \pm \sqrt{r_i + 1}\sqrt{r_i - 1}$ coincide. In other words, two roots of Ω coincide at any u where Z(X) has a pole – a necessary condition for Sto be branched over u.

Frequently, branch points of \tilde{Z} do coincide with poles of Z(X). However, examples in the next section show that both possible implications are false in general.

4. Examples

Example 4.1 (The Line). Let Y be the line, as in Section 2.1. We saw earlier that

$$P_u(x) = 1 + u^2 - 2ux.$$

Then $\alpha(u) = 2u$ and $r(u) = \frac{1+u^2}{2u}$. From (2.27), we have

$$\Omega(T) = T^2 - T\frac{1+u^2}{u} + 1 = \frac{(T-u)(Tu-1)}{u}.$$

Here Ω is reducible. Some careful computation shows that

$$W_{-1}(u) = \frac{1+u^2}{2u} - \sqrt{\frac{1+u^2}{2u} + 1}\sqrt{\frac{1+u^2}{2u} - 1} = \begin{cases} u & \text{if } |u| < 1\\ 1/u & \text{if } |u| > 1 \end{cases}$$
(4.1)

so $\Phi(T) = T - u$, the Riemann surface S is $\mathbb{C}P^1$, f(u) = u, and the zeta function is $2f/\alpha = 1$.

Notice that the transformation $\tau : u \to \frac{1}{qu}$ (here q = 1) interchanges the two irreducible surfaces. On the other surface, the analog of \tilde{Z} is u^2 , and in fact the functional equation (3.1) becomes

$$u^2 = 1^{2 \cdot 1 - 1} u^{2 \cdot 1} \cdot 1 \cdot 1.$$

Example 4.2 (Some degree 1 graphs). Let Y be the first graph shown in Table 4 (all these graphs take the obvious \mathbb{Z} action). Y is 4-regular, so q = 3. It's quotient graph X is a vertex with two loops, and $\chi(X) = -1$.

The adjacency matrix for Y is the 1×1 matrix $(t^{-1} + 2 + t)$. Then $P(x) = -2ux + 1 - 2u + 3u^2$ which has the one root shown in the table. From (2.27),

$$\Omega(T) = T^2 - u^{-1}(1 - 2u + 3u^2)T + 1$$

which is irreducible.

The associated Riemann surface S is a two sheeted branched cover of $\mathbb{C}P^1$. Possible branch points occur when the discriminant of Ω vanishes, which happens in this case at

$$u = 1, u = \frac{1}{3}, u = \frac{i}{\sqrt{3}}, u = \frac{-i}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

Here, all four are in fact branch points of multiplicity 2. The pattern of branch points is shown the table, and the set C is also indicated.

The Riemann-Hurwitz formula gives the genus of a branched covering of $\mathbb{C}P^1$ as g = b/2 - d + 1 with d the number of sheets and b the total branching order. For this graph the genus is 1 and S is a torus.

Other lines of Table 4 give the results of similar computations for different Y with n = 1. In all cases, $\Omega(T) = T^2 - 2rT + 1$ is irreducible, S is a two sheeted branch cover, and all branch points are multiplicity 2.

Graph #3 is an example in which poles of the zeta function for the quotient graph do not correspond to branch points of S. In this graph #3 of the table, $r(-\frac{1}{4} \pm \frac{i}{4}\sqrt{7}) = 1$, but these are not branch points of the L^2 zeta function.

Graphs #2,4, and 5 are bipartite and have vertical bilateral symmetry. Graphs #4 and 5 have different zeta functions because they have different α and different χ .

Graph #6 is non-regular. It's branch points are shown with circles of radius $1/\sqrt{2}$ and $1/\sqrt{3}$ for scale.

Example 4.3 (A regular graph with branch point off of C). Consider the 4-regular graph Y with vertices $\mathbb{Z} \cup \mathbb{Z}$ as shown in Figure 4.3. The adjacency matrix of Y is

$$\delta = \begin{pmatrix} t + t^{-1} & 1 + t^{-1} \\ 1 + t & t + t^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

 $P_u(x)$ is degree 2, and the two roots of P_u are

$$r_{\pm}(u) = \frac{1}{4u} \left(2 + u + 6u^2 \pm \sqrt{u(4 + 9u + 12u^2)} \right).$$

#	Graph	q	$\chi(X)$	r(u)	Branchpoints	Genus
1		3	-1	$\frac{1-2u+3u^2}{2u}$		1
2		4	-3	$\tfrac{1-9u^2+16u^4}{8u^2}$		3
3		2	-2	$\frac{1\!-\!u\!+\!u^2\!-\!3u^3\!+\!2u^4\!-\!4u^5\!+\!8u^6}{4u^3}$		3
4		3	-2	$\frac{1+3u^2}{4u}$		1
5		3	-1	$\frac{1+3u^2}{4u}$		1
6		NR	-2	$\frac{1 - u + u^2 - 3 u^3 + 6 u^4}{4 u^2}$		3

TABLE 1. Degree 1 Graphs

FIGURE 1. The graph and branchpoints for Example 4.3.

From (2.27), Ω is the irreducible degree 4 polynomial

$$\begin{split} \Omega(T) &= T^4 - \frac{1 + 4u^2 + 9u^4}{u^2} T^3 + \frac{2 + 4u + 15u^2 + 12u^3 + 18u^4}{u^2} T^2 \\ &- \frac{1 + 4u^2 + 9u^4}{u^2} T + 1. \end{split}$$

The Riemann surface S has four sheets covering $\mathbb{C}P^1$. Evaluating the discriminant of Ω , one has 10 points u where $Z_Y^{(2)}$ has duplicate values. Checking the local behavior near those 10 points and additionally near u = 0, $u = \infty$, one finds that S is unbranched at four of them. At

$$u \in \left\{1, \frac{1}{3}, \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{3}}\right\},\,$$

sheets of S come together in two pairs of multiplicity two branch points. At

$$u = \left\{ 0, -\frac{9}{24} \pm \frac{i}{24}\sqrt{111}, \infty \right\},$$

one pair of sheets come together in a multiplicity two branch point and the other two sheets are unbranched. The pattern of branchpoints is shown in Figure 4.3, and the genus of S is 3.

The most interesting thing here is that the zeta function is branched over 0 and ∞ , which are not in the set C. Of course, the sheet corresponding to the original unextended definition of $Z_Y^{(2)}$ is not one of the two sheets that come together at u = 0. The group of deck transformations of S is not transitive, and the field extension $\mathbb{C}(u)[T]/(\Omega(T)):\mathbb{C}(u)$ is not Galois.

Example 4.4 (A nontrivial reducible graph). Let Y have vertices $\mathbb{Z} \cup \mathbb{Z} \cup \mathbb{Z}$ connected as shown in Figure 4.4. It is the graph Cartesian product of the line with a triangle.

Here Ω factors into a fourth degree term and the square of a quadratic. The factor Φ corresponding to $Z_Y^{(2)}$ is the fourth degree term, so S is four sheeted. There are twelve branch points:

$$u \in \left\{\frac{1}{3}, 1, \frac{\pm i}{\sqrt{3}}, \frac{-3 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{6}, \frac{\pm 1 \pm i\sqrt{11}}{6}, -\frac{1}{4} + \frac{\sqrt{\frac{7}{3}}}{4} \pm \frac{i}{2}\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{\frac{7}{3}}}{2}}\right\},$$

shown in Figure 4.4. At each u, sheets come together in two pairs of multiplicity two branch points, so the genus of S is 9.

Even though Ω is reducible, all branch points still lie on the set C. Here $Z_Y^{(2)}$ must still satisfy the functional equation (3.1), because the involution $\tilde{\tau}$ preserves S - the other two irreducible factors of Ω are degree 2 while Φ is degree 4.

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