

## The Gamma function

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I attempt here a somewhat unorthodox introduction to the Gamma function. My principal references here are [Schwartz:1965]. and [Tate:1950/1967].

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### 1. Characters as distributions

The Schwartz space  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  is the space of all smooth functions  $f$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that

$$f^{(n)}(x) \ll (1 + |x|)^{-N}$$

for all  $n, N \geq 0$  or, equivalently, for which

$$\|f\|_{N,n} = \sup_{\mathbb{R}} (1 + |x|)^N |f^{(n)}(x)| < \infty$$

for all non-negative integers  $N, n$ . It is a Fréchet space with these semi-norms. It contains as closed subspaces the spaces  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  (resp.  $\mathcal{S}(-\infty, 0)$ ) of functions that vanish identically for  $x \leq 0$  (resp.  $x \geq 0$ ), and as quotient the space  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  made up of restrictions to  $[0, \infty)$ .

The following elementary result will be useful many times:

**1.1. Lemma.** *If  $f$  is a smooth function defined in a neighbourhood  $U$  of 0 in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then for any  $m$  it may be expressed as*

$$f(x) = \sum_{k < m} f^{(k)}(0) \frac{x^k}{k!} + x^m f_m(x)$$

where  $f_m$  is a smooth function defined on  $U$ .

*Proof.* The fundamental theorem of calculus tells us that

$$f(x) - f(0) = \int_0^x f'(s) ds.$$

An easy estimate tells us that the integral is  $O(x)$ , but a simple trick will do better. If we set  $s = tx$  this equation becomes

$$f(x) = f(0) + x \int_0^1 f'(tx) dt,$$

and the integral

$$f_1(x) = \int_0^1 f'(tx) dt$$

is a smooth function of  $x$ . Induction gives us

$$f(x) = \sum_{k < m} c_k x^k + x^m f_m(x)$$

with  $f_m(x)$  smooth. An easy calculation tells us that  $c_k = f^{(k)}(0)/k!$ . ▮

### THE SCHWARTZ SPACE OF THE POSITIVE REALS.

**1.2. Proposition.** *The space  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  is that of all  $f$  in  $C^\infty(0, \infty)$  such that*

$$x^N f^{(n)}(x)$$

is bounded on  $(0, \infty)$  for all  $n \geq 0, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $f$  to lie in  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$ . Since  $f$  is in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ ,  $x^N f^{(n)}(x)$  is bounded for  $N \geq 0$ . But Lemma 1.1 implies that it remains true for  $N \leq 0$ . So the condition on  $f$  is necessary.

As for sufficiency, it must be shown that if this equation holds for all  $n, N \geq 0$  then  $f$  extends to a function smooth on all of  $\mathbb{R}$  vanishing on  $(-\infty, 0]$ . This is immediate from the definition of smoothness. ▮

Let  $D$  be the multiplicative derivative  $xd/dx$ .

**1.3. Corollary.** *The space  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  is the same as that of all  $f$  in  $C^\infty(0, \infty)$  such that*

$$x^N [D^n f](x)$$

is bounded on  $(0, \infty)$  for all  $n \geq 0, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**1.4. Corollary.** *For any  $s$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  multiplication by  $x^s$  is an isomorphism of  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  with itself.*

*Proof.* This follows from Leibniz's formula for  $(x^s f)^{(n)}$ . ▮

For every  $s$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  the integral

$$\langle \Phi_s, f \rangle = \int_0^\infty x^s f(x) \frac{dx}{x}$$

defines therefore a continuous linear functional on  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$ —in effect a distribution.

The multiplicative group  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}^\times$  of positive real numbers acts on both of the spaces  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$ , as well as on their continuous linear duals, by the formulas:

$$\mu_a f(x) = f(a^{-1}x), \quad \langle \mu_a \Phi, f \rangle = \langle \Phi, \mu_{a^{-1}} f \rangle.$$

The scale factor  $a^{-1}$  rather than  $a$  has been chosen for compatibility with linear representations of non-abelian groups. The Lie algebra of  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}^\times$  is spanned by the differential operator  $D = xd/dx$ , and the representations are smooth in the sense that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mu_{1+h} f - f}{h} = -Df.$$

in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ . The  $-$  sign here comes about because of the choice of  $a^{-1}$  rather than  $a$ . It will continue to annoy.

Differential operators act on distributions. If  $\Phi$  is a smooth function on  $(0, \infty)$  then integration by parts implies that

$$\langle \Phi', f \rangle = -\langle \Phi, f' \rangle$$

so we extend the definition of derivative to distributions accordingly. Hence

$$\langle L\Phi, f \rangle = \langle \Phi, L^* f \rangle$$

for any differential operator  $L$ , where  $L^*$  is its formal adjoint.

**1.5. Proposition.** *The distribution  $\Phi_s$  on  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  is an eigendistribution for  $\mu_a$  with eigencharacter  $a^{-s}$ . Furthermore  $D\Phi_s = s\Phi_s$ .*

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mu_a \Phi_s, f \rangle &= \langle \Phi_s, \mu_{a^{-1}} f \rangle \\ &= \int_0^\infty x^s f(ax) \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \int_0^\infty (y/a)^s f(y) \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= a^{-s} \int_0^\infty y^s f(y) \frac{dy}{y} \\ &= a^{-s} \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle \end{aligned}$$

so that  $\mu_a \Phi_s = a^{-s} \Phi_s$  as a distribution (as well as a function).

As for the second claim:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle D\Phi_s, f \rangle &= -\langle \Phi_s, Df \rangle \\ &= -\int_0^\infty x^s f'(x) dx \\ &= s \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} f(x) dx \\ &= s \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle \end{aligned}$$

This concludes the proof of the Lemma. ▮

There is a converse to this claim, and there is also a uniqueness theorem for eigendistributions. If  $f$  lies in  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$ , its **Mellin transform** is

$$\widehat{f}(s) = \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle.$$

It is uniformly bounded on any horizontally bounded strip  $|\operatorname{Re}(s)| \leq C$ . It is also holomorphic in all of  $\mathbb{C}$ , and

$$\widehat{Df} = s\widehat{f}.$$

It therefore belongs to the space  $PW(0, \infty)$ , the space of all function  $F(s)$  holomorphic on all of  $\mathbb{C}$  such that  $(1 + |\operatorname{Im}(s)|)^N |F(s)|$  is bounded on any horizontal strip  $|\operatorname{Re}(s)| \leq C$ , for all  $N \geq 0$ .

**1.6. Proposition.** *The map  $f \mapsto \widehat{f}$  is an isomorphism of  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  with  $PW(0, \infty)$ .*

*Proof.* One way is because  $D\Phi_s = s\Phi_s$ . The other way involves shifting contours. ▮

For any fixed  $s_0$  the image in  $\mathcal{M}(0, \infty)$  of multiplication by  $s - s_0$  is the subspace of  $F$  such that  $F(s_0) = 0$ , which is of codimension one. Hence the quotient  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)/(D - s)\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{C}$ , and

**1.7. Corollary.** *The space of distributions on  $(0, \infty)$  such that  $D\Phi = s\Phi$  is spanned by  $\Phi_s$ .*

**1.8. Corollary.** *The space of distributions on  $(0, \infty)$  such that  $\mu_a \Phi = a^{-s} \Phi$  for all  $a$  in  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}^\times$  is spanned by  $\Phi_s$ .*

**THE SCHWARTZ SPACE OF THE NON-NEGATIVE REALS.** Now define  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  to be the space of restrictions to the closed half-line  $[0, \infty)$  of functions in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ . It may be identified with the quotient  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})/\mathcal{S}(-\infty, 0)$ . The space  $\mathcal{S}(0, \infty)$  is embedded in it, and again the multiplicative group acts smoothly on it.

*Does there exist an eigendistribution on  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  extending  $\Phi_s$ ? An affirmative answer follows from:*

**1.9. Proposition.** For  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 0$

$$\int_0^\infty x^s f(s) \frac{dx}{x} = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{s(s+1)\dots(s+n)} \int_0^\infty x^{s+n} f^{(n+1)}(x) dx.$$

*Proof.* Integration by parts give us

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle &= \int_0^\infty x^s f(x) \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} f(x) dx \\ &= \left[ \frac{f(x)x^s}{s} \right]_0^\infty - \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty x^s f'(x) dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty x^{s+1} f'(x) \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= -\frac{1}{s} \langle \Phi_{s+1}, f' \rangle \end{aligned}$$

and continuing:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{s(s+1)} \langle \Phi_{s+2}, f'' \rangle \\ &\dots \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{s(s+1)\dots(s+n)} \langle \Phi_{s+(n+1)}, f^{(n+1)} \rangle. \quad \color{orange}{\blacksquare} \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence,  $\Phi_s$  may be defined on  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  for all  $s$  not in  $-\mathbb{N}$ . Thus for every  $s$  not in  $-\mathbb{N}$  we have an eigendistribution with eigencharacter  $x^{-s}$ . *Is it unique? What happens for  $s = -n$ ? Set  $s = -n + h$  in the Lemma. We get*


$$(1.10) \quad \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle = \frac{-1}{(n-h)(n-1-h)\dots(1-h)h} \int_0^\infty x^h f^{(n+1)}(x) dx.$$

Thus  $(s+n)\langle \Phi_s, f \rangle$  as  $s \rightarrow -n$  has limit

$$-\frac{1}{n!} \int_0^\infty f^{(n+1)}(x) dx = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}.$$

The distribution  $\delta_0$  is defined to take  $f$  to  $f(0)$ . Its derivative  $\delta_0^{(n)}$  takes  $f$  to  $(-1)^n f^{(n)}(0)$ . The residue of  $\Phi_s$  at  $s = -n$  is therefore  $(-1)^n \delta_0^{(n)}/n!$ .

**1.11. Lemma.** The distribution  $\delta_0^{(n)}$  is an eigendistribution for the character  $a^n$ .

*Proof.* Since  $f^{(n)}(ax) = a^n f^{(n)}(ax)$ . 

In other words, the character  $\Phi_s$  fails to be defined precisely when another eigencharacter arises. One way to understand the situation is by considering the short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}[0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[[x]] \rightarrow 0$$

where the last map is that taking  $f$  to its Taylor series at 0, surjective by a classic theorem of Émile Borel. If  $T = D - sI$  this gives rise to a long exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(0, \infty)(T) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}[0, \infty)(T) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[[x]](T) \\ \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(0, \infty)/T \cdot \mathcal{S}(0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}[0, \infty)/T \cdot \mathcal{S}(0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[[x]]/T \cdot \mathbb{C}[[x]] \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

Here  $V(T)$  is the subspace of  $v$  in  $V$  such that  $Tv = 0$ . The first two terms are always 0. When  $s$  does not belong to  $-\mathbb{N}$ , the third and sixth terms vanish, but when  $s$  does belong to  $-\mathbb{N}$  they are both of dimension one. ▣

**1.12. Proposition.** *The distribution  $\Phi_s$  on  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  is meromorphic on all of  $\mathbb{C}$  with residue  $(-1)^n \delta_0^{(n)}/n!$  at  $n$ . For each  $s$  not in  $-\mathbb{N}$  it is the unique eigendistribution on  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  for the character  $a^s$ . For  $s$  in  $-\mathbb{N}$  the distribution  $\delta_0^{(n)}$  spans the space of eigendistributions for  $a^n$ .*

Any function in  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  corresponds to the function (sometimes called its **Mellin transform**)

$$\widehat{f}(s) = \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle.$$

**1.13. Proposition.** *The function  $\widehat{f}$  is meromorphic on  $\mathbb{C}$  with simple poles on  $-\mathbb{N}$ . In any bounded vertical strip  $|\operatorname{Re}(s)| \leq C$  away from the real axis it is uniformly rapidly decreasing as a function of  $\operatorname{Im}(s)$ .*

This is because  $D\Phi_s = s\Phi_s$ . It is not hard to show that, conversely, any function satisfying these conditions is  $\widehat{f}$  for some  $f$  in  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$ .

I want now to look at (1.10) again. It can be rewritten and expanded in powers of  $h$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle &= -\frac{1}{h} \cdot \frac{1}{n!} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-h/n)(1-h/n-1)\dots(1-h)} \cdot \int_0^\infty e^{h \log x} f^{(n+1)}(x) dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{h} \cdot \frac{1}{n!} \cdot (1+h\Lambda_n + O(h^2)) \cdot \left( \int_0^\infty f^{(n+1)}(x) dx + h \int_0^\infty (\log x) f^{(n+1)}(x) dx + O(h^2) \right) \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\Lambda_n = 1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + \dots + 1/n.$$

We have already seen that the leading term is  $f^{(n)}(0)/n!$ , and now we see that the second term in the expansion is

$$-\frac{1}{n!} \left( \Lambda_n f^{(n)}(0) + \int_0^\infty (\log x) f^{(n+1)}(x) dx \right).$$

The integral can be expressed also as the limit as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$  of

$$\begin{aligned} \int_\varepsilon^\infty f^{(n+1)}(x) \log x dx &= \left[ f^{(n)}(x) \log x \right]_\varepsilon^\infty - \int_\varepsilon^\infty \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{x} dx \\ &= -f^{(n)}(\varepsilon) \log \varepsilon - \int_\varepsilon^\infty \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{x} dx \\ &= -f^{(n)}(0) \log \varepsilon - \int_\varepsilon^\infty \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{x} dx, \end{aligned}$$

since  $f(\varepsilon) - f(0) = O(\varepsilon)$  and  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon \log \varepsilon = 0$ . The second term in the Laurent expansion of  $\langle \Phi_s, f \rangle$  at  $s = -n$  is therefore also

$$(1.14) \quad \frac{1}{n!} \cdot \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left( f^{(n)}(0) \log \varepsilon - \Lambda_n f^{(n)}(0) + \int_\varepsilon^\infty \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{x} dx \right).$$

**THE SCHWARTZ SPACE OF THE REAL LINE.** The full multiplicative group  $\mathbb{R}^\times$  acts on its own Schwartz space  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^\times)$ , the subspace of functions in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  whose Taylor series at 0 vanish. We now have distributions

$$\langle \Phi_s^{[m]}, f \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) |x|^s \operatorname{sgn}^m(x) \frac{dx}{|x|}$$

for  $\operatorname{RE}(s) > 0$  and  $m = 0, 1$ , which are again eigen-distributions:

$$\mu_a \Phi_s^{[m]} = \operatorname{sgn}^m(a) |a|^{-s} \Phi_s^{[m]}.$$

We can express

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) |x|^s \operatorname{sgn}^m(x) \frac{dx}{|x|} &= (-1)^m \int_{-\infty}^0 x^s f(x) \frac{dx}{|x|} + \int_0^{\infty} x^s f(x) \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= (-1)^m \int_0^{\infty} x^s f(-x) \frac{dx}{x} + \int_0^{\infty} x^s f(x) \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \langle \Phi_s, f \rangle + (-1)^m \langle \Phi_s, f^- \rangle \\ &= \frac{(-1)^n}{s(s+1) \dots (s+n-1)} \langle \Phi_{s+n}, f^{(n)} + (-1)^m (f^-)^{(n)} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

which means that  $\Phi_s^{[m]}$  extends equivariantly and meromorphically to  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  over all of  $\mathbb{C}$  with residue

$$((-1)^m + (-1)^n) \frac{\delta_0^{(n)}}{n!}$$

at  $-n$ . In particular, there is no pole if the parity of  $m$  is different from the parity of  $n$ . In this case, because of (1.14) we get as value at  $-n$

$$\langle \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}), f \rangle = \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^{\infty} \left[ \frac{f^{(n)}(x) - f^{(n)}(-x)}{x} \right] dx$$

which always makes sense because the integrand is still a smooth function. For reasons we'll see in a moment this is called the **finite part** of  $1/x^{n+1}$ . This defines an extension to  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  of the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |x|^{-n-1} \operatorname{sgn}^{n-1}(x) f(x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^{-(n+1)} f(x) dx.$$

on  $\mathbb{R}^\times$ .

## 2. Parties finies

In order to understand the nature of certain eigenfunctions of  $D$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ , I now recall the notion of 'parties finies', introduced in [Hadamard:1923] in order to understand classical techniques for solving the wave equation in high dimensions.

The first important observation is that the Dirac distributions are eigendistributions. For  $n \geq 0$

$$D\delta_0^{(n)} = -n\delta_0^{(n)}.$$

There is, however, another distribution  $\Phi$  such that  $D\Phi = -n\Phi$ .

**2.1. Proposition.** *We have*

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_a \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}) &= a^n \operatorname{sgn}(a) \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}) \\ D \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}) &= -n \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}) \\ (d/dx) \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^n) &= -n \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}). \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* Left as exercise. ▮

The two distributions  $\delta_0^{(n)}$  and  $\text{Pf}(1/x^{n+1})$  span the space of eigendistributions  $\Phi$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $D\Phi = -m\Phi$ , or (equivalently)  $\mu_a\Phi = a^m\Phi$ , but they are distinguished by what  $\mu_{-1}$  does to them:

$$\mu_{-1}\delta_0^{(n)} = (-1)^n\delta_0^{(n)}, \quad \mu_{-1}\text{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}) = -(-1)^n\text{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}).$$

This has to be, of course, since a cohomological argument like the one we saw earlier shows that there at most one  $\mathbb{R}^\times$ -equivariant extension to all of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  of the distribution which on  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^\times)$  is given by the formula

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx.$$

I'll say more here about the construction of *parties finies* distributions. Suppose  $f$  in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ , and let

$$f(x) = f_0 + f_1x + f_2x^2 + \cdots$$

be its Taylor series at 0, so  $f_m = f^{(m)}(0)/m!$ . Then

$$\varphi_n(x) = \frac{f - (f_0 + xf_1 + \cdots + f_nx^n)}{x^{n+1}}$$

is still smooth throughout  $\mathbb{R}$ , although no longer in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx &= \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx + \int_1^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx \\ &= \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \frac{f_0 + f_1x + \cdots + f_nx^n}{x^{n+1}} dx + \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \varphi_n(x) dx + \int_1^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx. \end{aligned}$$

The last integral is independent of  $\varepsilon$ . As  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , the second integral has a finite limit. The first integral is

$$\begin{aligned} &\left[ -\frac{f_0}{nx^n} - \frac{f_1}{(n-1)x^{n-1}} - \cdots - f_n \log x \right]_{\varepsilon}^1 \\ &= -\frac{f_0}{n} - \frac{f_1}{(n-1)} - \cdots - f_{n-1} + \frac{f_0}{n\varepsilon^n} + \frac{f_1}{(n-1)\varepsilon^{n-1}} + \cdots + f_n \log \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the limit

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx - \left( \frac{f_0}{n\varepsilon^n} + \frac{f_1}{(n-1)\varepsilon^{n-1}} + \cdots + f_n \log \varepsilon \right)$$

exists, and agrees with  $\text{Pf}(1/x^{n+1})$ .

The distribution  $\text{Pf}(1/x^{n+1})$  on  $[0, \infty)$  does not behave equivariantly with respect to scalar multiplication, because of the  $\log \varepsilon$  term. But on  $\mathbb{R}$  the finite part is

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\varepsilon} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx + \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x^{n+1}} dx \right) - \left( \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \text{ odd}}}^n \frac{2f_{n-k}}{k\varepsilon^k} \right),$$

and it does behave well, because on  $(-\infty, 0]$   $\log \varepsilon$  is replaced by  $\log |\varepsilon|$ .

### 3. The Gamma function

One function in  $\mathcal{S}[0, \infty)$  is the restriction of  $f(x) = e^{-x}$  to  $[0, \infty)$ . The Gamma function is defined to be the integral

$$\Gamma(s) = \int_0^{\infty} x^s e^{-x} \frac{dx}{x} = \langle \Phi_s, e^{-x} \rangle.$$

for  $\operatorname{RE}(s) > 0$ . The argument extending  $\Phi_s$  in the last section is classical in this case. Since here  $f'(x) = -f(x)$ , we have the functional equation

$$\Gamma(s+1) = s\Gamma(s)$$

and since  $\Gamma(1) = 1$ , we see by induction that if  $s$  is a positive integer  $n$

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

The extension formula can be rewritten as

$$\Gamma(s) = \frac{\Gamma(s+1)}{s}$$

so that we can extend the definition of  $\Gamma(s)$  to the region  $\operatorname{RE}(s) > -1$ , except for  $s = 0$ . And so on. More explicitly we have

$$\Gamma(s) = \frac{\Gamma(s+n+1)}{(s+n)(s+n-1)\dots(s+1)s}$$

which allows  $\Gamma(s)$  to be defined for  $\operatorname{RE}(s) > -n-1$ , except at the negative integers, where it will have simple poles (of order one).

**Proposition.** For  $n \geq 0$  the residue of  $\Gamma(s)$  at  $-n$  is  $(-1)^n/n!$

Another formula for  $\Gamma(s)$  can be obtained by a change of variables  $t = \pi x^2$ :

$$\Gamma(s) = 2\pi^s \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} x^{2s} \frac{dx}{x}$$

which can also be written as

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) = \pi^{s/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^s e^{-\pi x^2} \frac{dx}{|x|}$$

or

$$\pi^{-s/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^s e^{-\pi x^2} \frac{dx}{|x|}.$$

This function of  $s$  is often expressed as  $\zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(s)$  because of its role in functional equations of  $\zeta$  functions.



#### 4. The volumes and areas of spheres

If we set  $s = 1$  in the formula for  $\zeta_{\mathbb{R}}$  at the end of the last section, we get

$$\pi^{-1/2}\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx.$$

The integral on the right cannot be evaluated as an improper integral, but there is a well known trick one can use to evaluate the infinite integral. We move into two dimensions. We can shift to polar coordinates and get

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\pi x^2} dx\right)^2 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\pi x^2} dx \cdot \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\pi y^2} dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-\pi(x^2+y^2)} dx dy \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} dr \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-\pi r^2} r d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} 2\pi r e^{-\pi r^2} dr \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} 2\sqrt{\pi} r e^{-\pi r^2} dr \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\pi r^2} (2\pi r) dr \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-s} ds \\ &= 1, \end{aligned}$$

so  $\pi^{-1/2}\Gamma(1/2) = 1$ , and  $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ .

We can use this formula and the same trick to find a formula for the volumes of spheres in  $n$  dimensions. Let  $S_{n-1}$  be the volume of the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-\pi x^2} dx\right)^n &= 1 \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{-\pi r^2} dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} S_{n-1} r^{n-1} e^{-\pi r^2} dr \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} S_{n-1} r^n e^{-\pi r^2} \frac{dr}{r} \\ &= S_{n-1} \frac{1}{2} \pi^{-n/2} \Gamma(n/2). \\ S_{n-1} &= \frac{2\pi^{n/2}}{\Gamma(n/2)}. \end{aligned}$$

For example, the area of the two-sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is

$$S_2 = \frac{2\pi^{3/2}}{\Gamma(3/2)} = \frac{2\pi^{3/2}}{\pi/2} = 4\pi.$$

The volume of the  $n$ -ball of radius  $R$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$V_n(R) = \int_0^R S_{n-1} r^{n-1} dr = \frac{S_{n-1} R^n}{n}.$$

### 5. Tate's functional equation

Now I introduce the Fourier transform and its interaction with the multiplicative group. For  $f$  in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  its Fourier transform is

$$\widehat{f}(\lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-2\pi i\lambda x} dx$$

and this defines an isomorphism of  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$  with itself. The inverse is

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \widehat{f}(x)e^{2\pi i\lambda x} dx$$

Another way to express this is that  $\widehat{\widehat{f}} = \mu_{-1}f$ .

How do the Fourier transform and the multiplication operators interact?

**5.1. Proposition.** For  $a \neq 0$

$$\widehat{\mu_a f} = |a| \mu_{a^{-1}} \widehat{f}.$$

*Proof.* Because

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{\mu_a f}(\lambda) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [\mu_a f](x)e^{-2\pi i\lambda x} dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(a^{-1}x)e^{-2\pi i\lambda x} dx \\ &= |a| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y)e^{-2\pi i\lambda ay} dy \\ &= |a| \mu_{a^{-1}} \widehat{f}(\lambda). \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

The Fourier transform  $\widehat{\Phi}$  of a distribution  $\Phi$  is defined by

$$\langle \widehat{\Phi}, f \rangle = \langle \Phi, \widehat{f} \rangle.$$

This, as an easy calculation will show, agrees with the definition the Fourier transform on  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ .

Suppose  $\chi$  to be a multiplicative character. The distribution  $\Phi = \Phi_\chi$  is defined by

$$\langle \Phi_\chi, \cdot \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \chi(x)f(x) \frac{dx}{x}$$

defined by convergence for certain  $\chi$  and extended meromorphically. What is the Fourier transform of  $\Phi$ ? Since  $\mu_a \Phi_\chi = \chi^{-1}(a)\Phi_\chi$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mu_a \widehat{\Phi}, f \rangle &= \langle \widehat{\Phi}, \mu_{a^{-1}} f \rangle \\ &= \langle \Phi, \widehat{\mu_{a^{-1}} f} \rangle \\ &= \langle \Phi, |a|^{-1} \mu_a \widehat{f} \rangle \\ &= |a|^{-1} \langle \mu_{a^{-1}} \Phi, \widehat{f} \rangle \\ &= |a|^{-1} \chi(a) \langle \Phi, \widehat{f} \rangle \\ &= |a|^{-1} \chi(a) \langle \widehat{\Phi}, f \rangle \end{aligned}$$

so because of uniqueness  $\widehat{\Phi}$  must be a scalar multiple  $\gamma_\chi \Phi_{\widetilde{\chi}}$  where  $\widetilde{\chi}(a) = |a|\chi^{-1}(a)$ . To calculate the scalar  $\gamma_\chi$  explicitly, we calculate first the Fourier transform of some particular functions.

**5.2. Lemma.** *The Fourier transform of  $e^{-\pi x^2}$  is itself.*

*Proof.* Let  $f(x) = e^{-\pi x^2}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{f}(\lambda) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2\pi i\lambda x - \pi x^2} dx \\ &= e^{-\pi\lambda^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\pi\lambda^2 - 2\pi i\lambda x - \pi x^2} dx \\ &= e^{-\pi\lambda^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi(x-i\lambda)^2} dx \\ &= e^{-\pi\lambda^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx \\ &= e^{-\pi\lambda^2}. \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$

Let now  $\chi(x) = |x|^s$ ,  $\Phi = \Phi_\chi$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \widehat{\Phi}, e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle &= \langle \Phi, e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^s e^{-\pi x^2} \frac{dx}{|x|} \\ &= \pi^{-s/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^s e^{-x^2} \frac{dx}{|x|} \\ &= \pi^{-s/2} \Gamma(s/2) \\ &= \zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(s).\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\widetilde{\chi} = |x|^{1-s}$ :

**5.3. Proposition.** *We have*

$$\widehat{\Phi}_{s,0} = \gamma_s \Phi_{1-s,0}$$

where

$$\gamma_s = \frac{\zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(s)}{\zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(1-s)}.$$

This formula isn't quite right for values of  $s$  where  $\Phi_{s,0}$  or  $\Phi_{1-s,0}$  have poles. The simplest way to formulate things is to observe that  $\Phi_{s,0}/\zeta(s)$  is entire, and that this formula says that the Fourier transform of  $\Phi_{s,0}/\zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(s)$  is  $\Phi_{1-s,0}/\zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(1-s)$ .

We can reason similarly for  $|x|^s \operatorname{sgn}(x)$  with  $x e^{\pi x^2}$ .

**5.4. Proposition.** *The Fourier transform of  $x e^{-\pi x^2}$  is  $-i\lambda e^{-\pi\lambda^2}$ .*

*Proof.* Differentiate the equation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} e^{-2\pi i\lambda x} dx = e^{-\pi\lambda^2}$$

with respect to  $\lambda$ . ▣

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \widehat{\Phi}_{s,1}, x e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle &= \langle \Phi_{s,1}, -i x e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle \\ &= -i \int_{\mathbb{R}} |x|^{s-1} \operatorname{sgn}(x) x e^{-\pi x^2} dx \\ &= -i \int_{\mathbb{R}} |x|^s e^{-\pi x^2} dx \\ &= -i \zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(1+s) \\ \langle \Phi_{1-s,1}, x e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle &= \zeta_{\mathbb{R}}(1+(1-s))\end{aligned}$$

and hence:

**5.5. Proposition.** *We have*

$$\widehat{\Phi}_{s,1} = \lambda_s \Phi_{1-s,1}$$

where

$$\lambda_s = -i \frac{L_{\mathbb{R}}(s)}{L_{\mathbb{R}}(1-s)}, \quad L_{\mathbb{R}}(s) = \pi^{-(s+1)/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right).$$

I conclude with a useful calculation, then I examine some special cases.

**5.6. Proposition.** *Suppose  $\Phi$  to be a tempered distribution on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then*

- (a) *the Fourier transform of  $\Phi'$  is  $2\pi i \lambda \widehat{\Phi}$ ;*
- (b) *the Fourier transform of  $x\Phi$  is  $\widehat{\Phi}'/(-2\pi i)$ .*

*Proof.* First assume  $\Phi$  to be in  $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ . The first assertion follows from integration by parts, the second by differentiating

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x) e^{-2\pi i \lambda x} dx = \widehat{\Phi}(\lambda)$$

with respect to  $\lambda$ . Proving the assertion for distributions follows from this simpler case. ▮

The distributions defined by integrals

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} x^n f(x) dx, \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^n \operatorname{sgn}(x) f(x) dx$$

are of particular importance.

**5.7. Proposition.** *For  $n \geq 0$*

- (a) *the Fourier transform of  $x^n$  is  $\delta_0^{(n)}/(-2\pi i)^n$ ;*
- (b) *the transform of  $x^n \operatorname{sgn}(x)$  is*

$$\frac{2n!}{(2\pi i)^{n+1}} \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1}).$$

As for the first, calculation shows that the transform of 1 is  $\delta_0$ . But then by the previous lemma the transform of  $x^n$  is  $\delta_0^{(n)}/(-2\pi i)^n$ .

For the second, we can write  $x^n \operatorname{sgn}(x)$  as  $|x|^{n+1} \operatorname{sgn}^{n+1}(x)/|x|$ , so its transform will be an eigendistribution for  $|x|^{-n} \operatorname{sgn}^{n+1} = x^n \operatorname{sgn}(x)$ , which means that it is a multiple of  $\operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1})$ . To compute the constant, let's look at  $n = 0$ , where we want the Fourier transform of  $\operatorname{sgn}(x)$  itself. Here

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \widehat{\operatorname{sgn}}, x e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle &= \frac{-i}{\pi} = \frac{2}{2\pi i} \\ \langle \operatorname{Pf}(1/x), x e^{-\pi x^2} \rangle &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

so that the transform of  $\operatorname{sgn}$  is  $(2/2\pi i)\operatorname{Pf}(1/x)$ . Then

$$x^n \widehat{\operatorname{sgn}(x)} = \frac{1}{(-2\pi i)^n} \frac{2}{2\pi i} (\operatorname{Pf}(1/x))^{(n)} = \frac{2n!}{(2\pi i)^{n+1}} \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1})$$

since  $\operatorname{Pf}(1/x^n)' = -n \operatorname{Pf}(1/x^{n+1})$ .

## 6. The Beta function

The Gamma function appears in a wide variety of integration formulas. One of the most useful is:

**6.1. Proposition.** *We have*

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{t^\alpha}{(1+t^2)^\beta} dt = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\alpha+1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\beta - \frac{\alpha+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma(\beta)}$$

*Proof.* Start with

$$\Gamma(s) = 2 \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} x^{2s-1} dx .$$

Moving to two dimensions and switching to polar coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(u)\Gamma(v) &= 4 \int_{s \geq 0, t \geq 0} e^{-s^2-t^2} s^{2u-1} t^{2v-1} ds dt \\ &= 4 \int_{r \geq 0, 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2} e^{-r^2} r^{2(u+v)-1} \cos^{2u-1} \theta \sin^{2v-1} \theta dr d\theta \\ &= 4 \int_{r \geq 0} e^{-r^2} r^{2(u+v)-1} dr \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^{2u-1}(\theta) \sin^{2v-1}(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \Gamma(u+v) B(u, v) \\ B(u, v) &= \frac{\Gamma(u)\Gamma(v)}{\Gamma(u+v)} , \end{aligned}$$

where

$$B(u, v) = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^{2u-1}(\theta) \sin^{2v-1}(\theta) d\theta .$$

If we change variables to  $t = \tan(\theta)$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \arctan(t) \\ d\theta &= dt/(1+t^2) \\ \cos(\theta) &= 1/\sqrt{1+t^2} \\ \sin(\theta) &= t/\sqrt{1+t^2} \end{aligned}$$

leading to

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{t^\alpha}{(1+t^2)^\beta} dr = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\alpha+1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\beta - \frac{\alpha+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma(\beta)} ,$$

and in particular

$$\Gamma^2(1/2) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{dr}{1+r^2} = \pi, \quad \Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi} .$$

### 7. The limit product formula

The exponential function  $e^{-t}$  can be approximated by finite products.

**Lemma.** For any real  $t$  we have

$$e^{-t} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right)^n.$$

This can be seen most easily by taking logarithms since for  $0 \leq t < n$

$$\begin{aligned} \log \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right)^n &= n \log \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right) \\ &= n \left( -\left(\frac{t}{n}\right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{t}{n}\right)^3 - \dots \right) \\ &= -t - \frac{t^2}{2n} - \frac{t^3}{3n^2} - \dots \\ &= -t - T \end{aligned}$$

where

$$T = \frac{t^2}{2n} + \frac{t^3}{3n^2} + \dots$$

which converges to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Another way of putting this is to define

$$\varphi_n(t) = \begin{cases} (1 - t/n)^n & 0 \leq t \leq n \\ 0 & t > n \end{cases}$$

and then define for each  $n$  an approximation  $\Gamma_n(s)$  to  $\Gamma(s)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_n(s) &= \int_0^\infty t^{s-1} \varphi_n(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^n t^{s-1} \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right)^n dt \end{aligned}$$

On the one hand, this can be explicitly calculated through repeated integration by parts:

$$\int_0^n t^{s-1} \left(1 - \frac{t}{n}\right)^n dt = \frac{1}{s} \frac{n-1}{n(s+1)} \frac{n-2}{n(s+2)} \dots \frac{1}{n(s+n-1)} \int_0^n t^{s+n-1} dt = \frac{n! n^s}{s(s+1) \dots (s+n)}$$

On the other, since for all fixed  $t$  the limit of  $\varphi_n(t)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  is equal to  $e^{-t}$ , and both  $\varphi_n(t)$  and  $e^{-t}$  are small at  $\infty$ , this is at least plausible:

**Proposition.** For any  $s$  with  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$  the limit of  $\Gamma_n(s)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  is equal to  $\Gamma(s)$ . In other words, for any  $s$  in  $\mathbb{C}$

$$\Gamma(s) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n! n^s}{s(s+1) \dots (s+n)}.$$

The **Euler constant**  $\gamma$  is defined to be the limit

$$\gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}\right) - \log n.$$

The limit product formula implies immediately a limit formula for  $1/\Gamma(s)$ :

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ s \left(1 + \frac{s}{1}\right) \left(1 + \frac{s}{2}\right) \dots \left(1 + \frac{s}{n-1}\right) n^{-s} \right]$$

but

$$n^{-s} = e^{-s \log n} = e^{-s(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}) + s\gamma_n}$$

where  $\gamma_n \rightarrow \gamma$ . Therefore:

**Proposition.** *The inverse Gamma function has the product expansion*

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} = s e^{\gamma s} \prod_1^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{s}{n}\right) e^{-s/n}$$

where  $\gamma$  is Euler's constant.

The limit product formula also implies Legendre's duplication formula:

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma(s) = 2^{s-1} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right)$$

Explicitly

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1} n! n^{s/2}}{s(s+2) \dots (s+2n)} \\ \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1} n! n^{s+1/2}}{(s+1) \dots (s+2n+1)} \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} &2^s \Gamma\left(\frac{s}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{s+1}{2}\right) / \Gamma(s) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^s \frac{2^{n+1} n! n^{s/2}}{s(s+2) \dots (s+2n)} \frac{2^{n+1} n! n^{(s+1)/2}}{(s+1)(s+3) \dots (s+2n+1)} \frac{s(s+1)(s+2) \dots (s+2n)}{(2n)!(2n)^s} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n+2} n^{1/2}}{(2n)!(s+2n+1)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n+1}}{(2n)! \sqrt{n}} \end{aligned}$$

but this last does not depend on  $s$ , and is finite since the limit on the left hand side exists, so we may set  $s = 1/2$  to see that it is equal to  $2\sqrt{\pi}$ .

### 8. The reflection formula

The formula for the Beta function gives us

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(s)\Gamma(1-s) &= \int_0^1 u^{s-1}(1-u)^{-s} du \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{v^{s-1}}{1+v} dv \quad (u = v/1+v, v = (u/1-u), du/(1-u) = (1+v)dv)\end{aligned}$$

We can calculate this last integral by means of a contour integral in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Let  $C$  be the path determined by these four segments: (1) along the positive real axis, or just above it, from  $\epsilon$  to  $R$ ; (2) around the circle of radius  $R$ , counter-clockwise, to the point just below  $R$ ; (3) along and just below the real axis to  $\epsilon$ ; (4) around the circle of radius  $\epsilon$ , clockwise, to just above  $\epsilon$ . We want to calculate the limit of the integral

$$\int_C \frac{z^{s-1}}{1+z} dz$$

as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  and  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

On the one hand the integrals over the different components converge to

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{z^{s-1}}{1+z} dz + 0 - e^{2\pi is} \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{s-1}}{1+z} dz + 0 = (1 - e^{2\pi is}) \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{s-1}}{1+z} dz$$

But on the other there is exactly one pole inside the curves  $C$ , so the integral is also equal to  $-2\pi i e^{\pi is}$ . Therefore

$$\Gamma(s)\Gamma(1-s) = \int_0^\infty \frac{z^{s-1}}{1+z} dz = \frac{-2\pi i e^{\pi is}}{1 - e^{2\pi is}} = \frac{\pi}{\sin \pi s}$$

Incidentally, combined with the product formula for  $\Gamma(s)$  this gives the product formula for  $\sin \pi s$

$$\sin \pi s = \pi s \prod_1^\infty \left(1 - \frac{s^2}{n^2}\right)$$

### 9. The Euler-Maclaurin formula

Define a sequence of polynomials

$$\begin{aligned}B_0(x) &= 1 \\ B_1(x) &= x - 1/2 \\ B_2(x) &= x^2 - x + 1/6 \\ &\dots\end{aligned}$$

recursively determined by

$$B'_{n+1}(x) = nB_n(x), \quad \int_0^1 B_n(x) dx = 0.$$

These are the **Bernoulli polynomials**. They determine in turn functions  $\psi_n$  by extension to all of  $\mathbb{R}$  of period 1.

The following is a simple version of the much more interesting Euler-Maclaurin sum formula:



**Proposition.** Suppose  $f$  to be a function on the interval  $[k, \ell]$  which has continuous second derivatives. Then

$$f(k) + f(k+1) + \dots + f(\ell-1) = \int_k^\ell f(x) dx - \frac{1}{2}(f(\ell) - f(k)) + \frac{1}{12}(f'(\ell) - f'(k)) + R_2$$

where

$$R_2 = -\frac{1}{2} \int_k^\ell f''(x) \psi_2(x) dx.$$

The proof is very simple, a repetition of integration by parts. Suppose  $m$  to be an integer with  $f$  defined and continuously differentiable on  $[m, m+1]$ . Then since  $\psi_0 = 1$  and  $\psi_1' = \psi_0$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_m^{m+1} f(x) dx &= \int_m^{m+1} f(x) \psi_0(x) dx \\ &= [f(x) \psi_1(x)]_m^{m+1} - \int_m^{m+1} f'(x) \psi_1(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(f(m) + f(m+1)) - \int_m^{m+1} f'(x) \psi_1(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

since  $\psi_1'(x) = 1$ , and of course we look at the limit of  $\psi_1$  from above at  $m$ , the limit from below at  $m+1$ . Then we sum this equation over all the unit sub-intervals of  $[k, \ell]$ , using the periodicity of  $\psi_1$ .

$$\int_k^\ell f(x) dx = (1/2)f(k) + f(k+1) + \dots + f(\ell-1) + (1/2)f(\ell) - \int_k^\ell f'(x) \psi_1(x) dx$$

We can rewrite this and apply integration by parts successively:

$$\begin{aligned} &f(k) + f(k+1) + \dots + f(\ell-1) \\ &= \int_k^\ell f(x) dx - \frac{1}{2}(f(\ell) - f(k)) + \int_k^\ell f'(x) \psi_1(x) dx \\ &= \int_k^\ell f(x) dx - \frac{1}{2}(f(\ell) - f(k)) + \frac{1}{2}(\psi_2(\ell)f'(\ell) - \psi_2(k)f'(k)) - \frac{1}{2} \int_k^\ell f''(x) \psi_2(x) dx \\ &= \int_k^\ell f(x) dx - \frac{1}{2}(f(\ell) - f(k)) + \frac{1}{12}(f'(\ell) - f'(k)) - \frac{1}{2} \int_k^\ell f''(x) \psi_2(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

The calculations can be continued to obtain an infinite asymptotic expansion involving the polynomials and their constant terms, the **Bernoulli numbers**.

### 10. Stirling's formula

We know that the Gamma function can be evaluated as a limit product

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(s) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n-1)!(n-1)^s}{s(s+1)\dots(s+n-1)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n-1)!n^s}{s(s+1)\dots(s+n-1)} \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^s \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n-1)!n^s}{s(s+1)\dots(s+n-1)}\end{aligned}$$

We have proven this for  $s$  in the domain of convergence of the integral defining  $\Gamma(s)$ , but in fact the limit exists and defines an analytic function for all  $s$  except  $s = -n$  with  $n$  a non-negative integer, so that by the principle of analytic continuation it must be valid wherever  $\Gamma(s)$  is defined. As a consequence

$$\log \Gamma(s) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1}(1) - S_n(s) + s \log n$$

where

$$S_n(s) = \log s + \log(s+1) + \dots + \log(s+n-1)$$

We can evaluate  $S_n(s)$  by the Euler-Maclaurin formula

$$\begin{aligned}f(0) + f(1) + \dots + f(n-1) \\ = \int_0^n f(x) dx - \frac{1}{2}(f(n) - f(0)) + \frac{\beta_2}{2}(f'(n) - f'(0)) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^n f^{(2)}(x)\psi_2(x) dx\end{aligned}$$

with

$$f(x) = \log(s+x), \quad f'(x) = \frac{1}{s+x}, \quad f^{(2)}(x) = -\frac{1}{(s+x)^2}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}\log s + \log(s+1) + \dots + \log(s+n-1) \\ = \int_0^n \log(s+x) dx - \frac{1}{2}[\log(s+n) - \log s] + \frac{1}{12} \left[ \frac{1}{s+n} - \frac{1}{s} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^n \frac{\psi_2(x)}{(s+x)^2} dx \\ = [x \log x - x]_s^{s+n} - \frac{1}{2}[\log(s+n) - \log s] + \frac{1}{12} \left[ \frac{1}{s+n} - \frac{1}{s} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^n \frac{\psi_2(x)}{(s+x)^2} dx \\ = (s+n-1/2) \log(s+n) - (s-1/2) \log s - n + \frac{1}{12} \left[ \frac{1}{s+n} - \frac{1}{s} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^n \frac{\psi_2(x)}{(s+x)^2} dx\end{aligned}$$

and setting  $s = 1, n - 1$  for  $n$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\log 1 + \log 2 + \dots + \log n \\ = (n-1/2) \log n - (n-1) + \frac{1}{12} \left[ \frac{1}{n} - 1 \right] + \frac{1}{2} \int_1^n \frac{\psi_2(x)}{x^2} dx \\ = (n-1/2) \log n - n + \frac{11}{12} + \frac{1}{12n} + \frac{1}{2} \int_1^n \frac{\psi_2(x)}{x^2} dx \\ = (n-1/2) \log n - n + C + \frac{1}{12n} - \frac{1}{2} \int_n^\infty \frac{\psi_2(x)}{x^2} dx\end{aligned}$$

where we define the constant

$$C = \frac{11}{12} + \frac{1}{2} \int_1^\infty \frac{\psi_2(x)}{x^2} dx.$$

Taking limits, therefore

$$\log \Gamma(s) = \left(s - \frac{1}{2}\right) \log s - s + C + \frac{1}{12s} - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\psi_2(x)}{(s+x)^2} dx.$$

This is valid for all  $s$  not on the negative real axis, and gives immediately the generalization of Stirling's formula

$$\Gamma(s) \sim \frac{e^C}{\sqrt{s}} \left(\frac{s}{e}\right)^s$$

as  $s$  goes to infinity in any region

$$-\pi + \delta \leq \arg(s) \leq \pi - \delta$$

since the remainder will have a uniform estimate in this region. The constant  $C$  can be evaluated by letting  $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$  in the reflection formula. On the one hand

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(it)\Gamma(-it) &= -\frac{\pi}{it \sin \pi it} \\ &= -\frac{2\pi i}{it[e^{-\pi t} - e^{\pi t}]} \\ &\sim 2\pi t^{-1} e^{-\pi t} \end{aligned}$$

while on the other

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(it)\Gamma(-it) &\sim \frac{e^C}{\sqrt{it}} \left(\frac{it}{e}\right)^{it} \frac{e^C}{\sqrt{-it}} \left(\frac{-it}{e}\right)^{-it} \\ &= \frac{e^{2C}}{t} (i)^{it} (-i)^{-it} \\ &= \frac{e^{2C}}{t} e^{(it)(\pi i)/2} e^{(-it)(-\pi i)/2} \\ &= \frac{e^{2C}}{t} e^{-\pi t} \end{aligned}$$

I recall that

$$x^y = e^{y \log x}$$

where  $\log$  is given its principal value. This gives

$$C = \log \sqrt{2\pi}$$

and finally the explicit version

**Proposition.** (Stirling's asymptotic formula) As  $s$  goes to  $\infty$  in the region

$$-\pi + \delta \leq \arg(s) \leq \pi - \delta$$

we have the asymptotic estimate

$$\Gamma(s) \sim \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{s}} \left(\frac{s}{e}\right)^s$$

## 11. References

1. Jacques Hadamard, **Lectures on Cauchy's problem**, Yale University Press, 1923. Chapter 1 of Book III introduces 'finite parts' of integrals. This notion is necessary in order to interpret the fundamental solutions to the wave equation in high dimensions.
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3. John Tate, 'Fourier analysis in number fields and Hecke's zeta functions', pp. 305–347 in in **Algebraic number theory**, edited by J. W. S. Cassels and A. Fröhlich, Thompson, 1967. This is his Princeton Ph. D. thesis.