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Here the factor  $m^{1-s}/\tau$  is never zero or infinite, while  $A_s \pm B_s$  is zero or infinite only at certain integer values, as indicated in the table above.

The proof of Lemma 13 can now easily be completed as follows. If  $s \leq 0$  is an integer, then  $L(1-s, \chi) \neq 0$ , so it follows that  $L(s, \bar{\chi})$  equals zero if and only if  $A_s \pm B_s$  is zero, as indicated in the table.  $\square$

## APPENDIX 2

### SOME RELATIVES OF THE GAMMA FUNCTION

This appendix will describe certain functions  $\gamma_1(x), \gamma_2(x), \dots$  which satisfy a modified form of the Kubert identities, with a polynomial correction term. (See (22) below.) They are defined as partial derivatives of the Hurwitz function by the formula

$$(18) \quad \gamma_{1-t}(x) = \partial \zeta_t(x) / \partial t .$$

We will show that  $\gamma_1$  is related to the classical gamma function via Lerch's identity

$$(19) \quad \gamma_1(x) = \log(\Gamma(x)/\sqrt{2\pi}) .$$

(Compare [27, p. 60].) As a bonus, we will give a self-contained exposition of the basic properties of the gamma function, based on formulas (18) and (19).

Let us begin with equation (18), which defines  $\gamma_s(x)$  as an analytic function of both variables for all  $s \neq 0$  and all  $x > 0$ . Recall that the Hurwitz function  $\zeta_t(x) = x^{-t} + (x+1)^{-t} + \dots$  (analytically extended in  $t$  for  $t \neq 1$ ) satisfies

$$\zeta_t(x+1) = \zeta_t(x) - x^{-t} .$$

Differentiating with respect to  $t$ , and then substituting  $t = 1 - s$ , we obtain

$$(20) \quad \gamma_s(x+1) = \gamma_s(x) + x^{s-1} \log x .$$

In particular,

$$\gamma_1(x+1) = \gamma_1(x) + \log x .$$

Note that

$$\zeta'_t(x) = -t\zeta'_{t+1}(x)$$

hence

$$\zeta''_t(x) = t(t+1)\zeta'_{t+2}(x) ,$$

where the prime stands for the derivative with respect to  $x$ . By analytic continuation, this last equation holds also at  $t = 0$ . Differentiating with respect to  $t$  at  $t = 0$ , we obtain

$$(21) \quad \gamma_1''(x) = \zeta_2(x).$$

In particular, it follows that  $\gamma_1''(x) > 0$  for all  $x > 0$ .

Let us define the gamma function as follows. (Compare Artin [1].)

LEMMA 15 (Bohr and Mollerup). *There is one and only one twice continuously differentiable function  $\Gamma(x) > 0$  for  $x > 0$  which satisfies*

$$\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x), \quad \Gamma(1) = 1, \quad \text{and} \quad (\log \Gamma(x))'' \geq 0.$$

*Proof.* Evidently it suffices to show that there is one and, up to an additive constant, only one  $C^2$ -function

$$f(x) = \log \Gamma(x) + c$$

for  $x > 0$  which satisfies the two conditions

$$f(x+1) = f(x) + \log x$$

and

$$f''(x) \geq 0.$$

Existence is clear, since the equation  $\gamma_1(x)$  satisfies both of these conditions. To prove uniqueness, let us differentiate twice to obtain

$$f''(x+1) = f''(x) - 1/x^2,$$

hence

$$f''(x+n+1) = f''(x) - x^{-2} - (x+1)^{-2} - \dots - (x+n)^{-2} \geq 0.$$

Taking the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , it follows that

$$f''(x) \geq \zeta_2(x).$$

On the other hand, note that the difference  $f(x) - \gamma_1(x)$  is periodic, of period 1. Hence its second derivative  $f''(x) - \zeta_2(x)$  is periodic, and has average  $\int_0^1 (f''(x) - \zeta_2(x))dx$  equal to zero. Clearly it follows that  $f''(x) = \zeta_2(x)$  everywhere. Integrating twice, we see that

$$f(x) = \gamma_1(x) + ax + b.$$

Subtracting the corresponding equation for  $f(x+1)$ , we see that  $a = 0$ , which completes the proof.  $\square$

This argument shows that

$$\gamma_1(x) = \log(\Gamma(x)/C)$$

for some constant  $C$ , whose precise value will be computed later.

Remark: The customary definition of the gamma function is the expression

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$$

which was used in §2 and Appendix 1. Here is an outline proof that this expression does indeed satisfy the conditions of Lemma 15. Integration by parts shows that  $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$ . Note that a twice differentiable positive function satisfies  $(\log f(x))'' \geq 0$  if and only if the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(x) & f'(x) \\ f'(x) & f''(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

is positive semi-definite, for all  $x$ . But the collection of all  $2 \times 2$  positive semi-definite matrices forms a convex cone. It follows that the sum  $f(x) + g(x)$  of any two functions which satisfy this condition will also satisfy it. Similarly the integral

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Gamma(x) & \Gamma'(x) \\ \Gamma'(x) & \Gamma''(x) \end{bmatrix} = \int_0^\infty \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \log t \\ \log t & (\log t)^2 \end{bmatrix} e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$$

is a positive semi-definite matrix. Hence  $(\log \Gamma(x))'' \geq 0$  as required.  $\square$

Now consider the Kubert identity

$$m^t \zeta_t(x) = \sum_0^{m-1} \zeta_t((x+k)/m).$$

If we differentiate both sides with respect to  $t$ , then substitute  $t = 1 - s$  and  $\zeta_t = -\beta_s/s$ , we obtain

$$(22) \quad \gamma_s(x) = (\log m)\beta_s(x)/s + m^{s-1} \sum_0^m \gamma_s((x+k)/m).$$

Thus  $\gamma_s$  satisfies the Kubert identity  $(*_s)$ , except for a correction term involving the Bernoulli polynomial  $\beta_s(x)$ , for  $s = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ .

If we work modulo the logarithms of positive rational numbers, then the function

$$\mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}/\mathbf{Q} \log \mathbf{Q}^+$$

induced by  $\gamma_s$  actually satisfies  $(*_s)$ . It seems natural to conjecture that this is a universal Kubert function on  $\mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z}$  for integers  $s \geq 1$ .

For  $s = 1$ , the “even” part of this conjecture can easily be proved using Bass’ theorem, together with the classical identity

$$\gamma_1(x) + \gamma_1(1-x) + \log(2 \sin \pi x) = 0$$

for  $0 < x < 1$ , which is proved below, and the fact that  $\gamma_1(1) = \log(1/\sqrt{2\pi})$  where  $\pi$  is transcendental. For the odd part of  $\gamma_1$ , Rohrlich has conjectured universality even if we work modulo the logarithms of *all* algebraic numbers. See [17, p. 66].

In the case  $s = 1$ , formula (22) takes the form

$$(23) \quad \gamma_1(x) = (\log m) \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \right) + \sum_0^{m-1} \gamma_1((x+k)/m).$$

Hence the derivative  $\gamma'_1(x) = \Gamma'(x)/\Gamma(x)$  satisfies

$$(24) \quad \gamma'_1(x) = \log m + m^{-1} \sum_0^{m-1} \gamma'_1((x+k)/m).$$

Note that  $\gamma'_1(x+1) = \gamma'_1(x) + 1/x \equiv \gamma'_1(x) \pmod{\mathbf{Q}}$ , if  $x$  is positive and rational. We may conjecture that  $\gamma'_1$  induces a universal function  $\mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}/(\mathbf{Q} + \mathbf{Q} \log \mathbf{Q}^+)$  satisfying  $(*_0)$ . (It can be shown that  $\gamma'_1(1)$  is equal to the negative of Euler’s constant. Thus even at  $x = 1$  the number theoretic properties of  $\gamma'_1(x)$  are not known.)

As a typical application of (23), taking  $x = 1$  we obtain the equation

$$\gamma_1(1/m) + \gamma_1(2/m) + \dots + \gamma_1((m-1)/m) = \log(1/\sqrt{m}).$$

In particular,  $\gamma_1(1/2) = \log(1/\sqrt{2})$ .

As a further application of (23), we will prove the classical formula

$$(25) \quad \gamma_1(x) + \gamma_1(1-x) + \log(2 \sin \pi x) = 0$$

for  $0 < x < 1$ . If we add (23) to the corresponding formula for  $\gamma_1(1-x)$ , then the correction terms cancel out. Hence the sum  $\gamma_1(x) + \gamma_1(1-x)$  satisfies the Kubert identities  $(*_1)$  in their original form. By Theorem 1, this implies that

$$\gamma_1(x) + \gamma_1(1-x) = c \log(2 \sin \pi x)$$

for some constant  $c$ . One way to evaluate  $c$  would be to differentiate twice:

$$\zeta_2(x) + \zeta_2(1-x) = -c\pi^2/\sin^2 \pi x,$$

and to note that both  $\zeta_2(x)$  and  $\pi^2/\sin^2 \pi x$  are asymptotic to  $1/x^2$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ . (Compare Appendix 1.) Another would be to substitute  $x = 1/2$ , noting that  $\gamma_1(1/2) = -\frac{1}{2} \log 2$  while  $\log(2 \sin \pi/2) = \log 2$ . Using either method, one finds that  $c = -1$ , proving equation (25). □

Next let us prove Lerch's identity (19). We showed during the proof of Lemma 15 that  $\gamma_1(x) = \log(\Gamma(x)/C)$  for some constant  $C > 0$ . Exponentiating (25), we obtain

$$\frac{\Gamma(x)}{C} \frac{\Gamma(1-x)}{C} 2 \sin \pi x = 1.$$

Since

$$\Gamma(x) \sim x^{-1}, \quad \Gamma(1-x) \sim 1, \quad \text{and} \quad 2 \sin \pi x \sim 2\pi x$$

as  $x \rightarrow 0$ , it follows that  $C = \sqrt{2\pi}$ , as required.  $\square$

This argument also proves the classical *Euler functional equation*

$$\Gamma(x)\Gamma(1-x) = \pi/\sin \pi x.$$

Taking  $x = 1/2$ , it proves that  $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ .

Similarly, exponentiating (23), we obtain the classical *Gauss multiplication formula*

$$\frac{\Gamma(x)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = m^{x-1/2} \prod_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{\Gamma((x+k)/m)}{\sqrt{2\pi}}.$$

As an example, taking  $x = 1$  and  $m = 2$ , we obtain another proof that  $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ .

Note that each  $\gamma_{s+1}$  is essentially just an indefinite integral of  $\gamma_s$ , up to a constant factor and a polynomial summand. More precisely, differentiating the equation

$$\zeta'_t(x) = -t\zeta_{t+1}(x)$$

with respect to  $t$  and setting  $s = -t$ , we find that

$$(26) \quad \gamma'_{s+1}(x) = \partial \gamma_{s+1}(x)/\partial x = s\gamma_s(x) + \beta_s(x)/s.$$

The function  $\exp(\gamma_s(x))$  can be thought of as a kind of higher order gamma function, satisfying

$$\exp(\gamma_s(n+1) - \gamma_s(1)) = 1^{1^{s-1}} 2^{2^{s-1}} \dots n^{n^{s-1}}.$$

(Compare Shintani [24].)

As a final remark, let us apply these methods to derive the Stirling asymptotic series for  $\gamma_1(x)$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . Using (26), together with (3) and (20), we have

$$\int_x^{x+1} \gamma_1(u) du = x \log x - x.$$

As in the discussion of Bernoulli polynomials in §2, the left side of this equation can be expanded as a Taylor series

$$\frac{e^D - I}{D} \gamma_1(x) = \sum_0^{\infty} D^n \gamma_1(x)/(n+1)! ,$$

which converges whenever  $\gamma_1(x)$  is analytic throughout a unit disk centered at  $x$ , or in other words whenever  $x > 1$ . Here  $D$  stands for  $d/dx$ . Recall from §2 that the inverse operator is given formally by

$$\frac{D}{e^D - I} = \sum_0^{\infty} b_n D^n / n! .$$

Hence, applying this inverse operator to both sides of the equation

$$\frac{e^D - I}{D} \gamma_1(x) = x \log x - x ,$$

we might hope that

$$\gamma_1(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{D}{e^D - I} (x \log x - x) = \sum_0^{\infty} b_n D^n (x \log x - x) / n! .$$

Unfortunately, this series does not converge. However, if we truncate, setting

$$s_N(x) = \sum_0^N b_n D^n (x \log x - x) / n!$$

for some integer  $N \geq 1$ , then we will prove that

$$\gamma_1(x) = s_N(x) + O(x^{-N})$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . This is the required asymptotic series. More explicitly, we can write it as

$$(27) \quad \gamma_1(x) = (x \log x - x) - \frac{1}{2} \log x + \sum_2^N \frac{b_n x^{1-n}}{n(n-1)} + O(x^{-N}) .$$

(For a more precise description of the error term, see [1, p. 31]. Using (19) this yields the corresponding asymptotic formula for  $\Gamma(x)$ .)

To prove this formula, substitute the identity

$$x \log x - x = \sum_0^{\infty} \frac{D^m}{(m+1)!} \gamma_1(x)$$

in the definition of  $s_N(x)$  to obtain a double series

$$s_N(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_n D^n}{n!} \frac{D^m}{(m+1)!} \gamma_1(x) ,$$

which converges absolutely whenever  $x > 1$ . If we collect terms involving the same total power of  $D$ , then evidently all the terms involving  $D^1, D^2, \dots, D^N$  must cancel. Since

$$D^n \gamma_1(x) = \pm (n-1)! \zeta_n(x)$$

for  $n \geq 2$ , it follows that the resulting series has the form

$$s_N(x) = \gamma_1(x) + \sum_{N+1}^{\infty} a_n \zeta_n(x)$$

for suitable constants  $a_n$ . Setting

$$E(x) = \sum_{N+1}^{\infty} a_n x^{-n},$$

we can write the error term as

$$s_N(x) - \gamma_1(x) = E(x) + E(x+1) + \dots.$$

Note that all of these series converge absolutely for  $x > 1$ . Evidently

$$E(x) = O(x^{-N-1})$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , for any fixed  $N$ , so

$$s_N(x) - \gamma_1(x) = O(x^{-N})$$

as required.  $\square$

This argument yields similar asymptotic series for related functions such as  $\zeta_s(x)$ ,  $\gamma_s(x)$ , and  $\gamma'_s(x)$ . Such estimates work also for complex values of  $x$ , as long as  $x$  stays well away from the negative real axis.

### APPENDIX 3

#### VOLUME AND THE DEHN INVARIANT IN HYPERBOLIC 3-SPACE

We will describe some constructions in hyperbolic space involving the dilogarithm function  $\mathcal{L}_2(z)$  and its Kubert identity (7). Further details may be found in the paper “Scissors Congruences, II” by J. L. Dupont and C.-H. Sah (*J. Pure Appl. Algebra* 25 (1982), 159-195).

Using the upper half-space model for hyperbolic 3-space, consider a totally asymptotic 3-simplex  $\Delta$ . In other words, we assume that the vertices  $a, b, c, d$  of  $\Delta$  all lie on the 2-sphere of points at infinity, which we identify with the extended complex plane  $\mathbf{C} \cup \infty$ . Then  $\Delta$  is determined up to orientation preserving isometry by the cross ratio

$$z = (a, b; c, d) = (c-a)(d-b)/(c-b)(d-a).$$

[The semicolon is inserted in our cross ratio symbol as a remainder of its symmetry properties, which are similar to those of the four index symbol  $R_{hijk}$  in Riemannian geometry.] In particular, the volume of  $\Delta$  can be expressed as a function of the cross ratio  $z$ .