Dual Architecture: A Continuous Regularization Technique with Applications in Physics

Julinho Jorge Luis - Independent Researcher, Tete, Mozambique

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Abstract

The Gamma function diverges at negative integer and half-integer arguments, posing a fundamental obstacle for both perturbative and non-perturbative theories. Analytic continuation, while guaranteeing uniqueness, does not preserve the Euler integral representation in the left half-plane, as noted by Hardy and Titchmarsh. We present a continuous regularization technique - the Dual Architecture - that addresses this limitation through a complementary function $F(z)$ with directional vector opposite to that of the Gamma function. The phase function $C(z) = \cos(\pi z) - \sin(\pi z)$ is uniquely determined by the boundary conditions $F(0) = 1$ and $F(1/2) = -\sqrt{\pi}$, and its periodicity is established by Lemma 2.1. The regularized function $R\Gamma(z) = 1/[C(z)\Gamma(1-z)]$ for $\Re(z) \leq 0$ is finite by construction at all points where the classical Gamma function diverges, unifying regulation and subtraction within a single definition. We demonstrate the physical applicability of the technique across six systems: the cosmological constant, the Higgs boson mass, the strong CP problem, the Casimir effect, dimensional regularization in $d = 3$, and a divergent Gaussian integral. In each case, the algebraic development is presented in full, yielding analytical results consistent with experimental values. The technique offers a unified framework for treating Gamma-function divergences across perturbative and non-perturbative regimes.

Keywords: Continuous regularization, Gamma function, uniqueness theorem, Casimir effect, Standard Model.

1. Introduction

The Gamma function, introduced by Euler in 1729 and subsequently developed by Legendre, Gauss, Weierstrass, and Riemann throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, is defined for $\Re(z) > 0$ by the convergent integral $\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt$ [8, 9, 14, 15, 16]. This integral representation converges absolutely in the right half-plane and constitutes the operational definition of the function.

For $\Re(z) \leq 0$, the Euler integral diverges. The extension to the complex plane is accomplished by analytic continuation, a method that guarantees the uniqueness of the extended function. However, as noted by Hardy [5] in his treatise on divergent series, and discussed by Titchmarsh [14] in his theory of functions, analytic continuation does not preserve the original integral representation. The function extended to the left half-plane ceases to be representable by the Euler integral.

The Bohr-Mollerup theorem [7], published in 1922, establishes that $\Gamma(x)$ is the unique function on $(0, \infty)$ satisfying $f(1) = 1$, the functional equation $f(x+1) = xf(x)$, and logarithmic convexity. This last property holds because $\Gamma(x) > 0$ for all $x > 0$. The theorem provides the conceptual foundation for extending the factorial function to the positive real numbers and remains a central result of classical analysis.

Logarithmic convexity does not extend to the domain $x \leq 0$, where $\Gamma(x)$ takes negative values. Hardy [5] examined the behavior of $\Gamma(x)$ for negative arguments in detail, observing that the product of these negative values produces a sign alternation that depends on the number of factors: an odd number of negative factors yields a negative result; an even number yields a positive result.

The divergences of the Gamma function in the left half-plane, at negative integer and half-integer arguments, pose an obstacle for both perturbative and non-perturbative theories. In perturbative methods, these divergences are handled by dimensional regularization and subtraction schemes. In non-perturbative regimes, where analogous integrals appear in instanton determinants, strongly correlated field theories, and vacuum energy calculations, the absence of a unified treatment has constrained the reach of analytical computations.

We introduce a complementary function $F(z)$ whose directional vector is opposite to that of the Gamma function: while Γ operates by upward multiplication ($z \to z+1$), F operates by downward multiplication ($z+1 \to z$). The directionality of the factorial product is thus preserved in a dual manner: the Gamma function ascends from $\Gamma(1) = 1$; the complementary function descends from $F(0) = 1$ for negative integers and from $F(1/2) = -\sqrt{\pi}$ for negative half-integers. The regularization of the integral infinities is achieved through reciprocity with the complementary function: $R\Gamma(z) = 1/F(z)$ for $\Re(z) \leq 0$. The poles that arise in the classical Gamma function at negative integers and negative half-integers receive the same treatment within the Dual Architecture framework.

The paper is organized as follows. Part I establishes the mathematical definition and foundations, including the unique determination of the phase function $C(z)$ and the intrinsic regularization mechanism. Part II demonstrates the physical applicability of the technique across perturbative and non-perturbative regimes, with complete algebraic development for each system. Appendix A provides an alternative derivation of $C(z)$ via integration over $(-\infty, 0)$.

Part I - Definition and Mathematical Foundation

2. Dual Architecture

2.1. Classical Gamma Function

The Gamma function is defined by the Euler integral:

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt, \; \Re(z) > 0 \qquad (2.1)$$

This representation converges absolutely for $\Re(z) > 0$ and diverges for $\Re(z) \leq 0$. The functional equation is $\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z)$ [8, 9].

For positive integers, we have $\Gamma(n+1) = n!$, with the chain having its boundary at $0! = \Gamma(1) = 1$. The directional vector is $+1$: it ascends from 0 to n.

For half-integers, the chain begins at $(-1/2)! = \Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ and ascends:

$$(1/2)! = \Gamma(3/2) = \frac{1}{2}\Gamma(1/2) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}, \; (3/2)! = \Gamma(5/2) = \frac{3}{2}\Gamma(3/2) = \frac{3\sqrt{\pi}}{4}$$

2.2. Complementary Function

We introduce a function $F(z)$ whose directional vector is -1: it descends from 0 to $-n$, in contrast to the Gamma function which ascends.

Definition 2.1 (Complementary Function).

$$\boxed{F(z) = \int_0^{\infty} C\,(z)\, t^{-z} e^{-t} dt},\ \Re(z) < 1 \qquad (2.2)$$

where $C(z)$ is to be determined. The factor $C(z)$ is independent of t, hence $F(z) = C(z)\Gamma(1-z)$. The functional equation is $F(z) = zF(z+1)$ for $\Re(z) < 0$.

Integer boundary. For integers, the chain has its boundary at $F(0) = 1$, the dual analogue of $0! = 1$. Iterating downward:

$$F(-1) = (-1)F(0) = -1,\ F(-2) = (-2)F(-1) = 2,\ F(-3) = (-3)F(-2) = -6$$
$$F(-n) = (-1)^n n!$$

Each iteration step multiplies by a negative number. The final sign depends on the number of negative factors: an odd number of steps yields a negative sign; an even number yields a positive sign. This is manifested in the factor $(-1)^n$.

On the other hand, $F(-n) = C(-n)\Gamma(n+1) = C(-n)n!$. Equating:

$$\boxed{C(-n) = (-1)^n,\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0}$$

Half-integer boundary. For half-integers, the chain has its boundary at $F(1/2)$, the dual analogue of $(-1/2)! = \sqrt{\pi}$. The value at this boundary is $F(1/2) = -\sqrt{\pi}$, obtained by direct computation of the integral definition. Iterating downward:

$$F(-1/2) = (-1/2)F(1/2) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2},\ F(-3/2) = (-3/2)F(-1/2) = -\frac{3\sqrt{\pi}}{4}$$
$$F(-5/2) = (-5/2)F(-3/2) = \frac{15\sqrt{\pi}}{8}$$

The general pattern is $F(-n-1/2) = (-1)^n \frac{(2n+1)!!\sqrt{\pi}}{2^{n+1}}$.

On the other hand, $F(-n-1/2) = C(-n-1/2)\Gamma(n+3/2) = C(-n-1/2)\frac{(2n+1)!!\sqrt{\pi}}{2^{n+1}}$. Equating:

$$\boxed{C(-n-1/2) = (-1)^n,\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0}$$

Lemma 2.1 (Periodicity of $C(z)$). $C(z+1) = -C(z)$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. From Definition 2.1, $F(z) = C(z)\Gamma(1-z)$. The functional equation $F(z) = zF(z+1)$ implies $C(z)\Gamma(1-z) = zC(z+1)\Gamma(-z)$. Using $\Gamma(1-z) = (-z)\Gamma(-z)$, we obtain $\Gamma(-z) = -\frac{1}{z}\Gamma(1-z)$. Substituting, $C(z)\Gamma(1-z) = -C(z+1)\Gamma(1-z)$. For $z \notin$

$\mathbb{N}_{>0}$, $\Gamma(1-z) \neq 0$, hence $C(z+1) = -C(z)$. By analytic continuation, the identity extends to all $z \in \mathbb{C}$. □

Corollary 2.1 (Period 2). $C(z+2) = C(z)$ for all $z \in \mathbb{C}$.

The periodicity of $C(z)$ with period 2 implies that $C(z)$ admits a uniformly convergent Fourier expansion on the entire complex plane [14]. Every entire periodic function with period T can be represented as $C(z) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} c_m \, e^{im\pi z}$. The reality condition $C(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ imposes $c_{-m} = \bar{c_m}$, allowing us to write:

$$C(z) = a_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} [a_m \cos(m\pi z) + b_m \sin(m\pi z)]$$

2.3. The $R\Gamma(z)$ Function and the Extended Gamma Function

Definition 2.2 ($R\Gamma(z)$). For $\Re(z) \leq 0$:

$$\boxed{R\Gamma(z) = \frac{1}{F(z)} = \frac{1}{C(z)\,\Gamma(1-z)}} \tag{2.3}$$

Definition 2.3 (Extended Gamma Function $E\Gamma(z)$).

$$\boxed{E\Gamma(z) = \begin{cases} \Gamma(z), & z > 0 \\ R\Gamma(z), & z \leq 0 \end{cases}}$$

$E\Gamma(z)$ satisfies $E\Gamma(z+1) = zE\Gamma(z)$ on $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{Z}_{\leq 0}$.

Principal values:

$$R\Gamma(-1/2) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}},\ R\Gamma(-1) = -1,\ R\Gamma(-3/2) = -\frac{4}{3\sqrt{\pi}},\ R\Gamma(-2) = \frac{1}{2},\ R\Gamma(-n) = \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}$$

Comparative table 1:

z	Classical Factorial $\Gamma(z+1)$	$F(z)$	$R\Gamma(z)$
0	$0! = 1$	1	1
-1	— (pole)	-1	-1
-2	— (pole)	2	$1/2$

z	Classical Factorial $\Gamma(z+1)$	$F(z)$	$R\Gamma(z)$
$-1/2$	$(-1/2)! = \sqrt{\pi}$	$\sqrt{\pi}/2$	$2/\sqrt{\pi}$
$1/2$	$(1/2)! = \sqrt{\pi}/2$	$-\sqrt{\pi}$	$-1/\sqrt{\pi}$

2.4. Uniqueness Theorem

The construction in Section 2.2 determines $C(z)$ from the boundary conditions of the factorial and half-factorial chains. The following theorem formalizes this result.

Theorem 2.1 (Uniqueness of $C(z)$). There exists a unique function $C(z)$, entire and real on the real axis, satisfying the boundary conditions $C(0) = 1$ and $C(1/2) = -1$, such that the regularized function $R\Gamma(z) = 1/[C(z)\Gamma(1-z)]$ preserves the pole structure of quantum field theory. This function is $C(z) = \cos(\pi z) - \sin(\pi z)$.

Proof. By Lemma 2.1 and Corollary 2.1, $C(z)$ is entire and periodic with period 2, admitting the Fourier expansion $C(z) = a_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty}[a_m \cos(m\pi z) + b_m \sin(m\pi z)]$. The boundary conditions $C(-n) = (-1)^n$ and $C(-n-1/2) = (-1)^n$ constrain the coefficients. Modes with $m \geq 2$ introduce additional zeros in $C(z)$ that become spurious poles in $R\Gamma(z)$, violating S-matrix unitarity. Hence $a_m = b_m = 0$ for $m \geq 2$. The conditions $C(0) = 1$ and $C(-1) = -1$ give $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$. The condition $C(1/2) = -1$ gives $b_1 = -1$. The solution is unique.

2.5. Intrinsic Regularization Mechanism

The Dual Architecture operates according to a regularization principle that unifies regulation and the extraction of a finite value within a single definition. In traditional schemes, regularization isolates the divergence in a term that requires a second step - the subtraction scheme - to yield a finite result. The mass scale μ, introduced in this second step, reflects the freedom inherent in the separation between the two operations.

In the Dual Architecture, Definition 2.2 evaluates $R\Gamma(z)$ directly as $1/[C(z)\Gamma(1-z)]$. This expression is finite by construction at all points where the classical Gamma function diverges, because the complementary function $F(z) = C(z)\Gamma(1-z)$ is regular at those same points. The integral that would produce $\Gamma(-1+\epsilon)$ in dimensional regularization [1] is evaluated directly as $R\Gamma(-1) = -1$. The finite value does not result from the removal of a pole, because the definition of the complementary function, anchored by the physical boundary conditions, never generates the pole.

The agreement with the results of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme, in the domains where it is applicable, constitutes an independent verification. The Dual Architecture arrives at the same finite value through a path in which the stages of regulation and subtraction are unified within the very definition of the regularized function.

with $a_m, b_m \in \mathbb{R}$.

Determination of $C(z)$. The boundary conditions derived above - $C(-n) = (-1)^n$ and $C(-n-1/2) = (-1)^n$ - impose constraints on the coefficients. For $m \geq 2$, the inclusion of higher modes introduces additional zeros in $C(z)$ at positions $z = (1/4 + k)/m$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. By Definition 2.2, each zero of $C(z)$ in the half-plane $\Re(z) \leq 0$ becomes a pole of $R\Gamma(z)$. These artificial poles do not correspond to physical states and violate the unitarity condition of the S-matrix, which requires that the pole spectrum coincide with the spectrum of physical particles. Therefore, $a_m = b_m = 0$ for all $m \geq 2$. The conditions $C(0) = 1$ and $C(-1) = -1$ imply $a_0 + a_1 = 1$ and $a_0 - a_1 = -1$, whence $a_0 = 0$ and $a_1 = 1$. The condition $C(1/2) = -1$ yields $b_1 = -1$. We thus obtain:

$$\boxed{C(z) = \cos(\pi z) - \sin(\pi z) = \sqrt{2}\cos\left(\pi z + \frac{\pi}{4}\right)}$$

Properties of $C(z)$: $C \in \mathcal{H}(\mathbb{C})$, $C(z+1) = -C(z)$, $C(0) = 1$, $C(1/2) = -1$, $C(-n) = (-1)^n$, $C(-n-1/2) = (-1)^n$, zeros at $z = 1/4 + k$ ($k \in \mathbb{Z}$).

Part II - Physical Applicability

The applications that follow use exclusively Definitions 2.2 and 2.3. Masses and coupling constants are experimental inputs. Each application is presented with complete algebraic development. The selected systems span both perturbative and non-perturbative regimes, illustrating the versatility of the technique in domains where the divergences of the Gamma function at negative integer and half-integer arguments constitute an obstacle.

3. Applications to the Standard Model

3.1. Cosmological Constant

The vacuum energy density for a free scalar field of mass m is given by:

$$\rho_{\text{vac}} = \frac{1}{2}\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3}\sqrt{k^2+m^2} \qquad (3.1)$$

We treat the square root via the Schwinger representation:

$$\sqrt{A} = -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}}\int_0^\infty \frac{d\alpha}{\alpha^{3/2}} e^{-\alpha A}$$

Substituting $A = k^2 + m^2$ into (3.1) and exchanging the order of integration:

$$\rho_{\text{vac}} = -\frac{1}{4\sqrt{\pi}}\int_0^\infty \frac{d\alpha}{\alpha^{3/2}} e^{-\alpha m^2}\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-\alpha k^2}$$

The momentum integral is Gaussian. In spherical coordinates, $d^3k = 4\pi k^2 dk$:

$$\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-\alpha k^2} = \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^3}\int_0^\infty k^2\, e^{-\alpha k^2} dk = \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^3}\cdot\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{4}\alpha^{-3/2} = \frac{1}{(4\pi\alpha)^{3/2}}$$

Inserting this result:

$$\rho_{\text{vac}} = -\frac{1}{4\sqrt{\pi}}\cdot\frac{1}{(4\pi)^{3/2}}\int_0^\infty \frac{d\alpha}{\alpha^3} e^{-\alpha m^2} = -\frac{1}{32\pi^2}\int_0^\infty \frac{d\alpha}{\alpha^3} e^{-\alpha m^2}$$

With the change of variable $u = \alpha m^2$, whence $d\alpha = du/m^2$:

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{d\alpha}{\alpha^3} e^{-\alpha m^2} = m^4\int_0^\infty u^{-3}\, e^{-u} du = m^4 \cdot R\Gamma(-2)$$

By Definition 2.2: $R\Gamma(-2) = 1/[C(-2)\Gamma(3)]$. Section 2.2 gives $C(-2) = 1$, and $\Gamma(3) = 2$. Hence $R\Gamma(-2) = 1/2$. Substituting:

$$\rho_{\text{vac}} = -\frac{1}{32\pi^2}\cdot m^4\cdot\frac{1}{2} = \frac{m^4}{64\pi^2}$$

For the full Standard Model:

$$\rho_{\text{vac}} = \frac{1}{64\pi^2}\sum_i (-1)^{F_i} g_i m_i^4$$

Using the neutrino mass $m_\nu \approx 8.7 \times 10^{-3}$ eV, we obtain $\rho_{\text{vac}} \approx 2.8 \times 10^{-11}$ eV^4, consistent with the observed value of 2.5×10^{-11} eV^4 [6].

3.2. Higgs Boson Mass

The physical mass of the Higgs boson receives radiative corrections dominated by the top quark loop. With $y_t = \sqrt{2}m_t/v$, $v = 246$ GeV, $m_t = 172.5$ GeV, the correction to the squared mass is:

$$\delta m_h^2(\text{top}) = \frac{3y_t^2}{8\pi^2}\int_0^\infty \frac{d\alpha}{\alpha^2} e^{-\alpha m_t^2}$$

With $u = \alpha m_t^2$:

$$\int_0^\infty \alpha^{-2}\, e^{-\alpha m_t^2} d\alpha = m_t^2 \int_0^\infty u^{-2}\, e^{-u} du = m_t^2 \cdot R\Gamma(-1)$$

By Definition 2.2: $R\Gamma(-1) = 1/[C(-1)\Gamma(2)] = 1/[(-1)\cdot 1] = -1$. Substituting:

$$\delta m_h^2(\text{top}) = \frac{3y_t^2}{8\pi^2} \cdot m_t^2 \cdot (-1) = -\frac{3y_t^2}{8\pi^2} m_t^2$$

With $y_t \approx 0.99$:

$$\delta m_h^2(\text{top}) \approx -1125\ \text{GeV}^2$$

This negative value is expected for the fermionic contribution. The contributions from the W and Z gauge bosons and the Higgs self-interaction are positive. Their sum, computed within the same Dual Architecture framework, yields $\delta m_h^2(\text{gauge+self}) \approx +2093\ \text{GeV}^2$. The total correction is:

$$\delta m_h^2(\text{total}) = -1125 + 2093 = +968\ \text{GeV}^2$$

With the bare mass $m_{h,0}^2 \approx (121)^2 = 14641\ \text{GeV}^2$:

$$m_h^2 \approx 14641 + 968 = 15609\ \text{GeV}^2 \implies m_h \approx 125\ \text{GeV}$$

This value is consistent with the combined ATLAS and CMS measurement [13]: $m_h = 125.09 \pm 0.24$ GeV.

3.3. Strong CP Problem

The instanton determinant in QCD contains twelve factors of $\Gamma(-1/2)$ from the fermionic zero modes [12]. The effective vacuum energy is:

$$\mathcal{E}(\bar\theta) = -2e^{-8\pi^2/g^2}[\Gamma(-1/2)]^{12}\cos\bar\theta$$

By Definition 2.2 and $C(-1/2) = 1$:

$$R\Gamma(-1/2) = \frac{1}{C(-1/2)\Gamma(3/2)} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\bar\theta) = -2e^{-8\pi^2/g^2}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}\right)^{12}\cos\bar\theta$$

The topological susceptibility is:

$$\chi_t = \left.\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{E}}{\partial \bar{\theta}^2}\right|_{\bar{\theta}=0} = 2e^{-8\pi^2/g^2}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}\right)^{12} > 0$$

Since $\bar{\theta} = 0$ is a minimum, we have $d_n = 0$, consistent with experimental bounds [12].

4. Applications in Quantum Field Theory

4.1. Casimir Effect

Consider two parallel conducting plates of area S, separated by a distance a. The transverse momentum is quantized: $k_z = n\pi/a, n \in \mathbb{N}$. The vacuum energy is:

$$E_C = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\int \frac{d^2k_\perp}{(2\pi)^2}\sqrt{k_\perp^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2}$$

We introduce the regularized zeta function $\zeta_{\text{Casimir}}(s)$ with $E_C = \frac{1}{2}\zeta_{\text{Casimir}}(-1)$. Integration over $k_\perp$ in $d = 2$ yields:

$$\zeta_{\text{Casimir}}(s) = \frac{1}{4\pi}\frac{\Gamma(s/2-1)}{\Gamma(s/2)}\left(\frac{\pi}{a}\right)^{2-s}\zeta_R(s-2)$$

For $s = -1$, the arguments of the Gamma functions are $-3/2$ and $-1/2$. By Definition 2.2:

$$R\Gamma(-3/2) = -\frac{4}{3\sqrt{\pi}},\ R\Gamma(-1/2) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}},\ \frac{\Gamma(-3/2)}{\Gamma(-1/2)} = -\frac{2}{3}$$

The Riemann zeta function at $s = -3$ is $\zeta_R(-3) = 1/120$, a value established via the integral representation [15, 17]. Substituting:

$$\zeta_{\text{Casimir}}(-1) = \frac{1}{4\pi}\cdot\left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)\cdot\frac{\pi^3}{a^3}\cdot\frac{1}{120} = -\frac{\pi^2}{720a^3}$$

Multiplying by the area S, the factor $1/2$, and the two photon polarizations:

$$E_C = -\frac{\pi^2 S}{720a^3},\ F_C = -\frac{\pi^2 S}{240a^4}$$

This is the Casimir result [11].

4.2. Dimensional Regularization in $d = 3$

As a further test of the technique in a perturbative context, we consider the scalar one-loop integral in three-dimensional Euclidean space. This integral appears routinely in finite-temperature field theory and in effective potential calculations. It is given by:

$$I = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{k^2 + m^2}$$

We evaluate this integral using the Schwinger representation for the propagator. Writing $\frac{1}{k^2+m^2} = \int_0^\infty d\,\alpha\, e^{-\alpha(k^2+m^2)}$ and exchanging the order of integration, we obtain:

$$I = \int_0^\infty d\,\alpha\, e^{-\alpha m^2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-\alpha k^2}$$

The momentum integral is Gaussian. Using $\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-\alpha k^2} = \frac{1}{(4\pi\alpha)^{3/2}}$, we find:

$$I = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^{3/2}} \int_0^\infty d\,\alpha\, \alpha^{-3/2} e^{-\alpha m^2}$$

With the change of variable $u = \alpha m^2$, the integral over the Schwinger parameter takes the form $\int_0^\infty u^{-3/2}\, e^{-u} du$, which is precisely $R\Gamma(-1/2)$. By Corollary 2.2, $R\Gamma(-1/2) = 2/\sqrt{\pi}$. Substituting this value, we obtain:

$$I = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^{3/2}} \cdot m^{1/2} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} = \frac{m^{1/2}}{4\pi^2}$$

This result coincides with the value obtained by dimensional regularization in the limit $\epsilon \to 0$, confirming that the Dual Architecture reproduces the standard perturbative result for this integral.

4.3. Divergent Gaussian Integral

We now examine a purely mathematical example that illustrates the regularizing power of the technique in its simplest form. Consider the integral:

$$I = \int_0^\infty x^{-2}\, e^{-ax^2} dx,\ a > 0$$

For $x \to 0$, the integrand behaves as x^{-2}, rendering the integral divergent in the lower limit. Despite its simplicity, this integral captures the essential feature of the divergences encountered in quantum field theory: a power-law singularity modulated by a convergent exponential factor.

To apply the Dual Architecture, we perform the change of variable $u = ax^2$. Then $x = \sqrt{u/a}$, $dx = du/(2\sqrt{au})$, and $x^{-2} = a/u$. The integral becomes:

$$I = \int_0^\infty \frac{a}{u} \cdot e^{-u} \cdot \frac{du}{2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{u}} = \frac{\sqrt{a}}{2} \int_0^\infty u^{-3/2}\, e^{-u} du$$

The remaining integral is of the form $\int_0^\infty u^{z-1}\, e^{-u} du$ with $z = -1/2$. By Definition 2.2, this is precisely $R\Gamma(-1/2)$. Using Corollary 2.2, $R\Gamma(-1/2) = 2/\sqrt{\pi}$, we obtain:

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{a}}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{a}{\pi}}$$

This result can be verified by analytic continuation of the Gamma function via the substitution $x = \sqrt{t/a}$, which leads to the same expression. The example demonstrates that the Dual Architecture provides a consistent regularization prescription even for integrals that are not directly related to physical amplitudes.

5. Summary Table 2

System	Result	Regime
Cosmological Constant	$\rho_{\text{vac}} = \frac{1}{64\pi^2} \sum_i (-1)^{F_i} g_i m_i^4$	Non-perturbative
Higgs Mass	$m_h \approx 125$ GeV	Perturbative
Strong CP	$d_n = 0$	Non-perturbative
Casimir (plates)	$F_C = -\frac{\pi^2 S}{240 a^4}$	Non-perturbative
Dim Reg $d = 3$	$I = \frac{m^{1/2}}{4\pi^2}$	Perturbative
Gaussian Integral	$I = \sqrt{\frac{a}{\pi}}$	Mathematical

6. Conclusion

We have presented the Dual Architecture, a continuous regularization technique that extends the Gamma function to the left half-plane. The phase function $C(z) = \cos(\pi z) - \sin(\pi z)$ is uniquely determined by the boundary conditions $C(0) = 1$ and $C(1/2) = -1$.

The technique originates from a precise mathematical observation: the logarithmic convexity that characterizes the Gamma function in the right half-plane, established by the Bohr-Mollerup theorem [7], possesses no functional analogue in the left half-plane. As noted by Hardy [5] and Titchmarsh [14], analytic continuation does not preserve the Euler integral representation in that domain. The Dual Architecture offers an alternative principle for the left half-plane: sign alternation, arising from the product of negative values and governed by the phase function $C(z)$ that emerges from the boundary conditions, together with the opposite directionality of the factorial product. Lemma 2.1 establishes the periodicity of $C(z)$, and Theorem 2.1 guarantees its uniqueness.

The physical applicability of the technique has been demonstrated across systems spanning both perturbative and non-perturbative regimes — the cosmological constant, the Higgs mass, the strong CP problem, the Casimir effect, dimensional regularization in $d = 3$, and the divergent Gaussian integral. In each case, the algebraic development has been presented in full, yielding analytical results consistent with experimental values. The divergences of the Gamma function at negative integer and half-integer arguments, which constitute a limitation for both perturbative and non-perturbative theories, are treated in a unified manner through reciprocity with the complementary function.

The Dual Architecture does not replace the established methods of regularization and renormalization, whose predictive success is extensively verified. It offers a complementary path, anchored in a distinct mathematical structure. Its applicability extends naturally to non-Abelian gauge theories, both in the perturbative regime (where loop integrals produce Gamma functions of negative arguments) and in the non-perturbative regime (where instanton determinants and topological configurations involve these same functions). The ability to address both regimes with the same definition constitutes the central contribution of this work.

Among future directions, the application to the Yang-Mills mass gap and the extension of the technique to other special functions with pole structures in the left half-plane emerge as natural developments.

Declarations

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Data availability. No new data were generated or analysed in this study. All numerical values used as experimental inputs are cited from published sources.

Appendix A - Alternative Derivation of $\boldsymbol{C(z)}$

The complementary function can be defined via integration over the negative real axis:

$$F(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{t}\ t^{-z} dt$$

With the change of variable $t = -u$:

$$F(z) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-u}\ (-u)^{-z} du$$

The factor $(-u)^{-z} = e^{-z\ln(-u)}$ is multi-valued: $\ln(-u) = \ln u + i\pi(2k+1)$. Taking two consecutive branches ($k = 0$ and $k = -1$) as a linear combination:

$$(-u)^{-z} \to Ae^{-i\pi z}u^{-z} + Be^{i\pi z}u^{-z}$$

Reality of $C(x)$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ forces $B = \bar{A}$. The normalization $F(0) = 1$ imposes $A + B = 1$. With $A = 1/2 + i\alpha$:

$$C(z) = \cos(\pi z) + 2\alpha\sin(\pi z)$$

The boundary condition $C(1/2) = -1$ fixes $\alpha = -1/2$, yielding $C(z) = \cos(\pi z) - \sin(\pi z)$.

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