



Calculating $\zeta(2)$

We start with the integral $\int \sin^k x \, dx$. Using integration by parts, we can show that the following recursion equation is true (for all values of k):

$$\int \sin^k x \, dx = -\frac{1}{k} \sin^{k-1} x \cos x + \frac{k-1}{k} \int \sin^{k-2} x \, dx$$

Denote the definite integral $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^k x \, dx$ by $\mathcal{I}(k)$. Note that by the above $\mathcal{I}(k) = \frac{k-1}{k} \mathcal{I}(k-2)$. Using this recursion formula, we can show that the following equation is true (for all integers $n > 0$):

$$\mathcal{I}(2n+1) = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n+1} x \, dx = \frac{2n}{2n+1} \cdot \frac{2n-2}{2n-1} \cdots \frac{2}{3} \cdot 1 \quad (1)$$

Next consider the power series representation of $\arcsin x$:

$$\arcsin x = x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)} \cdot \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \quad (2)$$

obtained by integrating the binomial expansion (as we did in class!):

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} = 1 + \sum \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)} t^{2n}$$

Using the change of variables $x = \sin \theta$ and equation (1), we can show that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{x^{2n+1}}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n+1} \theta \, d\theta = \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \cdots (2n)}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n+1)} \quad (3)$$

And hence by direct (Cal II) integration that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \frac{\pi^2}{8} \quad (4)$$

Using the infinite series (equation (2)) for $\arcsin x$, and equation (3), show that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\arcsin x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = 1 + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \frac{1}{7^2} + \cdots \quad (5)$$

Note that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)^2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)^2} \quad \text{and also note that} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)^2} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

So conclude using equations (4, 5) that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

We've seen another proof of this formula using a double integral—this is a famous result of Euler's ("E as in e"). It was the first result obtained in summing the p series $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$, usually¹ denoted $\zeta(p)$. It is not too difficult to extend Euler's result to obtain formulas for all the even powers $\zeta(2n)$ (apparently he knew such formulas in the 18th century, although formal proofs for the formulas for $\zeta(2n)$ were not generally understood until later in the 19th century), but to this day, no formula is known for any of the odd powers, not even for the "simplest" $\zeta(3) = \sum \frac{1}{n^3}$. About 25 years ago $\zeta(3)$ was shown to be irrational, but beyond that little is known in terms of actual formulas like the one shown here for $\zeta(2)$.

¹This "zeta function" $\zeta(s)$ is one of the really famous functions of mathematics, and a conjecture concerning its behaviour (the "Riemann hypothesis") is one of several million dollar problems that challenge mathematicians. You can find out more at <http://www.claymath.org/prizeproblems/>



Calculating $\zeta(2)$ —again

We start by calculating $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{dx dy}{1 - xy}$ —an improper integral, but we shall ignore that for now (exercise: check the appropriate limit to show this does converge).

First we use infinite series:

$$\begin{aligned}(1 - xy)^{-1} &= 1 + xy + \frac{(-1)(-2)}{2!}(-xy)^2 + \frac{(-1)(-2)(-3)}{3!}(-xy)^3 + \cdots \\ &= 1 + xy + x^2y^2 + x^3y^3 + \cdots\end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \frac{dx dy}{1 - xy} &= \left[x + \frac{1}{2}x^2y + \frac{1}{3}x^3y^3 + \frac{1}{4}x^4y^3 + \cdots \right]_0^1 \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}y + \frac{1}{3}y^2 + \frac{1}{4}y^3 + \cdots\end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1 - xy} dy &= \left[y + \frac{1}{2^2}y^2 + \frac{1}{3^2}y^3 + \frac{1}{4^2}y^4 + \cdots \right]_0^1 \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots\end{aligned}$$

In other words,

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{dx dy}{1 - xy} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \zeta(2)$$

We shall now evaluate the double integral another way, ending up with an actual value therefore for

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Effectively we shall rotate the unit square (and double its area) with the transformation $x = u - v$, $y = u + v$. First, as an exercise, you should show that this transformation takes the square \mathcal{R} : $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ to the diamond \mathcal{S} given by these four lines: $v = -u$, $v = u$, $v = u - 1$, $v = 1 - u$. Furthermore, the Jacobian $\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} = 2$.

So we have the following calculation (there are hints below, so you can fill in the details for yourself).

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_{\mathcal{R}} \frac{1}{1 - xy} dx dy &= 2 \iint_{\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{1 - (u^2 - v^2)} du dv \\ &= 2 \int_0^{1/2} \int_{-u}^u \frac{1}{1 - u^2 + v^2} dv du + 2 \int_{1/2}^1 \int_{u-1}^{1-u} \frac{1}{1 - u^2 + v^2} dv du \\ &= 2 \arcsin^2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - 2 \arcsin^2(0) + \pi(\arcsin(1) - \arcsin(\frac{1}{2})) \\ &\quad - (\arcsin^2(1) - \arcsin^2(\frac{1}{2})) \\ &= \frac{\pi^2}{18} - 0 + \frac{\pi^2}{2} - \frac{\pi^2}{6} - \frac{\pi^2}{4} + \frac{\pi^2}{36} \\ &= \frac{\pi^2}{6}\end{aligned}$$

Here are the relevant hints:

- $\int \frac{dv}{a^2 + v^2} = \frac{1}{a} \arctan\left(\frac{v}{a}\right)$
So $\int \frac{1}{1 - u^2 + v^2} dv = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} \arctan\left(\frac{v}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}}\right).$
- $\arctan\left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}}\right) = \arcsin(u)$
So $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} \arctan\left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}}\right) du = \int \frac{\arcsin(u)}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} du = \frac{1}{2}(\arcsin(u))^2.$
- $\arctan\left(\frac{1 - u}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \arccos(u) = \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{1}{2} \arcsin(u)$
So $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} \arctan\left(\frac{1 - u}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}}\right) du = \frac{\pi}{4} \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} - \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\arcsin(u)}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} du = \frac{\pi}{4} \arcsin(u) - \frac{1}{4}(\arcsin(u))^2.$
- And finally $\arcsin(x) = -\arcsin(-x)$ and $\arctan(x) = -\arctan(-x)$ (so we can “double up” the integrals of the form $\int_{-\alpha}^{\alpha}$ to get $2 \int_0^{\alpha}$).