

THE SUM OF THE RECIPROCAL OF THE SQUARES A Proof by Leonhard Euler

As if one needed further evidence for the genius of Leonhard Euler, here is one of his solutions to the summation of a famous series. The sum of the reciprocals of the squares of the natural numbers was a question first posed in 1644 by Pietro Mengoli, and left unsolved until Leonhard Euler 1734 [1]. The original method that Euler used was not what follows, but an expansion of the series of the sine and cosine functions. What makes this particular method appealing is a reliance on multivariate calculus techniques [2]. It was well-known at the time that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges for $p > 1$ to some finite value; finding that specific value, however, is a far greater challenge. The object of this paper is to find, and prove, the exact value that this series converges to.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Euler accomplished this by showing first that this series is equal to the following integrated region, and then finding the exact value of the definite integral.

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1-xy} dy dx$$

This double integral over the region $D = \{x, y | 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$, which is represented graphically below, at first appears to have nothing in common with this series; however, the integrand can be rewritten. In particular, $\frac{1}{1-xy}$ is of the form $\frac{1}{1-p}$ for $|p| < 1$ can be expanded as an infinite series.

$$S_n = 1 + p + p^2 + p^3 + \dots + p^n$$

$$p * S_n = p + p^2 + p^3 + \dots + p^{n+1}$$

$$s_n - p * s_n = 1 - p^{n+1} = s_n(1 - p) \Rightarrow s_n = \frac{1 - p^{n+1}}{1 - p}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - p^{n+1}}{1 - p} = \frac{1}{1 - p}$$

$$p = xy \Rightarrow \frac{1}{1 - xy} = xy + x^2y^2 + x^3y^3 + \dots$$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1-xy} dy dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (xy + x^2y^2 + x^3y^3 + \dots) dy dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

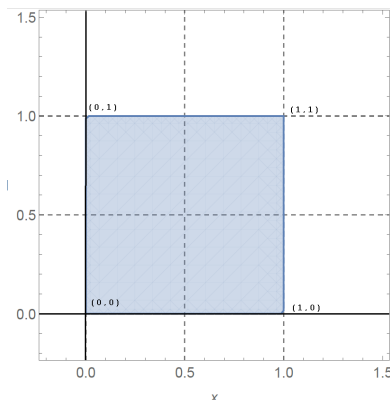
So we know that this integral is equal to the sum of the reciprocals of the squares. Euler performed a transformation of variables here to find the exact value of the double integral.

Let $x = \frac{u+v}{\sqrt{2}}$, and let $y = \frac{u-v}{\sqrt{2}}$.

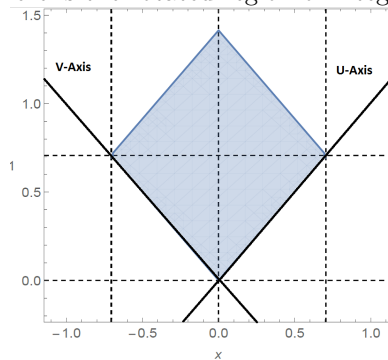
Because the determinant of the Jacobian matrix is 1, or equivalently because rotation is a linear transformation, $dydx = dudv$.

Intuitively this makes sense as the area of the transformed region is $1 * 1 = 1$, as the region D is rotated counterclockwise by 90 degrees, now changing the limits of integration accordingly to the bounds on the U-V axis.

Here is an image of the unit square representing the region D .



Now here is the rotated region of integration.



Here we substitute in (u, v) for (x, y) and evaluate.

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1-xy} dy dx = \int_0^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} \int_{-u}^u \frac{2}{(2-u^2)+v^2} dv du + \int_{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}^{\sqrt{2}-u+\sqrt{2}} \int_{u-\sqrt{2}}^{\sqrt{2}-u+\sqrt{2}} \frac{2}{(2-u^2)+v^2} dv du = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$$

1 Evaluating the inside integral of \mathbf{A} :

$$\text{Let } \alpha = \sqrt{2-u^2},$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-u}^u \frac{2}{(2-u^2)+v^2} dv = 2 \int_{-u}^u \frac{1}{\alpha^2+v^2} dv = \frac{2}{\alpha} \arctan \frac{v}{\alpha} \Big|_{-u}^u = \frac{4}{\alpha} \arctan \frac{u}{\alpha}$$

$$= \frac{4}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} \arctan \frac{u}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} = \int_0^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} \frac{4}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} \arctan \frac{u}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} du$$

This can be evaluated with the substitution $u = \sqrt{2} \sin \theta$, $du = \sqrt{2} \cos \theta d\theta$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b \frac{4}{\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}\sin\theta}^2} \arctan \frac{\sqrt{2}\sin\theta}{\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}\sin\theta}^2} * \sqrt{2}\cos\theta d\theta = 2 * \theta^2 \Big|_a^b$$

$$\text{where } u = \sqrt{2} \sin \theta \Rightarrow \theta = \arcsin \frac{u}{\sqrt{2}}$$

This means that the total of \mathbf{A} is just

$$2 * \arcsin \left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 \Big|_0^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} = \frac{\pi^2}{18}$$

2 Evaluating the Integral \mathbf{B} :

$$\int_{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}^{\sqrt{2}-u+\sqrt{2}} \int_{u-\sqrt{2}}^{\sqrt{2}-u+\sqrt{2}} \frac{2}{(2-u^2)+v^2} dv du$$

From our earlier result, it was shown that the inside integral stays the same, and only the limits of integration change.

$$\frac{4}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} \arctan \frac{v}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} \Big|_{u-\sqrt{2}}^{-u+\sqrt{2}} = \int_{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}^{\sqrt{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} [\arctan \left(\frac{u-\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} \right) - \arctan \left(\frac{-u+\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2-u^2}} \right)] du$$

Just as last time let $u = \sqrt{2} \sin \theta$, $du = \sqrt{2} \cos \theta$ and the integral simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned}
& 2 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \arctan\left(\frac{-\sqrt{2} \sin \theta + \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2} \cos^2 \theta}\right) - \arctan\left(\frac{\sqrt{2} \sin \theta - \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2} \cos^2 \theta}\right) d\theta \\
&= 2 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \arctan\left(\frac{-\sin \theta + 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta - 2 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \arctan\left(\frac{\sin \theta - 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta \\
&= 4 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \arctan\left(\frac{-\sin \theta + 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta = 4\theta \arctan\left(\frac{-\sin \theta + 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta - 4 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \theta \frac{1}{1 + \Delta^2} \frac{d\Delta}{d\theta} d\theta
\end{aligned}$$

For simplicity,

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta &= \frac{1 - \sin \theta}{\cos \theta} \\
\frac{d\Delta}{d\theta} &= \frac{\sin \theta - 1}{\cos^2 \theta} \\
\Delta^2 &= \frac{1 - 2 \sin \theta + \sin^2 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} \\
1 + \Delta^2 &= \frac{1 - 2 \sin \theta + \sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} = \frac{2 - 2 \sin \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} \\
\frac{1}{1 + \Delta^2} &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{1 - \sin \theta}
\end{aligned}$$

By substituting these back in, it can be seen that the integral miraculously simplifies.

$$\begin{aligned}
& 4\theta \arctan\left(\frac{-\sin \theta + 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta - 4 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \theta \frac{1}{1 + \Delta^2} \frac{d\Delta}{d\theta} d\theta \\
& \theta \arctan\left(\frac{-\sin \theta + 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta - 4 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \theta \frac{1}{2} \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{(1 - \sin \theta)} \frac{(-1)(1 - \sin \theta)}{\cos^2 \theta} d\theta \\
&= \theta \arctan\left(\frac{-\sin \theta + 1}{\cos \theta}\right) d\theta - 2 \int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \theta d\theta = 4 \frac{\pi^2}{36} = \frac{\pi^2}{12} = \mathbf{B}
\end{aligned}$$

Adding \mathbf{B} to \mathbf{A} and equating it to the original geometric series, we find that the summation of the infinite series of the reciprocals of the squares of all positive integers,

$$4\frac{\pi^2}{36} + \frac{\pi^2}{18} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \blacksquare$$

References

- [1] Ayoub, Raymond, *Euler and the zeta function*, Amer. Math. Monthly 81: 106786 1974.
- [2] Stewart, James, *Calculus: Early Transcendentals*, Cengage Learning, Boston, 7th edition, 2013.