Lecture 5-12

We give an example of a linear change of variable which quite unexpectedly is applied to evaluate the sum of an important series. Consider the innocent-looking integral $I = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1-xy} dx \, dy$. (This is actually an improper integral, since the integrand becomes unbounded as $(x, y) \to (1, 1)$, but we will soon see that it converges.) On the one hand, recognizing the integrand as the sum of the infinite series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (xy)^n$, we get $I = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^2}$; we have seen that this sum converges but have not yet computed its value. Now, on the other hand, if we make the change of variable x = u + v, y = u - v, so that $u = \frac{1}{2}(x + y), v = \frac{1}{2}(x - y)$, we find that the integrand becomes $f(uv) = \frac{1}{1+u^2-v^2}$. The limit of integration are a bit trickier to work out. Clearly u runs from 0 to 1; for fixed $u \in [0, 1/2], v$ runs from -u to u, considering the southern and western boundaries of the unit square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$. If instead u is fixed in [1/2, 1], then v runs from u - 1 to 1 - u. Since we have $\binom{x}{y} = \binom{1}{1-u} f(u, v) \, dv \, du$. Now it is easy to check that $g(u, v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \arctan \sqrt{\frac{1}{v-u^2}}$ is a v-antiderivative of f(u, v), whence $I = 2(\int_0^{1/2} g(u, v)|_{v=u}^{v=u} du + \int_{1/2}^{1} g(u, v)|_{v=u-1}^{v=u-1}) \, du$. We now make the substitution $u = \sin \theta, du = \cos \theta \, d\theta$ in the first integral, replacing it by $\int_0^{\pi/6} 2\theta \, d\theta = \pi^2/36$. In the second integral, we substitute $u = \cos \theta, du = -\sin \theta \, d\theta$ and use the half-angle formula $\tan \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1-\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$, replacing this integral by $\int_0^{\pi/3} \theta \, d\theta = \pi^2/18$. Adding the two integrals and multiplying this sum by 2, we get $I = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \pi^2/6$, a famous result of Euler in the late eighteenth century. It is remarkable, by the way, that the sum $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2k}}}$ is known for all integers $k \geq 1$ but the single sum $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$ is not known (though it is known to be irrational). If one could somehow evaluate the integral $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{$

As you might imagine there are many useful changes of variable that are nonlinear, each of them giving rise to a change of variable integral formula; indeed, we have already seen polar coordinates as an example in two dimensions. The cylindrical coordinate system in three dimensions is the closest analogue there to polar coordinates; in it we have three coordinates r, θ, z , such that z in cylindrical coordinates is the same as z in Cartesian coordinates, while r, θ are determined by x, y exactly as for polar coordinates. Thus the change of coordinate formulas are $x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta, z = z$. (The reverse change of coordinate formulas, giving r, θ, z in terms of x, y, z are much more awkward and are rarely used.) Now the volume of a cylindrical wedge, defined by the inequalities $a \leq r \leq b$ (with a, b both positive), $c \leq \theta \leq d$ (with $[c,d] \subset [0,2\pi]$) and finally $e \leq z \leq f$ is easily seen to be $(1/2)(b^2 - a^2)(d - c)(f - e)$ (this cylindrical wedge is just the Cartesian product of a polar wedge and a closed interval), which in turn is the integral $\int_e^f \int_c^d \int_a^b r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$. Accordingly, by a simple adaptation of the corresponding argument for polar coordinates, we get the following result: given a continuous real valued-function f(x, y, z) defined on a region R specified in cylindrical coordinates by the inequalities $a \leq \theta \leq \theta \leq \theta, \theta(\theta) \leq r \leq h(\theta), p(r, \theta) \leq z \leq q(r, \theta)$, the triple integral of f over R is given by $\int_a^b \int_g^{h(\theta)} \int_g^{q(r,\theta)} rf((r\cos \theta, r\sin \theta, z) dz \, d\theta \, dr$.

We give a couple of examples. First, suppose we have a solid occupying a right circular cylinder of base radius R and height h, such that the density of the solid at any point is proportional to its height above the xy-plane. What is the mass of the solid? Writing k for the proportionality constant, this mass M is given by the integral $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R \int_0^h krz \, dz \, dr \, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R (1/2)krh^2 \, dr \, d\theta = 2\pi(1/4)kR^2h^2 = \pi kR^2h^2/2$. Second, we ask for the volume V of the "ice cream cone" bounded between the upper hemisphere $z = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2 - y^2}$ and below by the cone $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \tan \alpha$. This volume consists of the region between the upper hemisphere and the xy-plane lying over the disk D of radius $R \cos \alpha$ in the xy-plane centered at the origin with the cylinder with base D and height $R \cos \alpha$ removed and replaced by an inverted cone with vertex at the origin. Hence $V = (\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{R\cos \alpha} \int_0^{\sqrt{R^2 - r^2}} r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta) - \pi R^3 \cos^2 \alpha \sin \alpha + (1/3)\pi R^3 \cos^2 \alpha \sin \alpha$, which works out to be $(2\pi/3)R^3(1 - \cos \alpha)$. When we introduce spherical coordinates, we will see that this last region is a wedge in spherical coordinates, given as the Cartesian product of intervals in the spherical coordinates ρ, ϕ , and θ . We will use this computation to derive the change of variable factor for spherical coordinates.