

## Changing Variables in Multiple Integrals

**The One-Dimensional Case** Here it is easy to recall the procedure presented in the standard calculus. Given an integral

$$\int_a^b \phi(x) dx,$$

and a differentiable, single-valued (i.e., differentiable and either monotone increasing or monotone decreasing) function  $f(t)$  whose range includes the interval  $[a, b]$ , we can introduce the change of variable  $x = f(t)$  and, with  $a = t_a$ ,  $b = t_b$ , write

$$\int_a^b \phi(x) dx = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} \phi(f(t)) \frac{df}{dt}(t) dt.$$

In fact,  $f(t)$  does not have to be monotone; e.g., if there is a value  $c$  with  $c < a$ , and  $\phi(x)$  is defined on the extended interval  $[c, b]$ , and if there is a value  $t_c$  with  $t_a < t_c < t_b$  such that  $f(t)$  decreases from the value  $a$  to the value  $c$  on  $[t_a, t_c]$  and then increases from the value  $c$  to the value  $b$  on  $[t_c, t_b]$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b \phi(x) dx &= \int_a^c \phi(x) dx + \int_c^b \phi(x) dx \\ &= \int_{t_a}^{t_c} \phi(f(t)) \frac{df}{dt}(t) dt + \int_{t_c}^{t_b} \phi(f(t)) \frac{df}{dt}(t) dt = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} \phi(f(t)) \frac{df}{dt}(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

**Example** Compute  $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ . The standard approach here would be to let  $x = f(\theta) = \sin \theta$  on the interval  $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ , where  $\sin \theta$  is monotone increasing, and compute

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\sin^2 \theta}} \frac{d}{d\theta} \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \cos \theta d\theta = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} d\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

On the interval  $-\pi \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  we also have  $\sin(-\pi) = 0$ ,  $\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 1$ , but  $\sin \theta$  is not monotone there. Nevertheless we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} &= \int_{-\pi}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\sin^2 \theta}} \frac{d}{d\theta} \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{-\frac{\pi}{2}} \left(-\frac{1}{\cos \theta}\right) \cos \theta d\theta + \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \cos \theta d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{-\frac{\pi}{2}} (-1) d\theta + \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} d\theta = -\frac{\pi}{2} + \pi = \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

We will see that for multiple integrals, i.e., integrals in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ , where  $n > 1$ , a number of similar considerations apply but they have to be treated in a somewhat different manner.

**Change of Variables for Integrals in  $\mathbf{R}^2$ .** Suppose  $\mathcal{R}$  is a region in  $\mathbf{R}^2$  and  $\phi(X) = \phi(x, y)$  is a continuous, or piecewise continuous, function defined on  $\mathcal{R}$ . Then we can define the integral

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX = \int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(x, y) dx dy.$$

In some circumstances it is easier to evaluate, or study, the integral with the aid of a change of coordinates. We introduce a new vector variable

$$\Xi = \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix}$$

and a vector functional relationship, expressing the change of coordinates,

$$X = F(\Xi) = \begin{pmatrix} f(\xi, \eta) \\ g(\xi, \eta) \end{pmatrix}.$$

We suppose that  $F(\Xi)$  is continuously, or piecewise continuously, differentiable and that the mapping induced by this relationship is one-to-one and takes a region  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$  in the  $\xi, \eta$  plane onto a region  $\mathcal{R}$  in the  $x, y$  plane. Then

$$\psi(\Xi) = \psi(\xi, \eta) \equiv \phi(F(\Xi)) = \phi(f(\xi, \eta), g(\xi, \eta))$$

is a continuous, or piecewise continuous, function defined on  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ . The question we want to consider is: how do we re-express  $\int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX$  in terms of the function  $\psi(\Xi)$  and the region  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ ?

If we partition the region  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$  via a set of rectangles  $\{R_k | k = 1, 2, \dots, K\}$  and, for each  $k$ , let  $\Omega_k = (\omega_k, \zeta_k)$  be a point in  $R_k$ , then, given a continuous, or piecewise continuous function  $v(\xi, \eta)$  defined on  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ , we have the approximation

$$\int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \psi(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta \approx \sum_{k=1}^K \psi(\omega_k, \zeta_k) \delta\xi_k \times \delta\eta_k,$$

where the rectangle  $R_k$  has dimensions  $\delta\xi_k \times \delta\eta_k$ .

Since  $X = F(\Xi)$  covers, as  $\Xi$  ranges over  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ , the region  $\mathcal{R}$ , in a one-to-one manner, given a continuous, or piecewise continuous function  $\psi(\Xi) = \psi(\xi, \eta)$  defined on  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ , we can define a function  $\phi(X) = \phi(x, y)$  on  $\mathcal{R}$  by requiring

$$\phi(F(\Xi)) = \phi(f(\xi, \eta), g(\xi, \eta)) = \psi(\Xi) = \psi(\xi, \eta), \quad \Xi \in \hat{\mathcal{R}}.$$

Let  $Q_k = F(R_k)$ , i.e.,  $Q_k$  is the image of the rectangle  $R_k$  under  $X = F(\Xi)$ , and let  $A_k$  denote the area of  $Q_k$ . The set  $\{Q_k | k = 1, 2, \dots, K\}$  forms a partition of  $\mathcal{R}$ , albeit a nonstandard one since the  $Q_k$  are not rectangles. Nevertheless, as we refine the partition  $\{R_k | k = 1, 2, \dots, K\}$  of  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$  by letting the maximum diameter of the  $R_k$  tend to zero, so that the sum approximating  $\int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} v(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta$  more and more closely approaches that integral, the diameters of the corresponding sets  $\{P_k\}$  will also tend to zero and the union of the sets  $Q_k$  will more and more closely cover the region  $\mathcal{R}$  and the approximation relationship

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX \approx \sum_{k=1}^K \phi(F(\Omega_k)) A_k$$

will become more and more accurate.

Let us choose one of the rectangles in the partition of  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$  and call it  $R$ , supposing it to have dimensions  $d\xi \times d\eta$ . Let us suppose its lower left hand corner,  $\Xi_0$ , and its other three corners, are given by

$$\Xi_0 = (\xi_0, \eta_0), (\xi_0 + \delta\xi, \eta_0), (\xi_0, \eta_0 + \delta\eta), (\xi_0 + \delta\xi, \eta_0 + \delta\eta).$$

Letting

$$\tilde{F}(\Xi) = F(\Xi_0) + \nabla F(\Xi_0)(\Xi - \Xi_0)$$

be the linear approximation to  $F(\Xi)$  based at the point  $\Xi_0$ , the set  $Q = F(R)$  can be approximated by  $P = \tilde{F}(R)$ . Because  $\tilde{F}(\Xi)$  is linear in  $\Xi$  it is easy to see that  $P$  is a parallelogram. Three of the corners, or vertices, of this parallelogram are

$$\tilde{F}(\xi_0, \eta_0) = F(\Xi_0),$$

$$\tilde{F}(\xi_0 + \delta\xi, \eta_0) = F(\Xi_0) + \nabla F(\Xi_0) \begin{pmatrix} \delta\xi \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = F(\Xi_0) + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0) \delta\xi \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0) \delta\xi \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$F(\xi_0, \eta_0 + \delta\eta) = F(\Xi_0) + \nabla F(\Xi_0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \delta\eta \end{pmatrix} = F(\Xi_0) + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0) \delta\eta \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0) \delta\eta \end{pmatrix}.$$

The area of this parallelogram is then

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \left\| \det \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0)\delta\xi & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0)\delta\xi & 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0)\delta\eta & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0)\delta\eta & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\| = \delta\xi\delta\eta \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0) \end{pmatrix} \right| \\ &= \delta\xi\delta\eta \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0) & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0) \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi}(\Xi_0) & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta}(\Xi_0) \end{pmatrix} \right| = \delta\xi\delta\eta |\det \nabla F(\Xi_0)|. \end{aligned}$$

We repeat this discussion for each of the rectangles  $R_k$  partitioning  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ , in each case letting  $\Xi_k$  be the lower left hand corner of  $R_k$ , letting the dimensions of  $R_k$  be  $\delta\xi_k \times \delta\eta_k$  and letting  $\Omega_k$  be an arbitrary point

in  $R_k$ . The approximation relationship described earlier then may be replaced by

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX &\approx \sum_{k=1}^K \phi(F(\Omega_k)) A_k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K \phi(F(\Omega_k)) |\det \nabla F(\Xi_k)| \delta\xi_k \times \delta\eta_k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K \psi(\omega_k, \zeta_k) |\det \nabla F(\Xi_k)| \delta\xi_k \times \delta\eta_k. \end{aligned}$$

Comparing this with the earlier approximation relationship for the integral of an arbitrary  $\psi(\xi, \eta)$  over  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ , i.e.,

$$\int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \psi(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta \approx \sum_{k=1}^K \psi(\omega_k, \zeta_k) \delta\xi_k \times \delta\eta_k,$$

we see that in the limit, as we let the maximum diameter of the  $R_k$  tend to zero, we obtain the relationship

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(x, y) dx dy &= \int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \phi(F(\Xi)) |\det \nabla F(\Xi)| d\Xi \\ &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \phi(f(\xi, \eta), g(\xi, \eta)) \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta} \end{pmatrix} (\xi, \eta) \right| d\xi d\eta. \end{aligned}$$

**Example 1** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be the disk of radius  $\rho$  centered at the origin in the  $x, y$  plane:

$$\mathcal{R} = \{x, y \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq \rho\},$$

and let  $\phi(x, y) = e^{-(x^2+y^2)}$ . We wish to compute

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy.$$

For this purpose the geometry and the form of the integrand both suggest the use of polar coordinates

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}.$$

Accordingly we introduce the change of coordinates, expressed by

$$x = f(r, \theta) = r \cos \theta, \quad y = g(r, \theta) = r \sin \theta.$$

The variables  $r$  and  $\theta$  fill the roles of  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  in our earlier general discussion. The “mapping” described by  $F = (f, g)^*$  carries the rectangle

$$\hat{\mathcal{R}} = \{r, \theta \mid 0 < r \leq \rho, \quad 0 < \theta \leq 2\pi\}$$

in the  $r, \theta$  plane onto the disk  $\mathcal{R}$ .

Here we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \theta} \end{pmatrix} \right| &= \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \right| \\ &= r (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) = r. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the area elements are related by  $dx dy = r dr d\theta$  and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{R}} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy &= \int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\rho e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^\rho e^{-r^2} r dr = \pi \int_0^\rho \frac{d}{dr} (-e^{-r^2}) dr = \pi (1 - e^{-\rho^2}). \end{aligned}$$

An immediate corollary, as we let  $\rho \rightarrow \infty$ , is

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^2} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy = \pi.$$

**Change of Variables for Integrals in  $\mathbf{R}^3, \mathbf{R}^n$ .** In three dimensions and, for that matter, in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  for any integer  $n \geq 3$ , changing coordinates in integrals works out in much the same way as in  $\mathbf{R}^2$ . Here we will content ourselves with describing what modifications are required in the three dimensional, as compared with the two dimensional, case. Thus we suppose we have a continuous, or piecewise continuous function  $\phi(X) = \phi(x, y, z)$  defined on a region  $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathbf{R}^3$  and we assume there

is a one-to-one, continuously, or piecewise continuously, differentiable vector function, or “map”

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = X = F(\Xi) = \begin{pmatrix} f(\xi, \eta, \zeta) \\ g(\xi, \eta, \zeta) \\ h(\xi, \eta, \zeta) \end{pmatrix}$$

carrying another three dimensional region  $\hat{\mathcal{R}} \subset \hat{\mathbf{R}}^3$  onto  $\mathcal{R}$ . We introduce rectangles  $R_k$ , now three dimensional ones, partitioning  $\hat{\mathcal{R}}$ , let  $Q_k = F(R_k)$  be the image regions partitioning  $\mathcal{R}$  and let  $P_k = \tilde{F}(R_k)$  be the approximating parallelopipedons, just as in the two dimensional case, where  $\tilde{F}$  is a certain linear approximation to  $F$ . More specifically, selecting a typical  $R_k$  and calling it  $R$ , we select that corner, or vertex of  $R$  corresponding to the least values of  $\xi$ ,  $\eta$  and  $\zeta$  and call that vertex  $\Xi_0$ . Then, on  $R$ ,

$$\tilde{F}(\Xi) = F(\Xi_0) + \nabla F(\Xi_0)(\Xi - \Xi_0), \nabla F(\Xi_0) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \zeta} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \zeta} \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \eta} & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \zeta} \end{pmatrix} (\xi_0, \eta_0, \zeta_0).$$

The parallelopipedon  $P = \tilde{F}(R)$  has eight vertices. Only four of these concern us:

$$\begin{aligned} X_0 &= F(\Xi_0) = \tilde{F}(\Xi_0), \\ X_1 &\equiv X_0 + \nabla F(\Xi_0) \begin{pmatrix} \delta\xi \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = X_0 + \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi} \delta\xi, \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi} \delta\xi, \frac{\partial h}{\partial \xi} \delta\xi \right)^*, \\ X_2 &\equiv X_0 + \nabla F(\Xi_0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \delta\eta \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = X_0 + \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta} \delta\eta, \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta} \delta\eta, \frac{\partial h}{\partial \eta} \delta\eta \right)^*, \\ X_3 &\equiv X_0 + \nabla F(\Xi_0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \delta\zeta \end{pmatrix} = X_0 + \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial \zeta} \delta\zeta, \frac{\partial g}{\partial \zeta} \delta\zeta, \frac{\partial h}{\partial \zeta} \delta\zeta \right)^*, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\delta\xi$ ,  $\delta\eta$  and  $\delta\zeta$  are the (positive) side lengths of  $R$ . The volume of the parallelogram  $P = \tilde{F}(R)$  spanned by these vertices is then given by the *vector triple product*

$$\begin{aligned} V(P) &= |(X_1 - X_0) * (X_2 - X_0) \times (X_3 - X_0)| \\ &= \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi} \delta\xi & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi} \delta\xi & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \xi} \delta\xi \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta} \delta\eta & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta} \delta\eta & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \eta} \delta\eta \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \zeta} \delta\zeta & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \zeta} \delta\zeta & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \zeta} \delta\zeta \end{pmatrix} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

The partial derivatives here are all evaluated at  $\Xi_0$ . Since multiplication of a row of a matrix by a constant multiplies the determinant by that constant and since the determinant of a matrix is equal to the determinant of its transpose, we have

$$V(P) = \left| \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \eta} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial \zeta} \\ \frac{\partial g}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \eta} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial \zeta} \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial \xi} & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \eta} & \frac{\partial h}{\partial \zeta} \end{pmatrix} \right| \delta\xi \delta\eta \delta\zeta.$$

Since  $\delta\xi \delta\eta \delta\zeta = V(R)$ , the volume of the rectangle  $R$ , we have

$$V(P) = |\det \nabla F(\Xi_0)| V(R).$$

Applying this result to all of the three dimensional rectangles  $R_k$  and using the same arguments as in the two dimensional case, we again have

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \phi(F(\Xi)) |\det \nabla F(\Xi)| d\Xi.$$

**Example 2** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be the ball of radius  $\rho$  in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ . We compute

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} \log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} dx dy dz.$$

Here we use the standard *spherical coordinates*  $r, \theta, \varphi$ , the latter, with range  $0 \leq \varphi \leq \pi$ , being the angle between the half line joining the

origin to the point in question and the half line  $x = y = 0$ , i.e., the positive  $z$  axis. The relationship between the standard cartesian coordinates  $x, y, z$  and the spherical coordinates is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = F(r, \theta, \varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} f(r, \theta, \varphi) \\ g(r, \theta, \varphi) \\ h(r, \theta, \varphi) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r \cos \theta \sin \varphi \\ r \sin \theta \sin \varphi \\ r \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix}.$$

The Jacobian determinant of  $F$  in this case is

$$\begin{aligned} & \det \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \sin \varphi & -r \sin \theta \sin \varphi & r \cos \theta \cos \varphi \\ \sin \theta \sin \varphi & r \cos \theta \sin \varphi & r \sin \theta \cos \varphi \\ \cos \varphi & 0 & -r \sin \varphi \end{pmatrix} \\ &= r^2 \sin \varphi \det \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \sin \varphi & -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \cos \varphi \\ \sin \theta \sin \varphi & \cos \theta & \sin \theta \cos \varphi \\ \cos \varphi & 0 & -\sin \varphi \end{pmatrix} \\ &= r^2 \sin \varphi \left( \cos^2 \varphi (-\sin^2 \theta - \cos^2 \theta) - \sin^2 \varphi (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) \right) = -r^2 \sin \varphi. \end{aligned}$$

Since it is the absolute value of the determinant which enters into the change of coordinates, and since  $\sin \varphi \geq 0$  over the range indicated, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\mathcal{R}} \log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} dx dy dz = \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\rho \log r r^2 \sin \varphi dr d\theta d\varphi \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{9} \int_0^\rho \log(r^3) \frac{d}{dr}(r^3) dr = \frac{4\pi}{9} \int_0^{\rho^3} \log u du = \frac{4\pi}{9} (\rho^3 \log \rho^3 - \rho^3). \end{aligned}$$

The result in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ , for an arbitrary positive integer  $n$ , is identical; for all  $n$ , defining the integral as we have, the result is

$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX = \int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \phi(F(\Xi)) |\det \nabla F(\Xi)| d\Xi.$$

Curiously, perhaps, one has to be a little bit careful in applying this result to the familiar case  $n = 1$ . Suppose in the integral  $\int_1^2 \frac{dx}{x^2}$ , which

is clearly positive, we set  $x = \frac{1}{\xi}$ . Then  $|\det \nabla F(\Xi)|$  reduces in this case to  $\left|\frac{-1}{\xi^2}\right| = \frac{1}{\xi^2}$ . There may be a temptation to apply the general rule in the following (incorrect) way:

$$\int_1^2 \frac{dx}{x^2} = \int_{\xi=1/1}^{\xi=1/2} \xi^2 \frac{1}{\xi^2} d\xi = \int_1^{1/2} d\xi = -\frac{1}{2}$$

– which is negative! The correct result is obtained, of course, by setting  $dx = \frac{dx}{d\xi} d\xi = -\frac{d\xi}{\xi^2}$ . The apparent inconsistency is resolved when we realize that our integrals  $\int_{\mathcal{R}} \phi(X) dX$ ,  $\int_{\hat{\mathcal{R}}} \phi(F(\Xi)) |\nabla F(\Xi)| d\Xi$  are always defined with respect to length, area, volume, etc., measured in the *positive* sense. An integral such as  $\int_1^{1/2} d\xi$ , in which the upper limit is less than the lower limit, is not defined this way. It is correct to write

$$\int_{[1,2]} \frac{dx}{x^2} = \int_{[\frac{1}{2},1]} \xi^2 \frac{1}{\xi^2} d\xi = \int_{[\frac{1}{2},1]} d\xi = \frac{1}{2}$$

because the latter integral means  $\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 d\xi$ , not  $\int_1^{\frac{1}{2}} d\xi$ .