# On the Existence of Regions with Minimal Third Degree Integration Formulas* 

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#### Abstract

A. H. Stroud has shown that $n+1$ is the minimum possible number of nodes in an integration formula of degree three for any region in $E_{n}$. In this paper, in answer to the question of the attainability of this minimal number, we exhibit for each $n$ a region that possesses a third degree formula with $n+1$ nodes. This is accomplished by first deriving an $(n+2)$-point formula of degree three for an arbitrary region that is invariant under the group of affine transformations that leave an $n$-simplex fixed. The formula is then applied to a one-parameter family of such regions, and a value of the parameter is determined for which the weight at the centroid vanishes.


1. Introduction. An approximate $N$-point integration formula of the form

$$
I(f) \equiv \int_{R} f d \mu=\sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{k} f\left(\mathrm{x}_{k}\right)+E(f),
$$

with nodes $\mathrm{x}_{k}$ and weights $A_{k}$ for a region $R$ in $n$-dimensional Euclidean space $E_{n}$, where $d \mu$ is ordinary $n$-dimensional Lebesgue measure, is said to be of degree $m$ if $E(f)=0$ whenever $f$ is a polynomial of degree at most $m$ in the $n$ variables $\mathbf{x}=$ ( $x_{1}, \cdots, x_{n}$ ). Such a formula is said to be positive if $A_{k}>0$ for $k=1, \cdots, N$; self-contained if $\mathrm{x}_{k} \in R$ for $k=1, \cdots, N$.

Let $S_{n}$ be the $n$-simplex with vertices $v_{0}, \mathrm{v}_{1}, \cdots, \mathrm{v}_{n}$ and let c be the centroid of $S_{n}$. Let $R$ be any subset of $E_{n}$ with positive Lebesgue measure which is invariant under the group of affine transformations that map $S_{n}$ onto itself. A region that possesses this property for some $S_{n}$ will be called simplicially-symmetric. We assume that all polynomials of degree at most three in the $n$ variables are integrable over $R$. We shall consider third degree $(n+2)$-point formulas of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{R} f d \mu=A \sum_{k=0}^{n} f\left(\mathbf{x}_{k}\right)+B f(\mathbf{c})+E(f) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\mathbf{x}_{k}=r \mathbf{v}_{k}+(1-r) \mathbf{c} \quad(k=0,1, \cdots, n) .
$$

In this paper we obtain a condition on the simplicially-symmetric region $R$ for the existence of a formula of form (1) which is of degree three. We derive general expressions for the unknowns $A, B$ and $r$, and show that the weight $A$ must be positive, while $B$ is unrestricted in sign. We exhibit a region for which $B=0$, so that the formula actually involves only $n+1$ points. Stroud [6] has shown that $n+1$ is the smallest number of nodes possible in an integration formula of degree three

[^0]for any region, but it was not known in general prior to the publication of this example whether this minimal number was attained by any region. In fact a conjecture to the contrary was made by Hammer and Stroud [3].

Specifically, a one-parameter family of star-shaped simplicially-symmetric regions $S_{n}(d)$ is studied. There is a unique value $d=d_{n}^{*}$ for which the formula fails to exist. A result due to Mysovskikh [5] enables us to explain the failure for $n=2$ and 3, but the significance of $S_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)$ is still unexplained for $n>3$. A unique value $d=$ $d_{n} \neq d_{n}^{*}$ is determined for which the number of nodes reduces to $n+1$. The formula is positive for $d \geqq d_{n}$. It is further shown that the formula is self-contained for all $d$. We have proved [2, pp. 96-104] that $S_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$ is an isolated example, in the sense that any three-point third degree formula for a member $S_{2}(d)$ of the family must be of form (1) with $B=0$. It is not known whether the same is true for $n>2$.

The results reported here provide further evidence in support of the concluding remark of Stroud [7]: ". . . the minimal point formulas of degree 3 for a region are related to the group of symmetries of the region."
2. Derivation of Formulas for the Unknowns. As discussed by Hammer and Wymore [4], we may identify any two regions that are affine-equivalent for the purpose of deriving approximate integration formulas. We may accordingly take $S_{n}$ to be the $n$-simplex

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{x \in E_{n}: x_{i} \geqq 0, x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n} \leqq 1\right\} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem. If we determine $A, B$, and $r$ so that formula (1) is exact for the three monomials $1, x_{1}^{2}, x_{1}^{3}$, then the formula is of degree three.

This theorem is proved in Stroud [8]. His proof is based on a special case of the following lemma.

Lemma. Let L be a linear functional which is invariant under the symmetries of $S_{n}$; that is, if $T$ is an affine transformation for which $T S_{n}=S_{n}$ and if $g(x)=f(T \mathrm{x})$, then $L(g)=$ $L(f)$. If $0 \leqq k<n$ and $\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{k}$ is a sequence of positive integers, then $L\left(x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots x_{k}^{\alpha_{k}} x_{k+1}\right)$ can be expressed as a linear combination of the values of $L$ on the $k+1$ monomials

$$
\prod_{i \leq k} x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}, \quad \prod_{i \leq k} x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}+\delta_{i j}} \quad(j=1,2, \cdots, k)
$$

where $\delta_{i j}$ is the Kronecker delta symbol, and the empty product

$$
\prod_{i \leq 0} x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}=1
$$

The proof depends mainly on the invariance of $L$ under the affine transformation which interchanges vertices $\mathrm{v}_{0}(=0)$ and $\mathrm{v}_{k+1}\left(=(k+1)\right.$ th unit vector) of $S_{n}$. Use of the Lemma allows us to express $L(f)$, where $f$ is any polynomial of degree at most three, as a linear combination of $L(1), L\left(x_{1}^{2}\right), L\left(x_{1}^{3}\right)$. Noting that both sides of (1) have the required invariance proves the Theorem.

By application of the Theorem, a necessary and sufficient condition for (1) to be a formula of degree three for the simplicially-symmetric region $R$ is that $A, B$, and $r$ be solutions of the following system of nonlinear equations:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(n+1) A+B=I_{0} \equiv I(1) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1+n r^{2}}{n+1} A+\frac{1}{(n+1)^{2}} B & =I_{2} \equiv I\left(x_{1}^{2}\right) ;  \tag{4}\\
\frac{1+3 n r^{2}+n(n-1) r^{3}}{(n+1)^{2}} A+\frac{1}{(n+1)^{3}} B & =I_{3} \equiv I\left(x_{1}^{3}\right) . \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

We may use Eq. (3) to eliminate $B$ from the other two equations

$$
\begin{align*}
n(n+1) A r^{2} & =J_{2} \equiv(n+1)^{2} I_{2}-I_{0} \\
n(n+1)[(n-1) r+3] A r^{2} & =J_{3} \equiv(n+1)^{3} I_{3}-I_{0} .
\end{align*}
$$

Since

$$
J_{2}=\int_{R}\left[(n+1) x_{1}-1\right]^{2} d \mu>0,
$$

necessary conditions for the existence of a solution are $A>0$ and $r \neq 0$. Substituting Eq. (4') into ( $5^{\prime}$ ) and solving for $r$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
r=\frac{J_{3}-3 J_{2}}{(n-1) J_{2}} \equiv \frac{D}{(n-1) J_{2}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus a necessary and sufficient condition on the region $R$ for the existence of a third degree formula of form (1) is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=\int_{R}\left[(n+1) x_{1}-1\right]^{3} d \mu \neq 0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $R$ satisfies Eq. (7), then there exists a unique formula (1) given by Eq. (6),

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\frac{J_{2}}{n(n+1) r^{2}}=\frac{(n-1)^{2} J_{2}^{3}}{n(n+1) D^{2}} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
B=I_{0}-(n+1) A=\frac{n I_{0} D^{2}-(n-1)^{2} J_{2}^{3}}{n D^{2}} \equiv \frac{P}{n D^{2}} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

While $A$ is always positive, the sign of $B$ is determined by that of $P$. We observe that, since $J_{2}>0, P=0$ implies $D \neq 0$. Thus if we can find a region $R$ for which $P=0$ we will have an example of a region that possesses a positive formula of degree three with the minimum possible number of nodes.
3. A Family of Star-Shaped Simplicially-Symmetric Regions. In the remainder of this paper we shall apply these formulas to a family of star-shaped simpliciallysymmetric regions $S_{n}(d)$ over which the necessary integrals can be computed, in order to prove the existence of a region for which this minimal number of nodes is attained. For notational clarity, if $Q$ is one of the quantitites introduced in the preceding section, then $Q_{n}(d)$ will denote the value of this quantity for $S_{n}(d)$. The order of presentation will be as follows:

1. Derive formulas for $A_{n}(d), B_{n}(d)$, and $r_{n}(d)$ as rational functions of the parameter $d$, with coefficients which are polynomials in the dimension $n$.
2. Prove the existence of a unique value $d_{n}$ of $d$ for which $P_{n}\left(d_{n}\right)=0$, so that $S_{n}\left(d_{n}\right)$ possess a formula of form (1) with $B=0$.
3. Prove that there exists a unique value $d_{n}^{*}$ of $d$ for which $D_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)=0$, and consequently formula (1) fails to exist for $S_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)$.
4. Finally, show that the formula is self-contained for all $d>0, d \neq d_{n}^{*}$. (Note that formula (1) need not be self-contained, in general.)

The regions $S_{n}(d)$ are defined as follows. Let $S_{n}$ be the $n$-simplex with vertices $\mathrm{v}_{0}, \mathrm{v}_{1}, \cdots, \mathrm{v}_{n}$. Let $F_{k}$ be the face of $S_{n}$ that does not contain the vertex $\mathrm{v}_{k}$ and let $\mathbf{c}_{k}$ be the centroid of $F_{k}$. Let $d>0$ and define the points $\mathrm{u}_{k}(d)$ by:

$$
\mathfrak{u}_{k}(d)=d \mathrm{c}_{k}+(1-d) \mathrm{c} \quad(k=0,1, \cdots, n)
$$

Let $S_{n k}(d)$ be the pyramid (simplex) with base $F_{k}$ and vertex $\mathfrak{u}_{k}(d)$. ( $S_{n k}(d)$ degenerates to the face $F_{k}$ when $d=1$.) Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{n}(d) & =S_{n} \cup\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{n} S_{n k}(d)\right) \quad \text { if } d \geqq 1 \\
& =S_{n}-\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^{n} S_{n k}(d)\right) \quad \text { if } 0<d<1
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, $S_{n}(1)=S_{n}$. For $d>1$, this star-shaped polyhedral region can be visualized as the result of "pushing out" the center of each face of $S_{n}$. This family of regions was previously studied for $n=2$ by De Vogelaere [1], who knew of the existence of $S_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$. Since $\mathbf{u}_{k}(d)$ lies on the line determined by $\mathbf{v}_{k}$ and $\mathbf{c}$, the set $\left\{\mathbf{u}_{0}(d), \mathbf{u}_{1}(d), \cdots, \mathbf{u}_{n}(d)\right\}$ is invariant under any affine transformation that leaves $S_{n}$ invariant, and $S_{n}(d)$ is simplicially-symmetric.
4. Application of the Formulas to $S_{n}(d)$. Let us now specialize $S_{n}$ to the simplex (2). If we use the natural simplicial decomposition of $S_{n}(d)$, a straightforward but extremely tedious computation [2, pp. 72-75, 151-159] yields the following values for the needed monomial integrals:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{0 n}(d)=\frac{d}{n!} \\
& I_{2 n}(d)=\frac{2 d}{n(n+1)^{2}(n+2)!}\left[d^{2}+(n-1) d+n^{2}(n+2)\right] \\
& I_{3 n}(d)=\frac{6 d}{n^{2}(n+1)^{3}(n+3)!}\left[(1-n) d^{3}+(5 n-1) d^{2}\right. \\
& \\
& \left.\quad+n(n-1)(n+4) d+n^{2}\left(n^{3}+3 n^{2}+2 n-2\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

We may now compute $A_{n}(d), B_{n}(d)$, and $r_{n}(d)$.

$$
J_{2 n}(d)=(n+1)^{2} I_{2 n}(d)-I_{0 n}(d)=\frac{d}{n(n+2)!} \psi_{n}(d)
$$

where

$$
\begin{gather*}
\psi_{n}(d)=2 d^{2}+2(n-1) d+n(n-1)(n+2)  \tag{10}\\
J_{3 n}(d)=(n+1)^{3} I_{3 n}(d)-I_{0 n}(d)=\frac{d}{n^{2}(n+3)!} \chi_{n}(d)
\end{gather*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& \chi_{n}(d)=6(1-n) d^{3}+6(5 n-1) d^{2} \\
& +6 n(n-1)(n+4) d+n^{2}(n-1)\left(5 n^{2}+17 n+18\right) . \\
& D_{n}(d)=J_{3 n}(d)-3 J_{2 n}(d)=\frac{\frac{2(n-1) d}{n}\left(n^{2}+3\right)!}{} \phi_{n}(d), \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{n}(d)=3 d^{3}+3(n-1) d^{2}-3 n d-n^{3}(n+1) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Eq. (6) we obtain:

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{n}(d)=\frac{D_{n}(d)}{(n-1) J_{2 n}(d)}=\frac{-2}{n(n+3)} \frac{\phi_{n}(d)}{\psi_{n}(d)} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Provided $D_{n}(d) \neq 0$, we similarly obtain from Eqs. (8) and (9) the following:

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{n}(d) & =\frac{(n+3)^{2} d}{4(n+1)(n+2)!} \frac{\left[\psi_{n}(d)\right]^{3}}{\left[\phi_{n}(d)\right]^{2}} .  \tag{14}\\
B_{n}(d) & =\frac{P_{n}(d)}{n\left[D_{n}(d)\right]^{2}}=\frac{d}{4(n+2)!} \frac{F_{n}(d)}{\left[\phi_{n}(d)\right]^{2}}, \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n}(d)=4(n+1)(n+2)\left[\phi_{n}(d)\right]^{2}-(n+3)^{2}\left[\psi_{n}(d)\right]^{3} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

5. A Region that Possesses an $(n+1)$-Point Formula of Degree Three. We have seen that, whenever $D_{n}(d) \neq 0, S_{n}(d)$ possesses a third degree formula of the form (1) with $r=r_{n}(d), A=A_{n}(d)$, and $B=B_{n}(d)$ given by Eqs. (13), (14), and (15), respectively. From Eq. (15) we see that $B_{n}(d)$, the weight at the centroid, is negative, zero, or positive according as the polynomial $F_{n}(d)$ is negative, zero, or positive. Hammer and Stroud [3] showed that $B_{n}(1)$ is negative, while the leading coefficient of $F_{n}(d)$ is $4 n(7 n+15)>0$. Hence there exists a $d_{n}>1$ such that $F_{n}\left(d_{n}\right)=0$. As remarked above, $D_{n}\left(d_{n}\right) \neq 0$. Thus, $S_{n}\left(d_{n}\right)$ possesses a positive $(n+1)$-point formula of degree three, providing the first known example of a region with the minimal number of nodes.

A consideration based on the Descartes rule of signs and the use of a polynomial root finder to compute the real and complex roots of the polynomials in $n$ that appear in the coefficients of $F_{n}(d)$ in Eq. (16) enables us to conclude [2, pp. 77-80] that $F_{n}(d)$ possesses a single positive root and $d_{n}$ is uniquely determined for $n \geqq 3$. The case $n=2$ deserves special attention. $F_{2}(d)$ has two positive roots, one between 0 and 1 and the other greater than 1 . One may easily verify that $F_{2}(4 / d)=(2 / d)^{6} F_{2}(d)$, so that $F_{2}$ is "reciprocal" in the sense that if $d$ is a root, so is $4 / d$. The geometrical significance of this property of $F_{2}$ is that $S_{2}(4 / d)$ is similar to $S_{2}(d)$. Thus, the two positive roots of $F_{2}$ must result in similar figures, and $d_{2}$ is essentially unique. The two reciprocal figures $S_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$ and $S_{2}\left(4 / d_{2}\right)$, based on an equilateral triangle, are depicted in Fig. 1.
6. The Exceptional Member of the Family. From Eq. (12) we see by the Descartes rule of signs that $\phi_{n}$ has exactly one positive root, which we shall call $d_{n}^{*}$.


Figure 1. $S_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$ and (shaded) $S_{2}\left(4 / d_{2}\right)$, two planar regions which possess three-point formulas of degree three. The $x$ 's locate the nodes for $S_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$.

From Eq. (11) we see that $D_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)=0$ and $D_{n}(d) \neq 0$ for $d \neq d_{n}^{*}$. In other words, there is only one member $S_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)$ of the family for which a formula of the desired form fails to exist. Since $J_{2 n}(d)>0$ for all $d>0$, Eq. (13) shows that the sign of $r_{n}(d)$ is the same as that of $D_{n}(d)$, and that $r_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)=0$. Thus, the formula fails to exist because all $n+2$ nodes coincide, and their associated weights become infinite.

For $n=2, d_{2}^{*}=2$ is the unique positive value of $d$ for which $4 / d=d$. When based on an equilateral triangle, $S_{2}(2)$ is a regular hexagon. It is the only centrallysymmetric member of the family. As Mysovskikh [5] shows, there exist infinitely many third degree four-point formulas for $S_{2}(2)$, but none of them has c as one of its nodes. A formula of form (1) must fail to exist, because the four nodes are not centrally-symmetric with respect to c. For $n=3, d_{3}^{*}=3$. Again, $S_{3}(3)$ is the only centrally-symmetric member of the family. (When based on a regular tetrahedron, it is a cube.) In this case, since the Mysovskikh result shows that six is the minimal number of nodes for third degree formulas on $S_{3}(3)$, a 5 -point formula must fail to exist. For $n>3, d_{n}^{*}>n$. We remark that in this case there is no centrallysymmetric member of the family, and the significance of the nonexistence of such a formula for $S_{n}\left(d_{n}^{*}\right)$ is still not known for $n>3$.

We know from the general theory of Section 2 that $d_{n} \neq d_{n}^{*}$. In fact, one can show [2, pp. 82-85] that for all $n \geqq 2$,

$$
d_{n}^{*}<n^{4 / 3}<d_{n}
$$

This separation property is illustrated in Fig. 5-1 of [2, p. 95].
7. Self-Containment of the Formulas. We show further that the formula is self-contained for all $d>0\left(d \neq d_{n}^{*}\right)$ and all $n \geqq 2$. Note that this does not follow from the general theory. It is evident that $\mathfrak{u}_{k}(d)$ and $\mathbf{x}_{k}$ both lie on the line determined by $\mathrm{v}_{k}$ and $\mathrm{c} . \mathrm{u}_{k}(d)$ is on the opposite side of c from $\mathrm{v}_{k}$. If $r_{n}(d)>0, \mathbf{x}_{k}$ is on the same side as $\mathrm{v}_{k}$, and the condition for self-containment in this case is

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{n}(d) \leqq 1 \quad \text { for } 0<d<d_{n}^{*} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $r_{n}(d)<0, \mathbf{x}_{k}$ is on the same side as $\mathbf{u}_{k}(d)$, and the condition for self-containment is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{n}(d) \equiv-\frac{n}{d} r_{n}(d) \leqq 1 \quad \text { for } d>d_{n}^{*} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Condition (17) can be verified by differentiating Eq. (13) and observing that $r_{n}^{\prime}(d)<0$ for all $d>0, n \geqq 2$. Since one can easily see that $r_{n}(0)<1$, (17) holds with strict inequality. From Eqs. (10), (12), (13), condition (18) can be shown to hold with strict inequality by observing that $2 \phi_{n}(d)<(n+3) d \psi_{n}(d)$ for all $d>d_{n}^{*}$, $n \geqq 2$. We remark that numerical computations have shown that $\rho_{n}\left(d_{n}\right)<.5$ for $n=2(1) 50$, and indicate that $\rho_{n}\left(d_{n}\right)$ decreases monotonically to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

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