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EPSILON-INFLATION WITH CONTRACTIVE
INTERVAL FUNCTIONS

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Dedicated to Prof. Dr. Gerhard Heindl on the occasion of his 60th birthday

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Abstract. For contractive interval functions $[g]$ we show that $[g]([x]_\varepsilon^{k_0}) \subseteq \text{int}([x]_\varepsilon^{k_0})$ results from the iterative process $[x]^{k+1} := [g]([x]_\varepsilon^k)$ after finitely many iterations if one uses the epsilon-inflated vector $[x]_\varepsilon^k$ as input for $[g]$ instead of the original output vector $[x]^k$. Applying Brouwer's fixed point theorem, zeros of various mathematical problems can be verified in this way.

Keywords: epsilon-inflation, P-contraction, contraction, verification algorithms, interval computation, nonlinear equations, eigenvalues, singular values

MSC 2000: 65F05, 65F10, 65F15, 65G05, 65G10, 65H10, 65H15, 65L05

1. INTRODUCTION

If G denotes a nonempty convex, compact subset of \mathbb{R}^n and if t is a continuous self-mapping of G then Brouwer's fixed point theorem guarantees that t has at least one fixed point in G . Often G is an interval vector and t is a function which is defined and continuous in an open superset D of G . Assume that with t an interval function $[g]$ is associated such that the *inclusion property*

$$(1) \quad t(x) \in [g]([x])$$

holds for all $x \in [x]$ and for all $[x] \subseteq D$. If

$$(2) \quad [g]([x]) \subseteq [x] \quad (\text{or, more strongly, } [g]([x]) \subseteq \text{int}([x]))$$

is valid for some interval vector $[x] \subseteq D$ then t has a fixed point x^* in $[x]$ by the above mentioned Brouwer's fixed point theorem, since (1) and (2) guarantee the self-mapping property of t .

A simple choice of $[g]$ is the interval arithmetic evaluation of t (cf. [2]) which guarantees (1). But often $[g]$ is chosen in a more sophisticated way. In order to find a vector $[x]$ which satisfies (2) one usually starts with an approximation \tilde{x} of a fixed point x^* of t and one iterates by

$$(3) \quad [x]^0 := [\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}], \quad [x]^{k+1} := [g]([x]_\varepsilon^k), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

until (2) holds for some $[x] = [x]_\varepsilon^k$ with $k \leq k_{\max}$. Here k_{\max} is a given bound for the number of iterates and $[x]_\varepsilon^k$ is any interval vector which contains $[x]^k$ in its interior. Usually, $[x]_\varepsilon^k$ is called the ε -inflation of $[x]^k$. This name stems from the fact that the construction of $[x]_\varepsilon^k$ normally depends on a parameter $\varepsilon > 0$. A simple example is $[x]_\varepsilon := [x] + \varepsilon[-1, 1](1, \dots, 1)^T$, further possibilities can be found e.g. in [9]. The iteration (3) does not always end up with (2) as the example $[g]([x]) := 2[x]$, $\tilde{x} := 1$ shows for an arbitrary ε -inflation. But often it helps as in the case $g([x]) := \frac{1}{2}[x]$, $\tilde{x} := 1$ if one chooses the ε -inflation from above with $\varepsilon := 0.1$ whence $[x]^4 \subseteq [x]_\varepsilon^3$.

It is an open question in which situations (3) ends up with (2) for some $[x] = [x]_\varepsilon^k$ in at most k_{\max} steps. For contractive interval functions $[g]$, in particular for functions $[g]$ of the form

$$(4) \quad [g]([x]) := t(\tilde{x}) + \{t'(\tilde{x}) + [H]([x])\}([x] - \tilde{x}),$$

we will at least be able to show that (3) results in (2) after *finitely* many steps of iterations. In (4) the vector \tilde{x} is a fixed vector from D ; $[H]$ is an interval matrix function for which we require the Lipschitz condition

$$(5) \quad \|q([H]([x]), [H]([y]))\| \leq \kappa \|q([x], [y])\|$$

and the value

$$(6) \quad [H](\tilde{x}) = O;$$

q denotes the Hausdorff distance; κ is a positive constant which is independent of $[x]$ but which may depend on \tilde{x} ; $\|\cdot\|$ denotes any monotone vector norm and the corresponding operator norm for matrices, respectively. Functions $[g]$ as in (4) occur, when involving second derivatives in order to compute zeros of a function f ; in particular, they arise when verifying eigenpairs, singular values, and solutions of quadratic systems (cf. Section 4). For example, when verifying and enclosing zeros

of functions $f: D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $f = (f_i) \in C^2(D)$, one often transforms the problem $f(x) = 0$ into the fixed point problem

$$(7) \quad x = t(x) := x - Cf(x), \quad C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \text{ nonsingular.}$$

The interval function $[g]$ from (4) reads then

$$(8) \quad [g]([x]) := \tilde{x} - Cf(\tilde{x}) + \{I - Cf'(\tilde{x}) + [H]([x])\}([x] - \tilde{x})$$

with $[H](x) := f''([x] \sqcup \tilde{x})([x] - \tilde{x})$, for example, where $f''(x)y$ is defined by

$$f''(x)y := \left(y^T \left(\frac{\partial^2 f_i(x)}{\partial x_l \partial x_k} \right) \right)_{i=1, \dots, n} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

with the Hessian $\left(\frac{\partial^2 f_i(x)}{\partial x_l \partial x_k} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ of f_i and with the convex hull $[x] \sqcup \tilde{x}$ of $[x]$ and \tilde{x} .

The technique and the name ε -inflation have been introduced in [13]. Remarks concerning its practical applicability can be found e.g. in [5] and [6]. Theoretical considerations have been done in [8], [9], [11], [15] and [16]. The idea of replacing a starting interval $[x]^0$ by another one with a larger diameter, say $[\hat{x}]^0$, was already used in [4]. But $[\hat{x}]^0 \supseteq [x]^0$ was not required there. Our paper generalizes the results of [8], [9] and [11] where P -contractivity was assumed. Note that each P -contraction is a contraction but not vice versa; see [9] for a counterexample. Our present paper deals with *contractive* functions; it uses an access which is different from that in [10], where quantitative aspects played the crucial role.

2. PRELIMINARIES

By $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ we denote the set of intervals, the set of interval vectors with n components and the set of $n \times n$ interval matrices, respectively. By ‘interval’ we always mean a real compact interval. We write interval quantities in brackets with the exception of degenerate interval quantities which we identify with the element which they contain. Examples are the identity matrix I , its i -th column $e^{(i)}$ and the vector $e = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$. With $[z] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ we define the subset $I([z]) := \{[x] \mid [x] \subseteq [z]\}$ of $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$. We apply the notation $[x] = ([x]_i) = [\underline{x}, \bar{x}] = ([\underline{x}_i, \bar{x}_i]) \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ simultaneously without further reference, and we proceed similarly with the elements of $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. By $\text{int}([a])$ we denote the topological *interior* of an interval $[a]$ and by \check{a} we mean its *midpoint*. We define the *absolute value* $||[a]||$ by $||[a]|| := \max\{|\underline{a}|, |\bar{a}|\}$, the *diameter* $d([a])$ by $d([a]) := \bar{a} - \underline{a}$ and the *distance* $q([a], [b])$ by $q([a], [b]) :=$

$\max\{\underline{a} - \underline{b}, |\bar{a} - \bar{b}|\}$. For interval vectors and interval matrices these items are applied entrywise. Continuity in $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is to be understood with respect to q . If $g(x)$ is an expression for some function g , we write $g([x])$ for the interval arithmetic evaluation of this expression (cf. [2]), assuming that $g([x])$ exists. Note that we distinguish between $g([x])$ and $[g]([x])$, where $[g]$ means any interval function. For details on interval arithmetic we refer to [2] or [12].

By $\rho(A)$ we denote the spectral radius of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$; $A \geq 0$ means $a_{ij} \geq 0$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, n$, and $x > 0$ is used for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if $x_i > 0, i = 1, \dots, n$.

As in [2], we define $[g]: \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ to be a *P-contraction* if there is a matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with $P \geq 0, \rho(P) < 1$ such that

$$(9) \quad q([g]([x]), [g]([y])) \leq Pq([x], [y])$$

for all $[x], [y] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$. If $[g]$ fulfils (9) only for all $[x], [y] \subseteq [z]$ with a given $[z] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$, we call $[g]$ a *P-contraction on $[z]$* . Similarly, we define $[g]: \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ to be a *contraction (with respect to some vector norm $\|\cdot\|$)* if there is a real constant $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$(10) \quad \|q([g]([x]), [g]([y]))\| \leq \alpha \|q([x], [y])\|$$

holds for all $[x], [y] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$. If $[g]$ fulfils (10) only on $I([z])$ for a given $[z] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$, we call $[g]$ a *contraction on $[z]$ (with respect to some vector norm $\|\cdot\|$)*.

A vector norm $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^n is termed *monotone* if $|x| \leq |y|$ implies $\|x\| \leq \|y\|$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

If the same symbol $\|\cdot\|$ is used for vectors and matrices then we always assume that the matrix norm is the operator norm generated by the vector norm $\|\cdot\|$. Throughout our paper, $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ denotes the maximum norm when applied to vectors, and the row sum norm when applied to matrices; μ, ν denote positive constants such that

$$(11) \quad \mu \|x\|_\infty \leq \|x\| \leq \nu \|x\|_\infty.$$

3. RESULTS

We start our results with a theorem which is well-known for *P-contractions* (cf. [2] and [8], [9]) and which we formulate now for *contractive mappings*. In Theorems 3.1–3.4 the function $[g]$ need not necessarily be defined by (4).

Theorem 3.1. *Let $[g]: \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ be a contraction with respect to a monotone norm $\|\cdot\|$. Then each sequence of iterates $[x]^{k+1} := [g]([x]^k), k = 0, 1, \dots$ converges to the same limit $[x]^*$, which is the unique fixed point of $[g]$.*

If

$$(12) \quad [g](x) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

holds for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then $[x]^*$ is a degenerate interval vector.

If a function $t: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies the inclusion property (1) for all $x \in [x]$ and all $[x] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$, then $[x]^*$ contains all the fixed points of t . If, in addition, t is continuous, then it has at least one fixed point in $[x]^*$.

If (12) and (1) hold, then t is a contraction. It has a unique fixed point which can be identified with $[x]^*$.

The assertions hold analogously if \mathbb{R}^n is replaced by $[z]$ and if $\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ is replaced by $I([z])$ for a fixed vector $[z] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$.

P r o o f. Since $(\mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n, \|q(\cdot, \cdot)\|)$ is a complete metric space, the existence and uniqueness of $[x]^*$ follow from Banach's fixed point theorem.

Assume now that (1) holds and that $[x]^*$ does not contain some fixed point y^* of t . Start the iterative process $[x]^{k+1} := [g]([x]^k)$ with $[x]^0 := y^*$. Then $y^* = t(y^*) \in [g](y^*) = [g]([x]^0) = [x]^1$ and, by induction, $y^* \in [x]^k$, $k = 0, 1, \dots$. Therefore, $y^* \in \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [x]^k = [x]^*$, which contradicts our assumption. Hence $[x]^*$ contains all fixed points of t . Since $t(x) \in [g]([x]^*) = [x]^*$ for all $x \in [x]^*$, Brouwer's fixed point theorem guarantees at least one fixed point of t in $[x]^*$, provided that t is continuous.

Let now (12) and (1) hold simultaneously. Then, clearly, $[g](x) = t(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and the contractivity of $[g]$ and the monotonicity of $\|\cdot\|$ imply

$$\begin{aligned} \|t(x) - t(y)\| &= \|[g](x) - [g](y)\| = \|q(t(x), t(y))\| = \|q([g](x), [g](y))\| \\ &\leq \alpha \|q(x, y)\| = \alpha \|x - y\| = \alpha \|x - y\|, \end{aligned}$$

where α is the contraction constant of $[g]$. Hence t is a contraction. □

Theorem 3.2. Let $[z]^c \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ be a fixed vector and let $[g]: I([z]^c) \rightarrow \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ be a contraction on $[z]^c$ with respect to a monotone vector norm $\|\cdot\|$. Let $[z]$ be a vector such that $[z]^c \supseteq [z] + \frac{\|d([z])\|}{\mu(1-\alpha)}[-1, 1]e$, where α is the contraction constant and where μ is from (11). Choose $[x]^0 \subseteq [z]$ and assume $[x]^1 := [g]([x]^0) \subseteq [z]$. Then the iterates $[x]^{k+1} := [g]([x]^k)$ are defined for $k = 0, 1, \dots$, i.e., they are all contained in $[z]^c$. They converge to a vector $[x]^* \subseteq [z]^c$ which is independent of $[x]^0$.

Proof. Since $\|\cdot\|$ is a monotone norm we get

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu \|q([x]^{k+1}, [x]^0)\|_\infty &\leq \|q([x]^{k+1}, [x]^0)\| \leq \left\| \sum_{i=0}^k q([x]^{i+1}, [x]^i) \right\| \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^k \|q([g]([x]^i), [g]([x]^{i-1}))\| + \|q([x]^1, [x]^0)\| \\
&\leq \alpha \sum_{i=1}^k \|q([x]^i, [x]^{i-1})\| + \|q([x]^1, [x]^0)\| \leq \dots \leq \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha^i \right) \|q([x]^1, [x]^0)\| \\
&= \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \|q([x]^1, [x]^0)\| \leq \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \|\bar{z} - \underline{z}\| = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \|d([z])\|.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$(13) \quad [x]^{k+1} \subseteq [x]^0 + \frac{\|d([z])\|}{\mu(1-\alpha)}[-1, 1]e \subseteq [z]^c,$$

in particular, $[x]^k$ exists for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Since

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu |\underline{x}_i^{k+m} - \underline{x}_i^m| &\leq \mu \|q([x]^{k+m}, [x]^k)\|_\infty \leq \|q([g]([x]^{k-1+m}), [g]([x]^{k-1}))\| \\
&\leq \alpha \|q([x]^{k-1+m}, [x]^{k-1})\| \leq \dots \leq \alpha^k \|q([x]^m, [x]^0)\| \leq \frac{\alpha^k}{1-\alpha} \|d([z])\|
\end{aligned}$$

for all $m = 0, 1, \dots$, and since an analogous inequality holds for the upper bounds, the sequences $\{\underline{x}^k\}$, $\{\bar{x}^k\}$ converge to limits \underline{x}^* and \bar{x}^* , respectively, with $\underline{x}^* \leq \bar{x}^*$. Therefore, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [x]^k = [\underline{x}^*, \bar{x}^*] =: [x]^*$ with $[x]^* \subseteq [z]^c$ by (13). Uniqueness follows from $\|q([x]^*, [y]^*)\| = \|q([g]([x]^*), [g]([y]^*))\| \leq \alpha \|q([x]^*, [y]^*)\|$ for two different fixed points $[x]^*$, $[y]^*$ of $[g]$. \square

Theorem 3.3. Let $[g]: \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ be a contraction with respect to a monotone norm $\|\cdot\|$ and with a contraction constant α . Iterate by inflation according to

$$(14) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} [x]^0 := \tilde{x}, \\ [x]_\varepsilon^k := [x]^k + [\delta]^k \\ [x]^{k+1} := [g]([x]_\varepsilon^k) \end{array} \right\} \quad k = 0, 1, \dots,$$

where $[\delta]^k \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ are given vectors which converge to some limit $[\delta]$. If $[\delta]$ contains 0 in its interior then there is an integer $k_0 = k_0([x]_\varepsilon^0)$ such that

$$(15) \quad [g]([x]_\varepsilon^{k_0}) \subseteq \text{int}([x]_\varepsilon^{k_0})$$

holds.

Proof. Let $[s]([x]) := [g]([x]) + [\delta]$. Then

$$(16) \quad \|q([s]([x]), [s]([y]))\| = \|q([g]([x]), [g]([y]))\| \leq \alpha \|q([x], [y])\|,$$

hence $[s]$ is a contraction. By Theorem 3.1 it has a unique fixed point $[x]^*$ which satisfies

$$(17) \quad [x]^* = [g]([x]^*) + [\delta].$$

Assume for the moment that

$$(18) \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [x]_\varepsilon^k = [x]^*$$

holds for the sequence in (14). By the continuity of $[g]$ we have

$$(19) \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [g]([x]_\varepsilon^k) = [g]([x]^*).$$

Since $0 \in \text{int}([\delta])$, equation (17) implies $[g]([x]^*) \subseteq \text{int}([x]^*)$. Together with (18) and (19) this yields (15) for all sufficiently large integers k_0 .

We prove now the assumption (18). With the usual rules for q we obtain

$$(20) \quad \begin{aligned} \|q([x]_\varepsilon^k, [x]^*)\| &= \|q([g]([x]_\varepsilon^{k-1}) + [\delta]^k, [g]([x]^*) + [\delta])\| \\ &\leq \alpha \|q([x]_\varepsilon^{k-1}, [x]^*)\| + \|q([\delta]^k, [\delta])\| \\ &\leq \alpha^2 \|q([x]_\varepsilon^{k-2}, [x]^*)\| + \alpha \|q([\delta]^{k-1}, [\delta])\| + \|q([\delta]^k, [\delta])\| \\ &\leq \dots \leq \alpha^k \|q([x]_\varepsilon^0, [x]^*)\| + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \alpha^i \|q([\delta]^{k-i}, [\delta])\|. \end{aligned}$$

Fix $\theta > 0$ and choose the integer m such that $\alpha^i \leq \theta$ for all $i \geq m$. Since $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [\delta]^k = [\delta]$, there are a constant $\gamma > 0$ and an integer $k' > m$ with $\|q([\delta]^i, [\delta])\| \leq \gamma$, $i = 0, 1, \dots$, and $\|q([\delta]^{k-i}, [\delta])\| \leq \theta$, $k \geq k'$, $i = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$. For $k \geq k'$ we thus get with (20)

$$\begin{aligned} \|q([x]_\varepsilon^k, [x]^*)\| &\leq \theta \|q([x]_\varepsilon^0, [x]^*)\| + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \alpha^i \theta + \alpha^m \sum_{i=m}^{k-1} \alpha^{i-m} \gamma \\ &\leq \theta \left\{ \|q([x]_\varepsilon^0, [x]^*)\| + \frac{1}{1-\alpha} + \frac{\gamma}{1-\alpha} \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Since the expression in braces is independent of θ , m and k , and since θ can be chosen arbitrarily small, (18) holds. \square

Relying on Theorem 3.2 one can also formulate a local version of Theorem 3.3. For simplicity, we restrict ourselves to the case $[\delta]^k = [\delta]$, $k = 0, 1, \dots$

Theorem 3.4. *Let $[z]^0 \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ be a fixed vector and let $[g]: I([z]^0) \rightarrow \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$. Assume that $[z]$, $[z]^c \subseteq [z]^0$ and $[\delta] \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ possess the following properties:*

- i) $0 \in \text{int}([\delta])$,
- ii) $[g]$ is contractive with respect to a monotone norm $\|\cdot\|$ on

$$[z]^c \supseteq [z] + \frac{\|d([z])\|}{\mu(1-\alpha)}[-1, 1]e,$$

where α is the contraction constant and μ is the constant from (11). If $[x]_\varepsilon^0 \subseteq [z]$ and $[x]_\varepsilon^1 \subseteq [z]$ hold for the iterates from (14) with $[\delta]^k := [\delta]$, then there is an integer $k_0 = k_0([x]_\varepsilon^0)$ such that (15) is true. In particular, t from (1) has a fixed point in $[x]_\varepsilon^{k_0}$.

Proof. Since $[s]([x]) := [g]([x]) + [\delta]$ fulfils (16) for all $[x], [y] \subseteq [z]^c$, the function $[s]$ is a contraction on $[z]^c$. By Theorem 3.2 there is a vector $[x]^* \subseteq [z]^c$ which satisfies

$$(21) \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [x]_\varepsilon^k = [x]^* = [s]([x]^*) = [g]([x]^*) + [\delta].$$

Since $0 \in \text{int}([\delta])$, this yields

$$(22) \quad [g]([x]^*) \subseteq \text{int}([x]^*),$$

and the assertion follows from (19), (22) and from the first equality in (21). \square

We want to apply now Theorem 3.4 to the function $[g]$ from (4) when $[H]$ satisfies (5) and (6) with $\|\cdot\| := \|\cdot\|_\infty$. (The choice of the maximum norm is not a severe restriction since by the norm equivalence in \mathbb{R}^n the norm in (5) can be replaced by any norm, if the constant κ is changed appropriately.) To this end let $[z]^0 \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^n$ denote a fixed interval vector for which $[g]$ is defined and which contains \tilde{x} in its interior. Following the lines in [11], p. 101, one can show that $[g]$ satisfies the Lipschitz condition

$$\|q([g]([x]), [g]([y]))\|_\infty \leq \beta \|q([x], [y])\|_\infty, \quad [x], [y] \subseteq [z]$$

for each fixed $[z] \subseteq [z]^0$ with

$$\beta := \|\|t'(\tilde{x})\|\|_\infty + 2\kappa \|\| [z] - \tilde{x} \|\|_\infty.$$

(This even holds for any monotone norm.)

For the remaining part of this section we assume that $\|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty$ is sufficiently small, \tilde{x} is a sufficiently good approximation of a fixed point x^* of t , $[\delta] \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a given vector of sufficiently small diameter which contains 0 in its interior, and $[x]^k$, $k = 0, 1, \dots$, is defined by (14) with $[\delta]^k := [\delta]$.

Then $[g]$ is a contraction on

$$[z] := \tilde{x} + [\delta] [-1, 1] + \{ \|\tilde{x} - t(\tilde{x})\|_\infty + (\|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty + \kappa \|[\delta]\|_\infty) \|[\delta]\|_\infty \} [-1, 1]e,$$

and $[x]_\varepsilon^0 \subseteq [z]$. From

$$\begin{aligned} \| [H]([x]) \| &= \| [H]([x]) - [H](\tilde{x}) \| = \| q([H]([x]), [H](\tilde{x})) \| \\ &\leq \kappa \| q([x], \tilde{x}) \| = \kappa \| [x] - \tilde{x} \|. \end{aligned}$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} [x]^1 &:= [g]([x]_\varepsilon^0) = t(\tilde{x}) + \{ t'(\tilde{x}) + [H](\tilde{x} + [\delta]) \} [\delta] \\ &\subseteq \tilde{x} + (t(\tilde{x}) - \tilde{x}) + \{ |t'(\tilde{x})| + |[H](\tilde{x} + [\delta])| \} \|[\delta]\| [-1, 1]e \\ &\subseteq \tilde{x} + \|t(\tilde{x}) - \tilde{x}\|_\infty [-1, 1]e + \{ \|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty + \| [H](\tilde{x} + [\delta]) \|_\infty \} \|[\delta]\|_\infty [-1, 1]e \\ &\subseteq \tilde{x} + \|t(\tilde{x}) - \tilde{x}\|_\infty [-1, 1]e + \{ \|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty + \kappa \|[\delta]\|_\infty \} \|[\delta]\|_\infty [-1, 1]e. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $[x]^1$ and $[x]_\varepsilon^1$ are also contained in $[z]$. By our assumptions we can assume that $\beta < 0.1$ and that $\|d([z])\|_\infty < \frac{0.1}{4\kappa}$. Let $\alpha := \frac{1}{2}$. By virtue of $[z]^c := [z] + \frac{\|d([z])\|_\infty}{1-\alpha} [-1, 1]e = [z] + 2\|d([z])\|_\infty [-1, 1]e$ we obtain $\| [z]^c - \tilde{x} \|_\infty \leq \| [z] - \tilde{x} \|_\infty + 2\|d([z])\|_\infty$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\beta} &:= \|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty + 2\kappa \| [z]^c - \tilde{x} \|_\infty \leq \|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty + 2\kappa \| [z] - \tilde{x} \|_\infty + 4\kappa \|d([z])\|_\infty \\ &= \beta + 4\kappa \|d([z])\|_\infty \leq 0.1 + 0.1 \leq 0.5 = \alpha, \end{aligned}$$

and $[g]$ is a contraction on $[z]^c$ with contraction constant $\tilde{\beta}$ and therefore also with the contraction constant α . Now Theorem 3.4 applies with $\mu = 1$.

In order to use this result for the particular situations of Section 4 we assume now that t is given by (7) with $[g]$ from (8). If C from (7) approximates $f'(\tilde{x})^{-1}$ sufficiently well then $\|t'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty = \|I - Cf'(\tilde{x})\|_\infty$ is certainly small. If, in addition, \tilde{x} is a sufficiently good approximation of a zero of f then $t(\tilde{x}) \approx \tilde{x}$. Hence the ‘essential’ assumptions above are fulfilled and Theorem 3.4 can be applied. We state this result as a separate corollary:

Corollary 3.1. *Let $[g]$ be defined as in (4) with $t(x) := x - Cf(x)$ and with $[H]$ satisfying (5) and (6) with respect to $\|\cdot\|_\infty$. Assume that $f'(\tilde{x})^{-1}$ exists and that*

C is nonsingular and approximates $f'(\tilde{x})^{-1}$ sufficiently well. If \tilde{x} is a sufficiently good approximation of a zero x^* of f and if the inflation $[\delta]$ is sufficiently small and contains 0 in its interior, then the inflation procedure (14) with $[\delta]^k := [\delta]$ stops with $[x]^{k+1} \subseteq \text{int}([x]_\varepsilon^k)$ after finitely many steps.

Note that Corollary 3.1 guarantees success in ε -inflation only if some input parameters are sufficiently good. Unfortunately it neither predicts the minimal number k_0 of iterates which are necessary to fulfill (2), nor specifies by a measure what ‘sufficiently’ really means. In this respect further work has to be done.

If one computes C as an approximate inverse of $f'(\tilde{x})$ one normally does not know exactly whether $f'(\tilde{x})$ or C are nonsingular. This can be guaranteed, however, a posteriori, if one assumes $[H]$ to be inclusion monotone, i. e., $[H]([x]) \subseteq [H]([y])$ for $[x] \subseteq [y]$, and if (2) can be checked for some k_0 for which $\tilde{x} \in [x]^{k_0}$ still holds—for example for $k_0 = 0$. The proof is based on the following argument:

Since $t'(\tilde{x}) = I - Cf'(\tilde{x})$ in the situation of Corollary 3.1, one gets by standard rules for the diameter (cf. [2] or [12])

$$\begin{aligned} d([x]^{k_0}) &> d([g]([x]_\varepsilon^{k_0})) \geq d([g]([x]^{k_0})) \geq |t'(\tilde{x}) + [H]([x]^{k_0})|d([x]^{k_0}) \\ &\geq |t'(\tilde{x}) + [H](\tilde{x})|d([x]^{k_0}) = |t'(\tilde{x})|d([x]^{k_0}) = |I - Cf'(\tilde{x})|d([x]^{k_0}). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $d([x]^{k_0}) > 0$ and $\varrho(I - Cf'(\tilde{x})) < 1$ by Corollary 3.2.3 and Proposition 3.2.4 in [12], for example. If C or $f'(\tilde{x})$ are singular then 1 would be an eigenvalue of $I - Cf'(\tilde{x})$, which contradicts $\varrho(I - Cf'(\tilde{x})) < 1$.

4. EXAMPLES

In this section we will apply Corollary 3.1 to various algorithms for verifying and enclosing solutions of mathematical problems.

Example 4.1. (The algebraic eigenproblem for a simple real eigenvalue)

We consider first the algebraic eigenproblem $Av = \lambda v$. Apparently, each real eigenpair (v^*, λ^*) of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ can be viewed as a zero of the function $f(x) := \begin{pmatrix} Av - \lambda v \\ v_{i_0} - \zeta \end{pmatrix}$ if the eigenvector v^* is normalized by $v_{i_0}^* = \zeta \neq 0$ in a component i_0 and if $x := (v^T, \lambda)^T$. Let $(\tilde{v}, \tilde{\lambda})$ be an approximation of (v^*, λ^*) , where λ^* is an algebraic simple eigenvalue of A . In [14] the interval function

$$(23) \quad [g]([x]) := \tilde{x} - Cf(\tilde{x}) + \left\{ I_{n+1} - C \begin{pmatrix} A - \tilde{\lambda} I_n & -[v] \\ (e^{(i_0)})^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\} ([x] - \tilde{x})$$

was applied with $[x] := ([v]^T, [\lambda]^T) \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ in order to verify and to enclose $x^* := ((v^*)^T, \lambda^*)^T$. With $t(x) = x - Cf(x)$ as in Corollary 3.1 one gets

$$t'(\tilde{x}) = I_{n+1} - C \begin{pmatrix} A - \tilde{\lambda}I_n & -\tilde{v} \\ (e^{(i_0)})^T & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In [7] it was mentioned that for degenerate interval vectors $[x] \equiv x$ the expression $[g](x)$ from (23) is the complete Taylor expansion of $t(x)$ at $\tilde{x} := (\tilde{v}^T, \tilde{\lambda})^T$ even if $\tilde{x} \notin [x]$. Therefore, $t(x) \in [g]([x])$ holds trivially for all $x \in [x]$. With

$$(24) \quad [H]([x]) := C \begin{pmatrix} O & [v] - \tilde{v} \\ O & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1) \times (n+1)}$$

the function $[g]$ has the form (4). The property (6) can be seen at once, the Lipschitz condition (5) follows from

$$\begin{aligned} \|q([H]([x]), [H]([y]))\| &\leq \left\| \|C\|q \left(\begin{pmatrix} O & [v] - \tilde{v} \\ O & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} O & [w] - \tilde{v} \\ O & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) \right\|_{\infty} \\ &\leq \|C\|_{\infty} \|q([x], [y])\|_{\infty}, \end{aligned}$$

where $[x] = ([v]^T, [\lambda]^T) \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ and $[y] = ([w]^T, [\mu]^T) \in \mathbb{I}\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Therefore, Corollary 3.1 applies with $\kappa := \|C\|_{\infty}$. It shows that under appropriate circumstances concerning the approximations C , \tilde{x} and the inflation $[\delta]$, the iteration (14) ends up with the subset property (2), which guarantees an eigenpair of A in the final iterate $[x]^{k_0}$. \square

The arguments in Example 4.1 apply without difficulties also to the generalized algebraic eigenproblem $Av = \lambda Bv$, where A, B are matrices from $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. We leave the details to the reader.

Example 4.2. (Two-dimensional invariant subspaces)

In order to verify and to enclose a basis of a two-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^n which is invariant with respect to a linear mapping given by a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, Alefeld and Spreuer start in [3] with the function

$$f(x) := \begin{pmatrix} Au - m_{11}u - m_{21}v \\ u_{i_1} - \varepsilon \\ u_{i_2} - \zeta \\ Av - m_{12}u - m_{22}v \\ v_{i_1} - \eta \\ v_{i_2} - \theta \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n+4}$$

where $x = (u^T, m_{11}, m_{21}, v^T, m_{12}, m_{22})^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2n+4}$, $i_1 \neq i_2 \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $\varepsilon\theta - \zeta\eta \neq 0$. Taking into account the normalizations, it is obvious that the vectors u^* , v^* , which are part of a zero $x^* = ((u^*)^T, m_{11}^*, m_{21}^*, (v^*)^T, m_{12}^*, m_{22}^*)^T$ of f , form a basis of such an invariant subspace. Again we set $t(x) := x - Cf(x)$ with a nonsingular matrix $C \in \mathbb{R}^{(2n+4) \times (2n+4)}$, and we choose $\tilde{x} = (\tilde{u}^T, \tilde{m}_{11}, \tilde{m}_{21}, \tilde{v}^T, \tilde{m}_{12}, \tilde{m}_{22})^T$ as an approximation of x^* . Then

$$t'(\tilde{x}) = I_{2n+4} - C \begin{pmatrix} A - \tilde{m}_{11}I_n & -\tilde{u} & -\tilde{v} & -\tilde{m}_{21}I_n & 0 & 0 \\ (e^{(i_1)})^T & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ (e^{(i_2)})^T & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\tilde{m}_{12}I_n & 0 & 0 & A - \tilde{m}_{22}I_n & -\tilde{u} & -\tilde{v} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & (e^{(i_1)})^T & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & (e^{(i_2)})^T & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$[H]([x]) = C \begin{pmatrix} O & [u] - \tilde{u} & [v] - \tilde{v} & O & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ O & 0 & 0 & O & [u] - \tilde{u} & [v] - \tilde{v} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(2n+4) \times (2n+4)}$$

for $[g]$ from (4). Using the usual rules for q one again easily verifies (5) and (6) which are the crucial assumptions for Corollary 3.1. \square

Example 4.3. (The singular value problem)

Let $((u^i)^T, (v^i)^T, \sigma_i)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n+1}$ be a vector which gathers a singular value σ_i of a rectangular matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and the corresponding i -th columns u^i , v^i of the orthogonal matrices $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $V \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ of the singular value decomposition

$$A = V\Sigma U^T = V \operatorname{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{\min\{m,n\}})U^T.$$

Then this vector is obviously a zero of the function

$$f(x) := \begin{pmatrix} Au - \sigma v \\ A^T v - \sigma u \\ u^T u - 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $x := (u^T, v^T, \sigma)^T$. If $x^* = ((u^*)^T, (v^*)^T, \sigma^*)^T$ is such a zero of f with $\sigma^* \neq 0$ then

$$(v^*)^T v^* = (v^*)^T \frac{1}{\sigma^*} A u^* = \frac{1}{\sigma^*} (A^T v^*)^T u^* = (u^*)^T u^* = 1.$$

Let $\tilde{x} = (\tilde{u}^T, \tilde{v}^T, \tilde{\sigma})^T$ and let $C \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+n+1) \times (m+n+1)}$ be nonsingular. Similar to the development in [7] (cf. also [1]) we use [g] from (4) with $t(x) := x - Cf(x)$,

$$t'(\tilde{x}) = I - C \begin{pmatrix} A & -\tilde{\sigma}I_m & -\tilde{v} \\ -\tilde{\sigma}I_n & A^T & -\tilde{u} \\ 2\tilde{u}^T & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+n+1) \times (m+n+1)}$$

and

$$[H]([x]) := C \begin{pmatrix} O & O & [v] - \tilde{v} \\ O & O & [u] - \tilde{u} \\ ([u] - \tilde{u})^T & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+n+1) \times (m+n+1)},$$

in order to verify x^* . Again, [g](x) is the complete Taylor expansion of $t(x) := x - Cf(x)$ at $x = \tilde{x}$. As in Example 4.1 one easily checks that (5) and (6) hold for [H]. Thus Corollary 3.1 applies. \square

We finally mention that Corollary 3.1 also applies to quadratic systems of the form $t(x) := b + Ax + T(x, x) = x$, where $b, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and where $T: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a bilinear operator. The details are left to the reader.

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