

A Short Introduction to Interval Analysis

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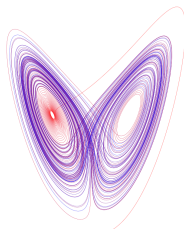
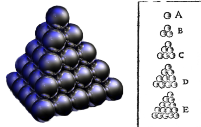
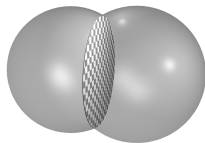
These are mostly extracts from Tucker's "Validated Numerics Talk"

November 20, 2014,

CCNY Mathematics Colloquium, New York, NY, USA

Open Problems Solved Using Interval Analysis

- ▶ Double Bubble Conjecture (J. Hass & R. Schlafly, 1995)
- ▶ Kepler conjecture about the densest arrangement of spheres in space (T. Hales, 2000).
- ▶ Smale's 14th problem on the existence of the Lorenz attractor (W. Tucker, 2002)



Are floating point computations reliable?

Computing with the C/C++ `single` format

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Example 1: Repeated addition

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10^3} \langle 10^{-3} \rangle = 0.999990701675415,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10^4} \langle 10^{-4} \rangle = 1.000053524971008.$$



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Example 2: Order of summation

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{10^6} = 14.357357,$$

$$\frac{1}{10^6} + \cdots + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} + 1 = 14.392651.$$

Are floating point computations reliable?

Given the point $(x, y) = (77617, 33096)$, evaluate the function

$$f(x, y) = 333.75y^6 + x^2(11x^2y^2 - y^6 - 121y^4 - 2) + 5.5y^8 + x/(2y)$$

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IBM S/370 ($\beta = 16$) with FORTRAN:

type	p	$f(x, y)$
REAL*4	24	1.172603 ...
REAL*8	53	1.1726039400531 ...
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Pentium III ($\beta = 2$) with C/C++ (gcc/g++):

type	p	$f(x, y)$
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Correct answer: $-0.8273960599 \dots$

Are integer computations reliable?

Example 3: The harmonic series

If we define

$$S_N = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{k},$$

then $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N = +\infty$. The computer also gets this result, but for the entirely wrong reason (integer wrapping).

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Example 4: Elementary Taylor series

Now define

$$S_N = \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{1}{k!},$$

then $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N = e \approx 2.7182818$. The integer wrapping produces a sequence that is *not* strictly increasing:

Are integer computations reliable?

S_0 = 1.0000000000000000	S_18 = 2.718281826004540	S
S_1 = 2.0000000000000000	S_19 = 2.718281835125155	
S_2 = 2.5000000000000000	S_20 = 2.718281834649448	S
S_3 = 2.6666666666666667	S_21 = 2.718281833812708	S
S_4 = 2.7083333333333333	S_22 = 2.718281831899620	S
S_5 = 2.7166666666666666	S_23 = 2.718281833059102	
S_6 = 2.7180555555555555	S_24 = 2.718281831770353	S
S_7 = 2.718253968253968	S_25 = 2.718281832252007	
S_8 = 2.718278769841270	S_26 = 2.718281831712599	S
S_9 = 2.718281525573192	S_27 = 2.718281832386097	
S_10 = 2.718281801146385	S_28 = 2.718281831659211	S
S_11 = 2.718281826198493	S_29 = 2.718281830853743	S
S_12 = 2.718281828286169	S_30 = 2.718281831563322	
S_13 = 2.718281828803753	S_31 = 2.718281832917973	
S_14 = 2.718281829585647	S_32 = 2.718281832452312	S
S_15 = 2.718281830084572	S_33 = 2.718281831986650	S
S_16 = 2.718281830583527	S_34 =	inf
S_17 = 2.718281827117590		S



How do we control rounding errors?

Round each partial result both ways

If $x, y \in \mathbb{F}$ and $\star \in \{+, -, \times, \div\}$, we can enclose the exact result in an *interval*:

$$x \star y \in [\nabla(x \star y), \Delta(x \star y)].$$



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Since all (modern) computers round with *maximal quality*, the interval is the smallest one that contains the exact result.



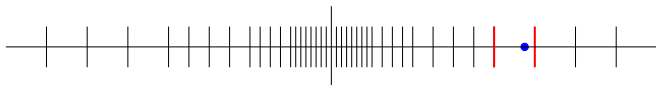
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Question

How do we compute with intervals? And why, really?

Definition

If \star is one of the operators $+$, $-$, \times , \div , and if $\mathbb{A}, \mathbb{B} \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\mathbb{A} \star \mathbb{B} = \{a \star b : a \in \mathbb{A}, b \in \mathbb{B}\},$$

except that $\mathbb{A} \div \mathbb{B}$ is undefined if $0 \in \mathbb{B}$.



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Simple arithmetic

$$\mathbb{A} + \mathbb{B} = [\underline{\mathbb{A}} + \underline{\mathbb{B}}, \overline{\mathbb{A}} + \overline{\mathbb{B}}]$$

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$$\mathbb{A} \times \mathbb{B} = [\min\{\underline{\mathbb{A}}\underline{\mathbb{B}}, \underline{\mathbb{A}}\overline{\mathbb{B}}, \overline{\mathbb{A}}\underline{\mathbb{B}}, \overline{\mathbb{A}}\overline{\mathbb{B}}\}, \max\{\underline{\mathbb{A}}\underline{\mathbb{B}}, \underline{\mathbb{A}}\overline{\mathbb{B}}, \overline{\mathbb{A}}\underline{\mathbb{B}}, \overline{\mathbb{A}}\overline{\mathbb{B}}\}]$$

$$\mathbb{A} \div \mathbb{B} = \mathbb{A} \times [1/\overline{\mathbb{B}}, 1/\underline{\mathbb{B}}], \quad \text{if } 0 \notin \mathbb{B}.$$

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On a computer we use *directed rounding*, e.g.

$$\mathbb{A} + \mathbb{B} = [\nabla(\underline{\mathbb{A}} \oplus \underline{\mathbb{B}}), \Delta(\overline{\mathbb{A}} \oplus \overline{\mathbb{B}})].$$

Range enclosure

Extend a real-valued function f to an interval-valued F :

$$R(f; \mathbb{X}) = \{f(x) : x \in \mathbb{X}\} \subseteq F(\mathbb{X})$$

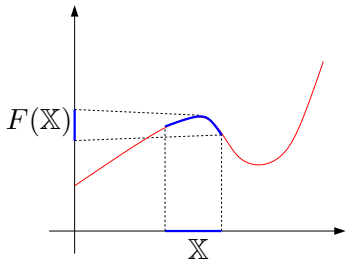
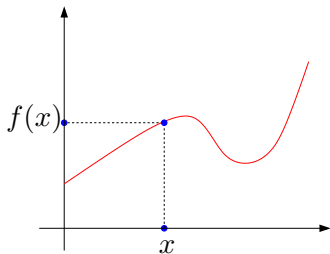


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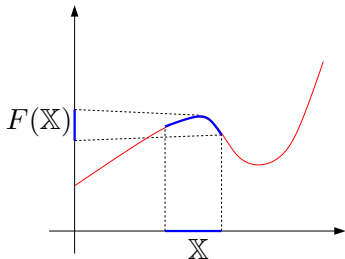
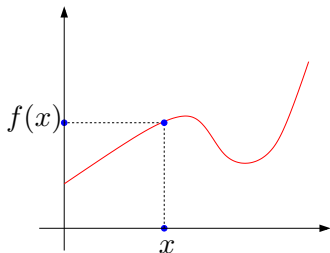


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$y \notin F(\mathbb{X})$ implies that $f(x) \neq y$ for all $x \in \mathbb{X}$.

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$$\begin{aligned} e^{\mathbb{X}} &= [e^{\underline{\mathbb{X}}}, e^{\overline{\mathbb{X}}}] \\ \sqrt{\mathbb{X}} &= [\sqrt{\underline{\mathbb{X}}}, \sqrt{\overline{\mathbb{X}}}] && \text{if } 0 \leq \underline{\mathbb{X}} \\ \log \mathbb{X} &= [\log \underline{\mathbb{X}}, \log \overline{\mathbb{X}}] && \text{if } 0 < \underline{\mathbb{X}} \\ \arctan \mathbb{X} &= [\arctan \underline{\mathbb{X}}, \arctan \overline{\mathbb{X}}] . \end{aligned}$$



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Set $S^+ = \{2k\pi + \pi/2: k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and $S^- = \{2k\pi - \pi/2: k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.
Then $\sin \mathbb{X}$ is given by

$$\begin{cases} [-1, 1] & : \text{if } \mathbb{X} \cap S^- \neq \emptyset \text{ and } \mathbb{X} \cap S^+ \neq \emptyset, \\ [-1, \max\{\sin \underline{\mathbb{X}}, \sin \overline{\mathbb{X}}\}] & : \text{if } \mathbb{X} \cap S^- \neq \emptyset \text{ and } \mathbb{X} \cap S^+ = \emptyset, \\ [\min\{\sin \underline{\mathbb{X}}, \sin \overline{\mathbb{X}}\}, 1] & : \text{if } \mathbb{X} \cap S^- = \emptyset \text{ and } \mathbb{X} \cap S^+ \neq \emptyset, \\ [\min\{\sin \underline{\mathbb{X}}, \sin \overline{\mathbb{X}}\}, \max\{\sin \underline{\mathbb{X}}, \sin \overline{\mathbb{X}}\}] & : \text{if } \mathbb{X} \cap S^- = \emptyset \text{ and } \mathbb{X} \cap S^+ = \emptyset. \end{cases}$$

Example

Draw an accurate graph of the function $f(x) = \cos^3 x + \sin x$ over the domain $[-5, 5]$.

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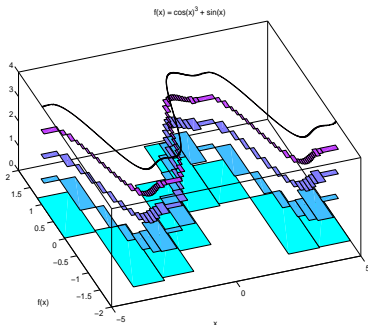
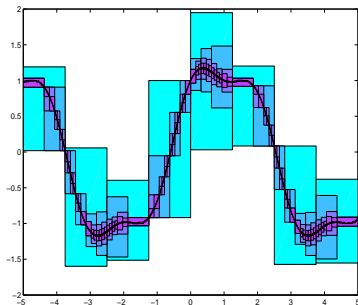
Define $F(\mathbb{X}) = \cos^3 \mathbb{X} + \sin \mathbb{X}$, and adaptively bisect the domain $\mathbb{X}_0 = [-5, 5]$ into smaller pieces $\mathbb{X}_0 = \cup_{i=1}^N \mathbb{X}_i$ until we arrive at some desired accuracy, e.g. $\max_i \text{width}(F(\mathbb{X}_i)) \leq \text{TOL}$.



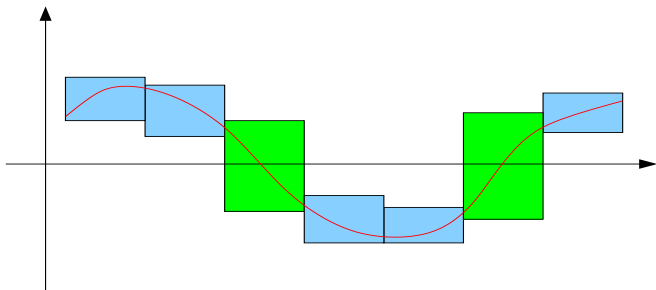
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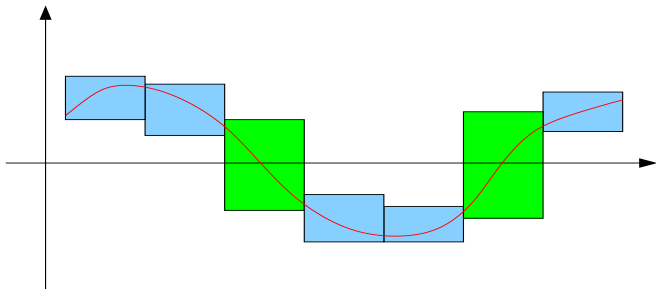
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Solving non-linear equations

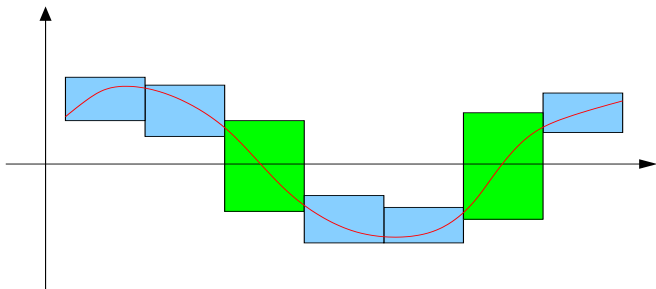


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No solutions can be missed!

Solving non-linear equation

The code is transparent and natural

```
01 function bisect(fcnName, X, tol)
02 f = inline(fcnName);
03 if ( 0 <= f(X) )           % If f(X) contains zero...
04     if Diam(X) < tol      % and the tolerance is met...
05         X                 % print the interval X.
06     else                  % Otherwise, divide and conquer.
07         bisect(fcnName, interval(Inf(X), Mid(X)), tol);
08         bisect(fcnName, interval(Mid(X), Sup(X)), tol);
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10 end
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Nice property

If F is well-defined on the domain, the algorithm produces an enclosure of *all* zeros of f . [No existence is established, however.]



Existence and uniqueness

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Brouwer's fixed point theorem

Let B be homeomorphic to the closed unit ball in \mathbb{R}^n . Then given any continuous mapping $f: B \rightarrow B$ there exists $x \in B$ such that $f(x) = x$.



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Banach's fixed point theorem

If f is a contraction defined on a complete metric space X , then there exists a unique $x \in X$ such that $f(x) = x$.

Theorem

Let $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$, and set $\check{x} = \text{mid}(\mathbb{X})$. We define

$$N_f(\mathbb{X}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} N_f(\mathbb{X}, \check{x}) = \check{x} - f(\check{x})/F'(\mathbb{X}).$$

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Proof.

- (1) Follows from the MVT;
- (2) The contra-positive statement of (1);
- (3) Existence from Brouwer's fixed point theorem;
Uniqueness from non-vanishing f' .

Algorithm

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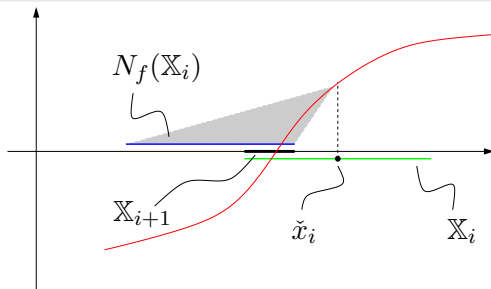
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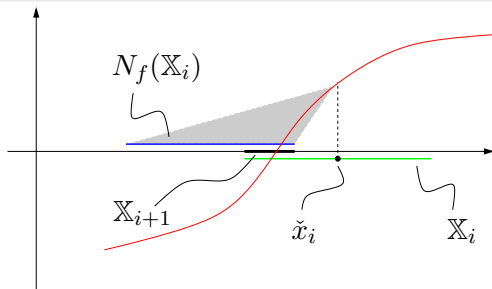
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Performance

If well-defined, this method is never worse than bisection, and it converges quadratically fast under mild conditions.

Example

Let $f(x) = -2.001 + 3x - x^3$, and $\mathbb{X}_0 = [-3, -3/2]$. Then $F'(\mathbb{X}_0) = [-24, -15/4]$, so $N_f(\mathbb{X}_0)$ is well-defined, and the above theorem holds.



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X(0) = [-3.000000000000000, -1.500000000000000]; rad = 7.50000e-01

X(1) = [-2.140015625000001, -1.546099999999999]; rad = 2.96958e-01

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Finite convergence!

Unique root in $-2.00011110288172 \pm 1.555e-15$

Example

Let $f(x) = -2.001 + 3x - x^3$, and $\mathbb{X}_0 = [-3, -3/2]$. Then $f'(\mathbb{X}_0) = [-24, -15/4]$, so $N_f(\mathbb{X}_0)$ is well-defined, and the above theorem holds.

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Question:

What do we do when \mathbb{X}_0 contains several zeros?

The Krawczyk method

If f has a zero x^* in \mathbb{X} , then for any $x \in \mathbb{X}$, we can enclose the zero via

$$x^* \in x - Cf(x) - (1 - CF'(\mathbb{X}))(x - \mathbb{X}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} K_f(\mathbb{X}, x, C).$$



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Good choices are $x = \check{x}$ and $C = 1/f'(\check{x})$, yielding the *Krawczyk operator*

$$K_f(\mathbb{X}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \check{x} - \frac{f(\check{x})}{f'(\check{x})} - \left(1 - \frac{F'(\mathbb{X})}{f'(\check{x})}\right) [-r, r],$$

where we use the notation $r = \text{rad}(\mathbb{X})$.

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where we use the notation $r = \text{rad}(\mathbb{X})$.

Theorem

Assume that $K_f(\mathbb{X})$ is well-defined. Then the following statements hold:

- (1) if \mathbb{X} contains a zero x^* of f , then so does $K_f(\mathbb{X}) \cap \mathbb{X}$;
- (2) if $K_f(\mathbb{X}) \cap \mathbb{X} = \emptyset$, then \mathbb{X} contains no zeros of f ;
- (3) if $K_f(\mathbb{X}) \subseteq \text{int}(\mathbb{X})$, then \mathbb{X} contains a unique zero of f .

Example

Let $f(x) = \sin(e^x + 1)$, and $\mathbb{X}_0 = [0, 3]$.

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Domain : $[0, 3]$

Tolerance : $1e-10$

Function calls : 71

Unique zero in the interval 0.761549782880 [8890,9006]

Unique zero in the interval 1.664529193 [6825445,7060436]

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Unique zero in the interval 2.8819786295709 [728,1555]



The Krawczyk method with bisection

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Applications

Counting short periodic orbits for ODEs [Z. Galias]

Measuring the stable regions of the quadratic map [D. Wilczak]

Example

Draw the level-set defined by

$$f(x, y) = \sin(\cos x^2 + 10 \sin y^2) - y \cos x = 0;$$

restricted to the domain $[-5, 5] \times [-5, 5]$.



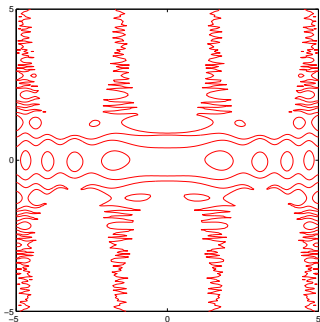
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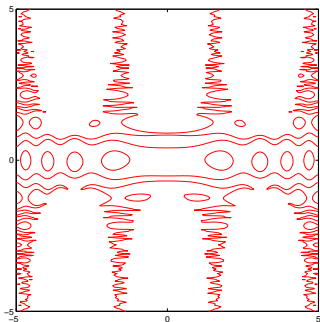
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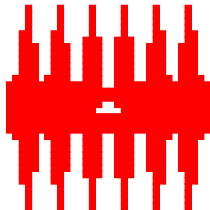
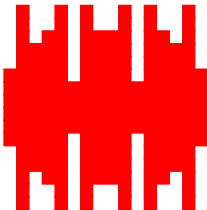
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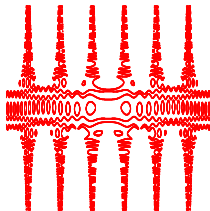
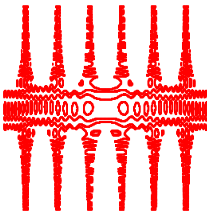
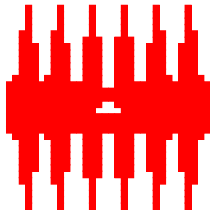
According to the same m-file, the level set defined by $|f(x, y)| = 0$, however, appears to be empty.

But this is the same set!!!

The (increasingly tight) set-valued enclosures in both cases are



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Set inversion

Given a search space \mathbb{X} , we can produce both inner and outer enclosures of $f^{-1}(\mathbb{Y})$: given a discretisation $\mathbb{X} = \cup_{i=1}^N \mathbb{X}_i$, we have

$$\{\mathbb{X}_i : F(\mathbb{X}_i) \subseteq \mathbb{Y}\} \subseteq f^{-1}(\mathbb{Y}) \cap \mathbb{X} \subseteq \{\mathbb{X}_i : F(\mathbb{X}_i) \cap \mathbb{Y} \neq \emptyset\}.$$



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Example

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^4 - x_1^2 + 4x_2^2$, and compute the inverse image of $\mathbb{Y} = [-0.05, 0.05]$ over the domain $\mathbb{X} = [-5, 5] \times [-5, 5]$. Let us write $S = f^{-1}(\mathbb{Y}) \cap \mathbb{X}$.



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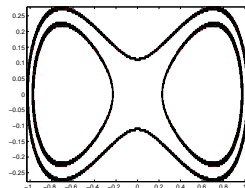
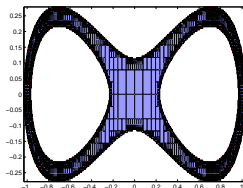
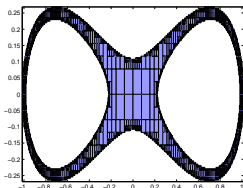


Figure: The (a) inner, (b) outer, and (c) boundary enclosures of S .

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Given a model function $y = f(x; p)$ together with (noisy) samples $\{(x_i, y_i + \varepsilon_i)\}_{i=0}^N$, is it possible to find a “best” parameter p^* ?



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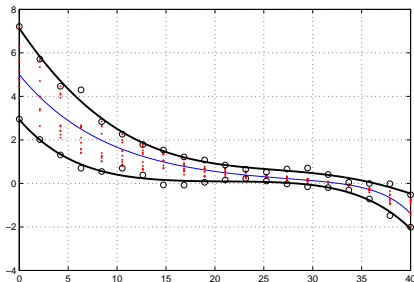
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Population: 10

Data points: 20

Noise type: normal

Noise level: 50%



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(3) undetermined

not (1), but $F(x_i; \mathbb{Q}_j) \cap \mathbb{Y}_i \neq \emptyset$ for all $i = 0, \dots, N$.

SPLIT

Example

Consider the model function

$$f(x; p_1, p_2) = 5e^{-p_1 x} - 4 \times 10^{-6} e^{-p_2 x}$$

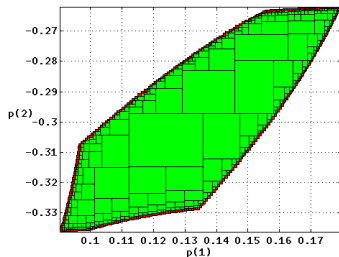
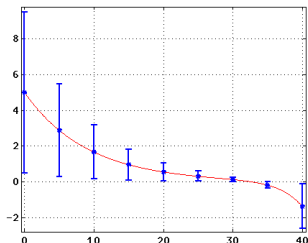
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Parameter reconstruction

Varying the relative noise levels between 10, 20 . . . , 90%, we get the following indeterminate sets.



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Various errors: roundoff, cancellation, discretization. Which h is optimal? How does the error behave? Can't really handle high-order derivatives.

- (Complex differentiation) A nice “trick” using complex extensions: $f'(x_0) \approx \frac{\Im(f(x_0+ih))}{h}$, where $\Im(x + iy) = y$. Avoids cancellation, and gives quadratic approximation, but requires a complex extension of the function.

Automatic differentiation

Generates evaluations (and not formulas) of the derivatives. Based on a strategy similar to symbolic differentiation, but does not use placeholders for constants or variables. All intermediate expressions are evaluated as soon as possible; this saves memory, and removes the need for later simplification.



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- No discretization errors.
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- No complex “tricks”.
- Very easy to understand.



Taylor series AD - definitions

An effective approach to high-order automatic differentiation is through the calculus of Taylor series:

$$f(x) = f_0 + f_1(x - x_0) + \cdots + f_k(x - x_0)^k + \dots,$$

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Basic arithmetic

$$(f + g)_k = f_k + g_k$$

$$(f - g)_k = f_k - g_k$$

$$(f \times g)_k = \sum_{i=0}^k f_i g_{k-i}$$

$$(f \div g)_k = \frac{1}{g_0} \left(f_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (f \div g)_i g_{k-i} \right).$$

Proof: (formula for division).

By definition, we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(x - x_0)^k / \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k(x - x_0)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (f \div g)_k(x - x_0)^k.$$

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Solving for $(f \div g)_k$ produces the desired result. □

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Constants and the independent variable x are treated as expected: seen as functions, these have particularly simple Taylor expansions:

$$\begin{aligned}x &= x_0 + 1 \cdot (x - x_0) + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + \cdots + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^k + \dots, \\c &= c + 0 \cdot (x - x_0) + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + \cdots + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^k + \dots\end{aligned}$$



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We now represent a function as a, possibly infinite, string of its Taylor coefficients:

$$f(x_0) \sim (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_k, \dots) \quad f_k = f^{(k)}(x_0)/k!$$

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Constants and the independent variable x are treated as expected: seen as functions, these have particularly simple Taylor expansions:

$$\begin{aligned}x &= x_0 + 1 \cdot (x - x_0) + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + \cdots + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^k + \dots, \\c &= c + 0 \cdot (x - x_0) + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^2 + \cdots + 0 \cdot (x - x_0)^k + \dots\end{aligned}$$

We now represent a function as a, possibly infinite, string of its Taylor coefficients:

$$f(x_0) \sim (f_0, f_1, \dots, f_k, \dots) \quad f_k = f^{(k)}(x_0)/k!$$

The base field

Of course, we can perform the underlying *scalar* computations with anything else that is suitable. In our applications, we always use interval arithmetic with directed rounding.

Taylor series AD for standard functions

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$$g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} g_k (x - x_0)^k \quad \text{and} \quad e^{g(x)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (e^g)_k (x - x_0)^k,$$

and use the fact that

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^{g(x)} = g'(x) e^{g(x)}. \quad (1)$$

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A formal computation gives

$$(e^g)_k = \begin{cases} e^{g_0} & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k i g_i (e^g)_{k-i} & \text{if } k > 0. \end{cases}$$

More standard functions ($k > 0$)

$$(\ln g)_k = \frac{1}{g_0} \left(g_k - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i (\ln g)_i g_{k-i} \right)$$

$$(g^a)_k = \frac{1}{g_0} \sum_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{(a+1)i}{k} - 1 \right) g_i (g^a)_{k-i}$$

$$(\sin g)_k = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k i g_i (\cos g)_{k-i}$$

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Remember that we always have $(f \circ g)_0 = f(g(x_0))$.



Taylor series AD - implementations

A MATLAB implementation for arbitrary order differentiation:

```
01 function dx = computeDerivative(fcnName, x0, order)
02 f = inline(fcnName);
03 x = taylor(x0, order+1, 'variable');
04 dx = getDer(f(x), order);
```



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Here, `getDer` converts a Taylor coefficient into a derivative value by multiplying it by the proper factorial.

A typical usage is

```
>> dfx = computeDerivative('exp(sin(exp(cos(x) + 2*x^5)))', 1, 1)
dfx =
    129.6681309181679
```



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```

Let us solve the harder part of our homework...

```
>> df40 = computeDerivative('exp(sin(exp(cos(x) + 2*x^5)))', -2, 40)
df40 =
    1.4961e+53
```

Double-checking using interval analysis gives the enclosure:

```
df40 inside 1.49[55133619180311623,67056568493631087]E+53
```

A more practical application is solving non-linear equations.

```
01 function y = newtonSearch(fcnName, x, tol)
02 f = inline(fcnName);
03 y = newtonStep(f, x);
04 while ( abs(x-y) > tol )
05     x = y;
06     y = newtonStep(f, x);
07 end
08 end
09
10 function Nx = newtonStep(f, x)
11 xx = taylor(x, 2, 'variable');
12 fx = f(xx);
13 Nx = x - getVal(fx)/getDer(fx, 1);
14 end
```



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11 xx = taylor(x, 2, 'variable');
12 fx = f(xx);
13 Nx = x - getVal(fx)/getDer(fx, 1);
14 end
```

Note that this function “hides” the AD from the user: all input/output is scalar.

Taylor series AD - implementations

Some sample outputs:

```
>> x = newtonSearch('sin(exp(x) + 1)', 1, 1e-10)
```

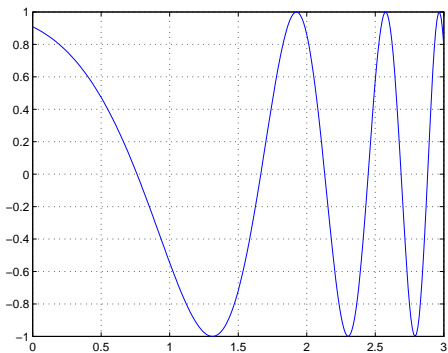
```
x =
```

```
0.761549782880894
```

```
>> x = newtonSearch('sin(exp(x) + 1)', 0, 1e-10)
```

```
x =
```

```
2.131177121086310
```



Task:

Compute (approximate/enclose) the definite integral

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$



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Naive approach:

Split the domain of integration into N equally wide subintervals: we set $h = (b - a)/N$ and $x_i = a + ih$, $i = 0, \dots, N$, and enclose the integrand via IA.



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This produces the enclosure

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \in I_a^b(f, N) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} h \sum_{i=1}^N F([x_{i-1}, x_i]),$$

which satisfies $w(I_a^b(f, N)) = \mathcal{O}(1/N)$.

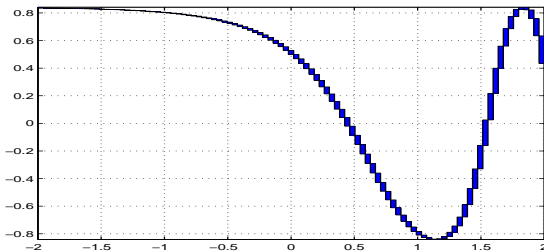
Example

Enclose the definite integral $\int_{-2}^2 \sin(\cos(e^x))dx$.

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N	$I_{-2}^2(f, N)$	$w(I_{-2}^2(f, N))$
10^0	$[-3.36588, 3.36588]$	$6.73177 \cdot 10^0$
10^2	$[1.26250, 1.41323]$	$1.50729 \cdot 10^{-1}$
10^4	$[1.33791, 1.33942]$	$1.50756 \cdot 10^{-3}$
10^6	$[1.33866, 1.33868]$	$1.50758 \cdot 10^{-5}$



Taylor series approach:

Generate tighter bounds on the integrand via AD.

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For all $x \in \mathbb{X}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f_k(\tilde{x})(x - \tilde{x})^k + f_n(\zeta_x)(x - \tilde{x})^n \\ &\in \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(\tilde{x})(x - \tilde{x})^k + [-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n]|x - \tilde{x}|^n, \end{aligned}$$

where $\varepsilon_n = \text{mag}(F_n(\mathbb{X}) - f_n(\tilde{x}))$.



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where $\varepsilon_n = \text{mag}(F_n(\mathbb{X}) - f_n(\tilde{x}))$.

We are now prepared to compute the integral itself:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\tilde{x}-r}^{\tilde{x}+r} f(x) dx &\in \int_{\tilde{x}-r}^{\tilde{x}+r} \left(\sum_{k=0}^n f_k(\tilde{x})(x - \tilde{x})^k + [-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n]|x - \tilde{x}|^n \right) dx \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(\tilde{x}) \int_{-r}^r x^k dx + [-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n] \int_{-r}^r |x|^n dx. \end{aligned}$$

Continuing the calculation, we see a lot of cancellation:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\check{x}-r}^{\check{x}+r} f(x) dx &\in \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(\check{x}) \int_{-r}^r x^k dx + [-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n] \int_{-r}^r |x|^n dx \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} f_{2k}(\check{x}) \int_{-r}^r x^{2k} dx + [-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n] \int_{-r}^r |x|^n dx \\ &= 2 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} f_{2k}(\check{x}) \frac{r^{2k+1}}{2k+1} + [-\varepsilon_n, \varepsilon_n] \frac{r^{n+1}}{n+1} \right).\end{aligned}$$



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 \end{aligned}$$

Partition the domain of integration: $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_N = b$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \sum_{i=1}^N \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^N \int_{\check{x}_i-r_i}^{\check{x}_i+r_i} f(x) dx \\
 &\in 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} f_{2k}(\check{x}_i) \frac{r_i^{2k+1}}{2k+1} + [-\varepsilon_{n,i}, \varepsilon_{n,i}] \frac{r_i^{n+1}}{n+1} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

Uniform partition:

N	$E_{-2}^2(f, 6, N)$	$w(E_{-2}^2(f, 6, N))$
9	[0.86325178469, 1.81128961988]	$9.4804 \cdot 10^{-1}$
12	[1.28416304745, 1.39316025451]	$1.0900 \cdot 10^{-1}$
21	[1.33783795371, 1.33950680633]	$1.6689 \cdot 10^{-3}$
75	[1.33866863493, 1.33866878008]	$1.4514 \cdot 10^{-7}$



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Adaptive partition:

TOL	$A_{-2}^2(f, 6, \text{TOL})$	$w(A_{-2}^2(f, 6, \text{TOL}))$	N_{TOL}
10^{-1}	[1.33229594606, 1.34500942603]	$1.2713 \cdot 10^{-2}$	9
10^{-2}	[1.33822575109, 1.33911045235]	$8.8470 \cdot 10^{-4}$	12
10^{-4}	[1.33866170207, 1.33867571626]	$1.4014 \cdot 10^{-5}$	21
10^{-8}	[1.33866870618, 1.33866870862]	$2.4304 \cdot 10^{-9}$	75



Example (A bonus problem)

Compute the integral $\int_0^8 \sin(x + e^x) dx$.

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A regular MATLAB session:

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>> q = quad('sin(x + exp(x))', 0, 8)
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```
q =
```

```
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```

```
$$ ./adQuad 0 8 20 1e-10
Partitions: 874
CPU time   : 0.45 seconds
Integral   : 0.3474001726 [492276, 652638]
```

Classical numerics vs interval analysis based numerics

Classical numerics

compute with numbers

Set-valued numerics

compute with sets

Classical numerics vs interval analysis based numerics

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$$x \approx 3.1415926535$$

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hardware support

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coming soon?



Interval Computations Web Page

<http://www.cs.utep.edu/interval-comp>



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INTLAB – INTerval LABoratory

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CAPA – Computer–Aided Proofs in Analysis

<http://www.math.uu.se/~warwick/CAPA/>