EXISTENCE VERIFICATION FOR SINGULAR ZEROS OF COMPLEX NONLINEAR SYSTEMS*

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Abstract. Computational fixed point theorems can be used to automatically verify existence and uniqueness of a solution to a nonlinear system of n equations in n variables ranging within a given region of n-space. But such computations succeed only when the Jacobi matrix is nonsingular everywhere in this region. However, in problems such as bifurcation problems or surface intersection problems, the Jacobi matrix can be singular, or nearly so, at the solution. For n real variables, when the Jacobi matrix is singular, tiny perturbations of the problem can result in problems either with no solution in the region, or with more than one; thus no general computational technique can prove existence and uniqueness. However, for systems of n complex variables, the multiplicity of such a solution *can* be verified. That is the subject of this paper.

Such verification is possible by computing the topological degree, but such computations heretofore have required a global search on the $(n-1)$-dimensional boundary of an n-dimensional region. Here, it is observed that preconditioning leads to a system of equations whose topological degree can be computed with a much lower-dimensional search. Formulas are given for this computation, and the special case of rank-defect one is studied, both theoretically and empirically.

Verification is possible for certain subcases of the real case. That will be the subject of a companion paper.

Key words. complex nonlinear systems, interval computations, verified computations, singularities, topological degree

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1. Introduction. Given an approximate solution $\check{x}$ to a nonlinear system of equations $F(x) = 0$, $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, it is useful in various contexts to construct bounds around $\check{x}$ in which it is proven that there exists a unique solution x^*, $F(x^*) = 0$. For continuously differentiable F for which the Jacobian $\det(F'(x^*)) \neq 0$ and for which that Jacobian is well conditioned, interval computations have no trouble proving that there is a unique solution within small boxes with x^* reasonably near the center; see [8, 16, 23]. However, if $F'(x^*)$ is ill-conditioned or singular, such computations necessarily must fail. In this singular situation, for some classes of systems $F(x) = 0$, $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, arbitrarily small perturbations of the problem can lead to no solutions or an even number of solutions, so multiplicity verification is not logical. In contrast, verification is always possible if $F : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$. Here, algorithms are developed for the multiplicity of such solutions for $F(z) = 0$, $F : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$.

The algorithms are presented in the context of solutions that lie near the real line, of complex extensions of real systems (Such solutions arise, for example, in bifurcation problems.) However, the algorithms can be generalized to arbitrary solutions $z \in \mathbb{C}^n$ with z not necessarily near the real line.

Also, verification is possible for singular solutions of particular general classes of $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$. We will cover this in a separate paper.

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1.1. Previous Work, Related Material, and References. The emphasis in this paper is on rigorous verification of existence of a zero of a system of nonlinear equations in a small region containing an approximate, numerically-computed solution. Verification for $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ with the Jacobi matrix of F nonsingular at points x with $F(x) = 0$ is done with computational fixed point theorems based on interval Newton methods. Such methods are introduced, for example in the books [2], [8], [11], [16], [21], and [23].

The techniques in this paper for handling singularities are based on the topological degree. Introductions to degree theory include parts of [3] (in German) or [20]. A basic computational procedure for the degree over large regions appears in Stenger [27]. Stynes [28, 29] and Kearfott [12, 13, 14] derived additional formulas and algorithms based on Stenger's results. These degree computation procedures, however, involved heuristics, and the result was not guaranteed to be correct. Aberth [1] based a verified degree computation method on interval Newton methods and a recursive degree-computation formula such as Theorem 2.2 below. The work here differs from this previous work in two important aspects:

- The algorithms here execute in polynomial time with respect to the number of variables and equations[1], and
- The algorithms here assume at least second-order smoothness, and are meant to compute the degree over small regions containing the solution, over which certain asymptotic approximations are valid.

The treatment of verified existence represented in this paper involves computation of the topological degree in n-dimensional complex space. In loosely related work, Vrahatis et al develop an algorithm for computing complex zeros of a function of a complex variable in [31].

Finally, most of the literature we know on specialized methods for finding complex zeros, verified or otherwise, of equations and systems of equations deals with polynomial systems. Along these lines, continuation methods, as introduced in [6] and [22], figure prominently. The article [4] contains methods for determining the complex zeros of a single polynomial, while [7] and [9] contain verified methods for determining the complex zeros of a single polynomial.

1.2. Notation. We assume familiarity with the fundamentals of interval arithmetic; see [16, 23] for an introduction in the present context. (The works [2, 8, 24] also contain introductory material.)

Throughout, scalars and vectors will be denoted by lower case, while matrices will be denoted by upper case. Intervals, interval vectors (also called "boxes") and interval matrices will be denoted by boldface. For instance, $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n)$ denotes an interval vector, $A = (a_{i,j})$ denotes a point matrix, and $\boldsymbol{A} = (\boldsymbol{a}_{i,j})$ denotes an interval matrix. Real n-space will be denoted by $\mathbb{R}^n$, while the set of n-dimensional interval matrices will be denoted by $\mathbb{IR}^{n \times n}$. Similarly, complex n-space will be denoted by $\mathbb{C}^n$. The midpoint of an interval or interval vector $\boldsymbol{x}$ will be denoted by $\mathrm{m}(\boldsymbol{x})$. The non-oriented boundary of a box $\boldsymbol{x}$ will be denoted by $\partial\boldsymbol{x}$ while its oriented boundary will be denoted by $b(\boldsymbol{x})$. (See §2.)

1.3. Traditional Computational Existence and Uniqueness. Computational existence and uniqueness verification rests on interval versions of Newton's method. Typically, such computations can be described as evaluation of a related interval operator $\boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{x})$; $\boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{x}) \subseteq \boldsymbol{x}$ then implies existence and uniqueness of the solution

[1] The general degree computation problem is NP-complete; see [26].

of $F(x) = 0$ within $\boldsymbol{x}$. To describe these, we review

DEFINITION 1.1. ([23, p. 174], etc.) *Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$. The matrix $\boldsymbol{A}$ is said to be a* Lipschitz matrix *for F over $\boldsymbol{x}$ provided, for every $x \in \boldsymbol{x}$ and $y \in \boldsymbol{x}$, $F(x) - F(y) = A(x - y)$ for some $A \in \boldsymbol{A}$.*

Most interval Newton methods for $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, abstractly, are of the general form

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{N}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x}) = \check{x} + \boldsymbol{v}, \tag{1.1}$$

where $\boldsymbol{v}$ is computed to contain the solution set to the interval linear system

$$\boldsymbol{A}v = -F(\check{x}), \tag{1.2}$$

and where, for initial uniqueness verification, $\boldsymbol{A}$ is generally a Lipschitz matrix[2] for F over the box (interval vector) $\boldsymbol{x}$ and $\check{x} \in \boldsymbol{x}$ is a guess point. We sometimes write $\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x})$ in place of $\boldsymbol{A}$, since the matrix can be an interval extension of the Jacobi matrix of F. Uniqueness verification traditionally depends on regularity of the matrix $\boldsymbol{A}$. We have

LEMMA 1.2. *([16, 23]) Suppose $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = \check{x} + \boldsymbol{v}$ is the image under the interval Newton method (formula (1.1)), where $\boldsymbol{v}$ is computed by any method that bounds the solution set to the interval linear system (1.2), and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} \subseteq \boldsymbol{x}$. Then $\boldsymbol{A}$ is regular.*

The method of bounding the solution set of equation (1.2) to be considered here is the interval Gauss–Seidel method, defined by:

DEFINITION 1.3. *The preconditioned interval Gauss–Seidel image $\mathbf{GS}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x})$ of a box $\boldsymbol{x}$ is defined as $\mathbf{GS}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x}) \equiv (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_1, \ldots, \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_n)$, where $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i$ is defined sequentially for $i = 1$ to n by:*

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_i \equiv \boldsymbol{x}_i \cap \left(\check{x}_i - \boldsymbol{N}_i / (Y_i \boldsymbol{A}_i) \right),$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{N}_i = Y_i F(\check{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} Y_i \boldsymbol{A}_j (\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_j - \check{x}_j) + \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} Y_i \boldsymbol{A}_j (\boldsymbol{x}_j - \check{x}_j),$$

and where $\check{x} = (\check{x}_1, \ldots, \check{x}_n)^T$ is an initial guess point, $Y\boldsymbol{A} \in \mathbb{IR}^{n \times n}$ and $YF(\check{x})$ are the matrix and right-hand-side vector for the preconditioned interval system $Y\boldsymbol{A}(x - \check{x}) = -YF(\check{x})$, $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a point preconditioning matrix, Y_i denotes the i-th row of Y, and $\boldsymbol{A}_j$ denotes the j-th column of $\boldsymbol{A}$.

Lemma 1.2 applies when $\boldsymbol{N}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x}) = \mathbf{GS}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x})$, provided we specify that $\mathbf{GS}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x})$ be in the interior[3] $\operatorname{int}(\boldsymbol{x})$ of $\boldsymbol{x}$. In particular, we have

THEOREM 1.4. *([16, 23]) Suppose $F : \boldsymbol{x} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\boldsymbol{A}$ is a Lipschitz matrix such as an interval extension $\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x})$ of the Jacobi matrix. If $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$ is the image under an interval Newton method as in formula (1.1) and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} \subset \operatorname{int}(\boldsymbol{x})$, then there is a unique $x^* \in \boldsymbol{x}$ with $F(x^*) = 0$.*

Various authors have proven Theorem 1.4; see [16, 23]. In particular, Miranda's theorem can be used to easily prove Theorem 1.4 for $\boldsymbol{N}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x}) = \mathbf{GS}(F; \boldsymbol{x}, \check{x})$; see [19], [30], or [16, p. 60]. For worked-out examples, see [18, p. 3] or [17].

[2]However, see [16, 25] for techniques for using slope matrices.

[3]We must specify the interior because of the intersection step in Definition 1.3.

Inclusion in the interval Gauss–Seidel method is possible because the inverse midpoint preconditioner reduces the interval Jacobi matrix to approximately a diagonal matrix. In the singular case, an incomplete factorization for the preconditioner leads to an approximate diagonal matrix in the upper $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ submatrix, but with approximate zeros in the last row. We discovered the methods in this paper by viewing the interval Gauss–Seidel method on this submatrix, then applying special techniques to the preconditioned n-th function.

1.4. A Simple Singular Example. Consider

EXAMPLE 1. *Take*

$$f_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2,$$
$$f_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2,$$

and $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2)^T = ([-0.001, 0.001], [-0.001, 0.001])^T$.

Even though there is a unique root $x^* = (0,0)^T$ of $F = (f_1, f_2)^T$ within $\boldsymbol{x}$ when F is as in Example 1, the interval Gauss–Seidel method cannot prove this, since the Jacobi matrix $F'(x^*)$ is singular. In fact, the interval Jacobi matrix is computed to be

$$\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 2\boldsymbol{x}_1 & -1 \\ 2\boldsymbol{x}_1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{[-0.002,0.002]} & -1 \\ \text{[-0.002,0.002]} & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

and the midpoint matrix is $\mathrm{m}(\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x})) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, The inverse of the midpoint matrix, often used as the preconditioner Y, is not invertible[4].

Symbolic methods can be used to show that Example 1 has a unique solution at $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = 0$. However, arbitrarily small perturbations of the problem result in either no solutions or two solutions. Consider

EXAMPLE 2. *Take*

$$f_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2,$$
$$f_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2 + \epsilon,$$

and $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2)^T = ([-0.001, 0.001], [-0.001, 0.001])^T$. *Here,* $|\epsilon|$ *is very small.*

The system in Example 2 has two solutions for $\epsilon < 0$ and no solutions for $\epsilon > 0$. But roundout in computer arithmetic and, perhaps, uncertainties in the system itself due to modelling or measurement uncertainties, make it impossible to distinguish systems such as in Example 2 for different ϵ, especially when computer arithmetic is used as part of the verification process. In such instances, no verification is possible. However, if F is viewed as a complex function of two variables, then, for all ϵ sufficiently small, F has two solutions in a small box in $\mathbb{C}^2$ containing the real point $(0,0)$.

More generally, we can extend an n-dimensional box in $\mathbb{R}^n$ to an n-dimensional box in $\mathbb{C}^n$ by adding a small imaginary part to each variable. If the system can be extended to an analytic function in complex n-space (or if it can be extended to a function that can be approximated by an analytic function), then the *topological degree* gives the number of solutions, counting multiplicities, within the small region in

[4] Alternate preconditioners can nonetheless be computed; see [16]. However, it can be shown that uniqueness cannot be proven in this case; see [16, 23].

complex space. (See §2 for an explanation of multiplicity.) For example, the degree of the system in Example 2 within an extended box in complex space can be computed to be 2, regardless of whether ϵ is negative, positive or zero. (See the numerical results in §8.) The topological degree corresponds roughly to algebraic degree in one dimension; for example, the degree of z^n in a small region in $\mathbb{C}^1$ containing 0 is n.

1.5. Organization of this Paper. A review of properties of the topological degree, to be used later, appears in §2. The issue of preconditioning appears in §3. Construction of the box in the complex space appears in §4.

Several algorithms have previously been proposed for computing the topological degree [1, 12, 28], but these require computational effort equivalent to finding all solutions to $4n$ (2n-1)-dimensional nonlinear systems within a given box, or worse. In §5, a reduction is proposed that allows computation of the topological degree with a search in a space of dimension equal to the rank defect of the Jacobian matrix. A theorem is proven that further simplifies the search.

In §6, the actual algorithm is presented and its computational complexity is given. Test problems and the test environment are described in §7. Numerical results appear in §8. Future directions appear in §9.

2. Review of Some Elements of Degree Theory. The topological degree or Brouwer degree, well-known within algebraic topology and nonlinear functional analysis, is both a generalization of the concept of a sign change of a one-dimensional continuous function and of the winding number for analytic functions. It can be used to generalize the concept of multiplicity of a root. The fundamentals will not be reviewed here, but we refer to [3, 5, 12]. We only present the material we need.

Here, we explain what we mean by "multiplicity". Actually, there is a more general concept *index* (see [5, Chapter I]) for an isolated zero. The topological degree is equal to the sum of the indices of zeros in the domain. The index is always positive in our context. For this reason, we use the more suggestive term multiplicity as an alternative term for index.

Suppose that $F : \mathbf{D} \subset \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ is analytic. Then the real and imaginary components of F and its argument $z \in \mathbb{C}^n$ may be viewed as real components in $\mathbb{R}^{2n}$. Let $z = x + iy$ and $F(z) = u(x,y) + iv(x,y)$, where $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n)$, $u(x,y) = (u_1(x,y), \ldots, u_n(x,y))$ and $v(x,y) = (v_1(x,y), \ldots, v_n(x,y))$. We define $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ by $\tilde{\mathbf{D}} \equiv \{(x_1, y_1, \ldots, x_n, y_n) | (x_1 + iy_1, \ldots, x_n + iy_n) \in \mathbf{D}\}$ and $\tilde{F} : \tilde{\mathbf{D}} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2n} \to \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ by $\tilde{F} = (u_1, v_1, \ldots, u_n, v_n)$. Then, we have the following property of topological degree $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, 0)$, and relationships between $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, 0)$ and the solutions of the system $F(z) = 0$ in $\mathbf{D}$.

THEOREM 2.1. *([5], [20], etc.) Suppose $F : \mathbf{D} \subset \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ is analytic, with $F(z) \neq 0$ for any $z \in \partial\mathbf{D}$, and suppose $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ and $\tilde{F} : \tilde{\mathbf{D}} \to \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ are defined as above. Then*

1. $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, 0) \geq 0$.
2. $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, 0) > 0$ *if and only if there is a solution* $z^* \in \mathbf{D}$, $F(z^*) = 0$.
3. $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, 0)$ *is equal to the number of solutions* $z^* \in \mathbf{D}$, $F(z^*) = 0$, *counting multiplicities.*
4. *If the Jacobi matrix* $F'(z^*)$ *is non-singular at every* $z^* \in \mathbf{D}$ *with* $F(z^*) = 0$, *then* $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, 0)$ *is equal to the number of solutions* $z^* \in \mathbf{D}$, $F(z^*) = 0$.

The following three theorems lead to the degree computation formula in Theorem 5.1 in §5, the formula used in our computational scheme.

THEOREM 2.2. *(See [27, §4.2].) Let $\mathbf{D}$ be an n-dimensional connected, oriented region in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $F = (f_1, \ldots, f_n)$, where f_k, $k = 1, \ldots, n$, are continuous functions*

defined in $\mathbf{D}$. *Assume* $F \neq 0$ *on the oriented boundary* $b(\mathbf{D})$ *of* $\mathbf{D}$, $b(\mathbf{D})$ *can be subdivided into a finite number of closed, connected* $(n-1)$*-dimensional oriented subsets* $\beta^k_{n-1}, k = 1, \ldots, r$, *and there is a* p, $1 \leq p \leq n$, *such that:*

1. $F_{\neg p} \equiv (f_1, \ldots, f_{p-1}, f_{p+1}, \ldots, f_n) \neq 0$ *on the oriented boundary* $b(\beta^k_{n-1})$ *of* β^k_{n-1}, $k = 1, \ldots, r$; *and*
2. f_p *has the same sign at all solutions of* $F_{\neg p} = 0$, *if there are any, on* β^k_{n-1}, $1 \leq k \leq r$.

Choose $s \in \{-1, +1\}$ *and let* $K_0(s)$ *denote the subset of the integers* $k \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$ *such that* $F_{\neg p} = 0$ *has solutions on* β^k_{n-1} *and* $\operatorname{sgn}(f_p) = s$ *at each of those solutions. Then*

$$\mathrm{d}(F, \mathbf{D}, 0) = (-1)^{p-1} s \sum_{k \in K_0(s)} \mathrm{d}(F_{\neg p}, \beta^k_{n-1}, 0).$$

The formula in Theorem 2.2 is a combination of formulas (4.15) and (4.16) in [27]. The orientation of $\mathbf{D}$ is positive and the orientations of β^k_{n-1}, whether positive or negative, are induced by the orientation of $\mathbf{D}$. If we assume that the Jacobi matrices of $F_{\neg p}$ are non-singular at all solutions of $F_{\neg p} = 0$ on β^k_{n-1}, then

$$\mathrm{d}(F_{\neg p}, \beta^k_{n-1}, 0) = t(\beta^k_{n-1}) \sum_{\substack{x \in \beta^k_{n-1} \\ F_{\neg p} = 0}} \operatorname{sgn}(JF_{\neg p}(x)),$$

where $t(\beta^k_{n-1}) = +1$ or -1 depending on whether β^k_{n-1} has positive orientation or negative orientation, and $JF_{\neg p}(x)$ is the determinant of the Jacobi matrix of $F_{\neg p}$ at x. (See Theorem (5.2) and (7.2) in Chapter I of [5].) Thus, we can simplify the formula in Theorem 2.2 as follows.

THEOREM 2.3. *Suppose the conditions of Theorem 2.2 are satisfied and, additionally, the Jacobi matrix of* $F_{\neg p}$ *is non-singular at each solution of* $F_{\neg p} = 0$ *on* β^k_{n-1}, *for each* $k \in K_0(s)$. *Then*

$$\mathrm{d}(F, \mathbf{D}, 0) = (-1)^{p-1} s \sum_{k \in K_0(s)} t(\beta^k_{n-1}) \sum_{\substack{x \in \beta^k_{n-1} \\ F_{\neg p}(x) = 0}} \operatorname{sgn}(JF_{\neg p}(x)),$$

where $t(\beta^k_{n-1}) = +1$ *or* -1 *depending on whether* β^k_{n-1} *has positive orientation or negative orientation, and* $JF_{\neg p}(x)$ *is the determinant of the Jacobi matrix of* $F_{\neg p}$ *at* x.

In our context, the region $\mathbf{D}$ is an n-dimensional box $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n)$, where $n \geq 2$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_k = [\underline{x}_k, \overline{x}_k]$. The boundary $\boldsymbol{\partial x}$ of $\boldsymbol{x}$ consists of $2n$ $(n-1)$-dimensional boxes

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}} \equiv (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{k-1}, \underline{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_{k+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n) \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}} \equiv (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{k-1}, \overline{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_{k+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n),$$

where $k = 1, \ldots, n$.

The following theorem, necessary for the main characterization used in our algorithm, is a basic property of oriented domains in n-space, and follows from definitions such as in [3]. See [18, pp. 7–8] for a detailed derivation in terms of oriented simplices.

THEOREM 2.4. *If* $\boldsymbol{x}$ *is positively oriented, then the induced orientation of* $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ *is* $(-1)^k$, *and the induced orientation of* $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$ *is* $(-1)^{k+1}$, *for* $1 \leq k \leq n$.

The oriented boundary $b(\boldsymbol{x})$ can be divided into $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, $k = 1, \ldots, n$, with the associated orientations. Also, $F \neq 0$ on $b(\boldsymbol{x})$ is the same as $F \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{\partial x}$.

$$Y\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & \overbrace{}^{p} \\ 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & *\dots* \\ 0 & 1 & 0\dots & 0 & *\dots* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & *\dots* \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0\dots 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0\dots 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

FIG. 3.1. *A singular system of rank $n-p$ preconditioned with an incomplete LU factorization, where "$*$" represents a non-zero element.*

Now, fix a p between 1 and n. Then $F_{\neg p}(x) = 0$ on $b(\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}})$ or $b(\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}})$ is the same as $F_{\neg p}(x) = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{\partial x}_{\underline{k}}$ or $\boldsymbol{\partial x}_{\overline{k}}$. For this fixed p, let $\underline{K_0(s)}$ denote the subset of the integers $k \in \{1,\dots,n\}$ such that $F_{\neg p} = 0$ has solutions on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\operatorname{sgn}(f_p) = s$ at these solutions, and let $\overline{K_0(s)}$ denote the subset of the integers $k \in \{1,\dots,n\}$ such that $F_{\neg p} = 0$ has solutions on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$ and $\operatorname{sgn}(f_p) = s$ at these solutions, where $s \in \{-1,+1\}$. Then, by Theorem 2.3, we have

THEOREM 2.5. *Suppose $F \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{\partial x}$, and suppose there is p, $1 \le p \le n$, such that:*

1. *$F_{\neg p} \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{\partial x}_{\underline{k}}$ or $\boldsymbol{\partial x}_{\overline{k}}$, $k = 1,\dots,n$;*
2. *f_p has the same sign at all solutions of $F_{\neg p} = 0$, if there are any, on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, $1 \le k \le n$; and*
3. *the Jacobi matrices of $F_{\neg p}$ are non-singular at all solutions of $F_{\neg p} = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{\partial x}$.*

Then

$$\mathrm{d}(F,\boldsymbol{x},0) = (-1)^{p-1} s \left\{ \sum_{k\in\underline{K_0(s)}} (-1)^k \sum_{\substack{x\in\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}} \\ F_{\neg p}(x)=0}} \operatorname{sgn}\left| \frac{\partial F_{\neg p}}{\partial x_1 x_2 \dots x_{k-1} x_{k+1} \dots x_n}(x) \right| \right.$$
$$\left. + \sum_{k\in\overline{K_0(s)}} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{\substack{x\in\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}} \\ F_{\neg p}(x)=0}} \operatorname{sgn}\left| \frac{\partial F_{\neg p}}{\partial x_1 x_2 \dots x_{k-1} x_{k+1} \dots x_n}(x) \right| \right\}.$$

3. On Preconditioning. The inverse midpoint preconditioner approximately *diagonalizes* the interval Jacobi matrix when $F'(x^*)$ is non-singular (and well-enough conditioned). This preconditioner can be computed with Gaussian elimination with partial pivoting. We can compute (to within a series of row permutations) an LU factorization of the midpoint matrix $\mathrm{m}\big(\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x})\big)$. The factors L and U may then be applied to actually precondition the interval linear system.

When the rank of $F'(x^*)$ is $n-p$ for some $p > 0$, Gaussian elimination with full pivoting can be used to reduce $\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x})$ to approximately the pattern shown in Figure 3.1. Actually, an incomplete factorization based on full pivoting will put the system into a pattern that resembles a permutation of the columns of the pattern in Figure 3.1. However, for notational simplicity, there is no loss here in assuming exactly the form in Figure 3.1.

In the analysis to follow, we assume that the system has already been preconditioned, so that it is, to within second-order terms with respect to w($\boldsymbol{x}$), of the form in Figure 3.1. Here, we concentrate on the case p=1, although the idea can be applied to the general case.

4. The Complex Setting and System Form. Below, we assume

1. $F : \mathbf{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ can be extended to an analytic function in $\mathbb{C}^n$.
2. $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n) = ([\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], \ldots, [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n])$ is a small box that will be constructed centered at the approximate solution $\check{x}$, i.e. m($\boldsymbol{x}$) $= (\check{x}_1, \ldots, \check{x}_n)$.
3. F has been preconditioned as in Figure 3.1, and $F'(x^*)$ has null space of dimension 1.
4. $\check{x}$ is near a point x^* with $F(x^*) = 0$, such that $\|\check{x} - x^*\|$ is much smaller than the width of the box $\boldsymbol{x}$, and width of the box $\boldsymbol{x}$ is small enough so that mean value interval extensions lead, after preconditioning, to a system like Fig 3.1, with small intervals replacing the zeros.

The following representation is appropriate under these assumptions.

$$f_k(x) = (x_k - \check{x}_k) + \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x})(x_n - \check{x}_n) + \mathcal{O}\left(\|x - \check{x}\|^2\right) \quad \text{for } 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

$$f_n(x) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\frac{\partial^2 f_n}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}(\check{x})(x_k - \check{x}_k)(x_l - \check{x}_l) + \mathcal{O}\left(\|x - \check{x}\|^3\right)$$

For $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, extend F to complex space: $x + iy$, with y in a small box $\boldsymbol{y} = (\boldsymbol{y}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{y}_n) = ([\underline{y}_1, \overline{y}_1], \ldots, [\underline{y}_n, \overline{y}_n])$, where $\boldsymbol{y}$ is centered at $(0, \ldots, 0)$. Define $\boldsymbol{z} \equiv (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{y}_n) = ([\underline{x}_1, \overline{x}_1], [\underline{y}_1, \overline{y}_1], \ldots, [\underline{x}_n, \overline{x}_n], [\underline{y}_n, \overline{y}_n])$, $u_k(x, y) \equiv \Re(f_k(x+iy))$ and $v_k(x, y) \equiv \Im(f_k(x + iy))$. With this, define

$$\tilde{F}(x, y) \equiv (u_1(x, y), v_1(x, y), \ldots, u_n(x, y), v_n(x, y)) : \mathbb{R}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2n}.$$

Then, if preconditioning based on complete factorization of the midpoint matrix for $\boldsymbol{F'}(\boldsymbol{x})$ is used, the first-order terms are eliminated in the pattern of Figure 3.1, and, for $1 \leq k \leq (n-1)$,

$$\left.\begin{array}{rcl} u_k(x,y) & = & (x_k - \check{x}_k) + \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x})(x_n - \check{x}_n) + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^2\right), \\ v_k(x,y) & = & y_k + \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x})y_n + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^2\right), \end{array}\right\} \tag{4.1}$$

and

$$\left.\begin{array}{rcl} u_n(x,y) & = & \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\frac{\partial^2 f_n}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}(\check{x})(x_k - \check{x}_k)(x_l - \check{x}_l) \\ & & -\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\frac{\partial^2 f_n}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}(\check{x})y_k y_l + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^3\right), \\ v_n(x,y) & = & \sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\frac{\partial^2 f_n}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}(\check{x})(x_k - \check{x}_k)y_l + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^3\right). \end{array}\right\} \tag{4.2}$$

5. Simplification of a Degree Computation Procedure. To use Theorem 2.5 to compute the topological degree d($\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0$) directly in a verification algorithm would require a global search of the $4n$ $(2n-1)$-dimensional faces of the $2n$-dimensional box $\boldsymbol{z}$ for zeros of $\tilde{F}_{\neg p}$. This is an inordinate amount of work for a verification process that would normally require only a single step of an interval Newton method in the nonsingular case. However, if the system is preconditioned and in the form described in §3 and §4, the verification can be reduced to $4n - 4$ interval evaluations and four 1-dimensional searches.

To describe the simplification, define

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}} &\equiv (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{k-1}, \boldsymbol{y}_{k-1}, \underline{x}_k, \boldsymbol{y}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_{k+1}, \boldsymbol{y}_{k+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{y}_n), \quad \text{and}\\ \boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}} &\equiv (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{y}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{k-1}, \boldsymbol{y}_{k-1}, \overline{x}_k, \boldsymbol{y}_k, \boldsymbol{x}_{k+1}, \boldsymbol{y}_{k+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{y}_n).\end{aligned}$$

Similarly define $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$. Also define

$$\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) \equiv \big(u_1(x,y), v_1(x,y), \ldots, u_{n-1}(x,y), v_{n-1}(x,y), v_n(x,y)\big).$$

To compute the degree $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0)$, we will consider $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ on the boundary of $\boldsymbol{z}$. The boundary of $\boldsymbol{z}$ consists of the $4n$ faces $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{1}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{1}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{1}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{1}}$, $\ldots$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$.

Observe that, for $1 \le k \le (n-1)$, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ implies $u_k(x,y) \approx (\underline{x}_k - \check{x}_k) + \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x})(x_n - \check{x}_n) \approx 0$, whence $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k) \le |\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})|\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)$, i.e. $\frac{\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)}{|\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})|} \le \mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)$. Similarly, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$ implies $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)/|\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})| \le \mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)$, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ implies $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)/|\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})| \le \mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n)$, and $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$ implies $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)/|\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})| \le \mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n)$. Thus, if $\boldsymbol{x}_n$ is chosen so that

$$\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) \le \frac{1}{2} \min_{1 \le k \le n-1} \left\{ \frac{\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)}{|\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})|} \right\}, \tag{5.1}$$

then it is unlikely that $u_k(x,y) = 0$ on either $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$. Similarly, if $\boldsymbol{y}_n$ is chosen so that

$$\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n) \le \frac{1}{2} \min_{1 \le k \le n-1} \left\{ \frac{\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)}{|\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x})|} \right\}, \tag{5.2}$$

then it is unlikely that $v_k(x,y) = 0$ on either $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ or $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$. Here, the coefficient $\frac{1}{2}$ is to take into consideration the fact that $u_k(x,y) \approx (x_k - \check{x}_k) + \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x})(x_n - \check{x}_n)$ and $v_k(x,y) \approx y_k + \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x})y_n$ are only approximate equalities. (When $\partial f_k/\partial x_n(\check{x}) = 0$, there is no restriction on $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)$ or $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n)$ due to $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ or $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)$.)

By constructing the box $\boldsymbol{z}$ in this way, we can eliminate search of $4n-4$ of the $4n$ faces of the boundary of $\boldsymbol{z}$, since we have arranged to verify $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) \ne 0$ on each of these faces. Elimination of these $4n-4$ faces only needs $4n-4$ interval evaluations. Then, we only need to search the four faces $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}, \boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}, \boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$ for solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) = 0$, regardless of how large n is. This reduces total computational cost dramatically, since searching a face is expensive. Based on this, the following theorem underlies our algorithm in §6.1.

THEOREM 5.1. *Suppose*

1. $u_k \ne 0$ *on* $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ *and* $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, *and* $v_k \ne 0$ *on* $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ *and* $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, $k = 1, \ldots, n-1$;
2. $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ *has a unique solution on* $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ *and* $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$ *with* y_n *in the interior of* $\boldsymbol{y}_n$, *and* $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ *has a unique solution on* $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ *and* $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$ *with* x_n *in the interior of* $\boldsymbol{x}_n$;
3. $u_n \ne 0$ *at the four solutions of* $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ *in condition 2; and*
4. *the Jacobi matrices of* $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ *are non-singular at the four solutions of* $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ *in condition 2.*

Then

$$\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0) = - \sum_{\substack{x_n = \underline{x}_n \\ \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y) = 0 \\ u_n(x,y) > 0}} \mathrm{sgn} \left| \frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(x,y) \right|$$

$$+ \sum_{\substack{x_n = \overline{x}_n \\ \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y)=0 \\ u_n(x,y)>0}} \operatorname{sgn}\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(x,y)\right|$$

$$+ \sum_{\substack{y_n = \underline{y}_n \\ \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y)=0 \\ u_n(x,y)>0}} \operatorname{sgn}\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} x_n}(x,y)\right|$$

$$- \sum_{\substack{y_n = \overline{y}_n \\ \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}(x,y)=0 \\ u_n(x,y)>0}} \operatorname{sgn}\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} x_n}(x,y)\right|.$$

Proof. Condition 1 implies $\tilde{F} \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, $k = 1, \ldots, n-1$, and 2 and 3 imply $\tilde{F} \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$. Thus, $\tilde{F} \neq 0$ on $\partial \boldsymbol{z}$.

Condition 1 implies $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} \neq 0$ on $\partial \boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$, $\partial \boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, $\partial \boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\partial \boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, $k = 1, \ldots, n-1$. $\partial \boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ consists of $2(n-1)$ $(2n-2)$-dimensional boxes, each of which is either embedded in some $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ or $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ or is embedded in $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ or $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$. Thus, by 2 and 3, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} \neq 0$ on $\partial \boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$. Similarly, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} \neq 0$ on $\partial \boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\partial \boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\partial \boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$. Thus, condition 1 in Theorem 2.5 is satisfied.

Condition 2 in Theorem 2.5 is automatically satisfied since $F_{\neg p} = 0$ either has no solutions or a unique solution on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$, or $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Then, with condition 4, the conditions of Theorem 2.5 are satisfied. The formula is thus obtained with $s = +1$. □

The conditions of Theorem 5.1 will be satisfied when the system is that as described in §3 and §4, the box $\boldsymbol{z}$ is constructed as in (5.1) and (5.2), and the quadratic model is accurate. (See Theorem 5.2 and its proof of the results when all the approximations are exact.)

In Theorem 5.1, the degree consists of contributions of the four faces we search. We can compute the degree contribution of each of the four faces, then add them to get the degree.

In Theorem 5.1 we choose $s = +1$. We can also choose $s = -1$. That doesn't make any difference in our context if we ignore higher order terms in the values of u_n at the solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ on the four faces $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$. To be specific, the four values of u_n are

$$\begin{aligned}
u_n &= \frac{1}{2}\Delta(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)^2 + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^3\right), \\
u_n &= \frac{1}{2}\Delta(\overline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)^2 + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^3\right), \\
u_n &= -\frac{1}{2}\Delta \underline{y}_n^2 + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^3\right), \\
u_n &= -\frac{1}{2}\Delta \overline{y}_n^2 + \mathcal{O}\left(\|(x - \check{x}, y)\|^3\right),
\end{aligned}$$

respectively, where, Δ is defined in (5.3). When we choose $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)$ the same (or roughly the same) as $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$, the values of u_n as a function of $\underline{y}_n$ (or $\overline{y}_n$) will be the same (or roughly the same) as the values of u_n as a function of $\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n$ (or $\overline{x}_n - \check{x}_n$). Thus, if we ignore higher order terms, the cost of verifying $u_n < 0$ and searching for solutions

of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ with $u_n > 0$ is approximately the same as the cost of verifying $u_n > 0$ and searching for solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ with $u_n < 0$.

Next, we will give a theorem that will further reduce the search cost by telling us how we should search. Define

$$\alpha_k \equiv \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_n}(\check{x}), \quad 1 \le k \le n-1, \qquad \alpha_n \equiv -1,$$

$$\beta_{kl} \equiv \frac{\partial^2 f_n}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}(\check{x}) \qquad 1 \le k \le n, 1 \le l \le n,$$

$$\Delta \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l \tag{5.3}$$

THEOREM 5.2. *If the approximations of (4.1) and (4.2) are exact, if we construct the box $\boldsymbol{z}$ as in (5.1) and (5.2), and if $\Delta \neq 0$, then* $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0) = 2$.

Proof. Under the assumptions,

$$u_k = (x_k - \check{x}_k) + \alpha_k(x_n - \check{x}_n), \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1, \tag{5.4}$$

$$v_k = y_k + \alpha_k y_n, \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1, \tag{5.5}$$

$$u_n = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl}(x_k - \check{x}_k)(x_l - \check{x}_l) - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl} y_k y_l \tag{5.6}$$

$$v_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl}(x_k - \check{x}_k) y_l \tag{5.7}$$

Due to the construction of the box $\boldsymbol{z}$, $u_k = (\underline{x}_k - \check{x}_k) + \alpha_k(x_n - \check{x}_n) \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, and $v_k = \underline{y}_k + \alpha_k y_n \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, where $k = 1, \ldots, n-1$. Next, we locate the solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$.

1. On $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$,

$$u_k = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{x}_k = \check{x}_k - \alpha_k(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n), \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1, \tag{5.8}$$

$$v_k = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{y}_k = -\alpha_k y_n, \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1, \tag{5.9}$$

Plugging equations (5.8) and (5.9) into equations (5.6) and (5.7), we get

$$\begin{aligned} u_n &= \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l y_n^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\Delta(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\Delta y_n^2 \end{aligned} \tag{5.10}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_n &= \sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n) y_n \\ &= \Delta(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n) y_n. \end{aligned} \tag{5.11}$$

Then,

$$v_n = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{y}_n = 0, \tag{5.12}$$

since $\Delta \neq 0$. Thus, by equation (5.9)

$$\tilde{y}_n = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{y}_k = 0, \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1. \tag{5.13}$$

Therefore, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has a unique solution $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = (\tilde{x}_1, 0, \ldots, \tilde{x}_{n-1}, 0, \underline{x}_n, 0)$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$. Plugging (5.12) into (5.10), we get the u_n value at this solution, which is

$$u_n = \frac{1}{2}\Delta(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)^2. \tag{5.14}$$

Next, we compute the determinant of the Jacobi matrix of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ at this solution. Define $\gamma_k \equiv \sum_{l=1}^{n} \beta_{lk}\alpha_l$. Noting equations (5.4), (5.5) and (5.7), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})\right| \qquad (5.15)\\
&= -(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 & 0 & \alpha_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 1 & \alpha_{n-1} \\ 0 & \gamma_1 & \ldots & 0 & \gamma_{n-1} & \gamma_n \end{vmatrix} \\
&= -(\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)(-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_k\gamma_k) = (\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)\sum_{k=1}^{n}\alpha_k\sum_{l=1}^{n}\beta_{lk}\alpha_l \\
&= (\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\beta_{lk}\alpha_k\alpha_l = (\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l \\
&= (\underline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)\Delta.
\end{aligned}$$

2. Similarly, on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has a unique solution $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$. The u_n value at this solution is

$$u_n = \frac{1}{2}\Delta(\overline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)^2. \tag{5.16}$$

The determinant of the Jacobi matrix of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ at this solution is

$$\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})\right| = (\overline{x}_n - \check{x}_n)\Delta. \tag{5.17}$$

3. On $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$,

$$u_k = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{x}_k = \check{x}_k - \alpha_k(x_n - \check{x}_n), \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1, \tag{5.18}$$

$$v_k = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{y}_k = -\alpha_k \underline{y}_n, \qquad 1 \le k \le n-1. \tag{5.19}$$

Plugging equations (5.18) and (5.19) into equations (5.6) and (5.7), we get

$$\begin{aligned}
u_n &= \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l(x_n - \check{x}_n)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l\underline{y}_n^2 \qquad (5.20)\\
&= \frac{1}{2}\Delta(x_n - \check{x}_n)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\Delta\underline{y}_n^2 \\
v_n &= \sum_{k=1}^{n}\sum_{l=1}^{n}\beta_{kl}\alpha_k\alpha_l(x_n - \check{x}_n)\underline{y}_n \qquad (5.21)\\
&= \Delta(x_n - \check{x}_n)\underline{y}_n.
\end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$v_n = 0 \Longrightarrow \tilde{x}_n = \check{x}_n, \tag{5.22}$$

since $\Delta \neq 0$. Thus, by equation (5.18),

$$\tilde{x}_n = \check{x}_n \Longrightarrow \tilde{x}_k = \check{x}_k, \qquad 1 \leq k \leq n-1. \tag{5.23}$$

Therefore, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has a unique solution $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = (\check{x}_1, \tilde{y}_1, \ldots, \check{x}_{n-1}, \tilde{y}_{n-1}, \check{x}_n, \underline{y}_n)$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$. Plugging (5.22) into (5.20), we get the u_n value at this solution, which is

$$u_n = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta \underline{y}_n^2. \tag{5.24}$$

Next, as in (5.15), we compute the determinant of the Jacobi matrix of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ at this solution. Noting equations (5.4), (5.5) and (5.7), we have

$$\left| \frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} x_n}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \right| = \underline{y}_n \Delta. \tag{5.25}$$

4. Similarly, $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has a unique solution $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$. The u_n value at this solution is

$$u_n = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta \overline{y}_n^2. \tag{5.26}$$

The determinant of the Jacobi matrix of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ at this solution is

$$\left| \frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} x_n}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \right| = \overline{y}_n \Delta. \tag{5.27}$$

Finally, we can use the formula in Theorem 5.1 to compute the topological degree $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0)$. If $\Delta > 0$, then we know from equations (5.14), (5.16), (5.24) and (5.26) that $u_n > 0$ at the solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$. We also know the signs of the determinants of the Jacobi matrices at the two solutions from equations (5.15) and (5.17). Therefore, $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0) = -(-1) + (+1) = 2$. If $\Delta < 0$, then we know from the equations (5.14), (5.16), (5.24) and (5.26) that $u_n > 0$ at the solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$. We also know the signs of the determinants of the Jacobi matrices at the two solutions from equations (5.25) and (5.27). Therefore, $\mathrm{d}(\tilde{F}, \boldsymbol{z}, 0) = +(+1) - (-1) = 2$ also in this case. □

The proof of Theorem 5.2 tells us approximately where we can expect to find the solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ on the four faces we search and the value of the degree we can expect when the approximations (4.1) and (4.2) are accurate.

From (4.1), we know that if x_n is known precisely, formally solving $\boldsymbol{u}_k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ for x_k gives sharper bounds $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_k$ with $\mathrm{w}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_k) = \mathcal{O}\left(\|(\boldsymbol{x} - \check{x}, \boldsymbol{y})\|^2\right)$, $1 \leq k \leq n-1$. Similarly, if y_n is known precisely, formally solving $\boldsymbol{v}_k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ for y_k gives sharper bounds $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k$ with $\mathrm{w}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k) = \mathcal{O}\left(\|(\boldsymbol{x} - \check{x}, \boldsymbol{y})\|^2\right)$, $1 \leq k \leq n-1$. Thus, when we search $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$) for solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$, we can first get sharper bounds for $x_k, 1 \leq k \leq n-1$, since x_n is known precisely. Then, for a small subinterval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ of $\boldsymbol{y}_n$, we can solve $\boldsymbol{v}_k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ for y_k to get sharper bounds $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k$ with $\mathrm{w}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k) =$

$\mathcal{O}\left(\max(\|(\boldsymbol{x}-\check{x},\boldsymbol{y})\|^2, \|\boldsymbol{y}_n^0\|)\right)$, $1 \le k \le n-1$. Thus we get a small subface of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$) over which we can either use an interval Newton method to verify the existence and uniqueness of the zero of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ or use mean-value extensions to verify that $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ has no zeros, depending on whether $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ is in the middle of $\boldsymbol{y}_n$ or not. Thus, the process reduces to searching over a 1-dimensional interval $\boldsymbol{y}_n$. This further reduces the search cost. We can similarly search $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ or $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$.

6. The Algorithm and its Computational Complexity.

6.1. Algorithm. The algorithm consists of three phases. In the box-setting phase, we set the box $\boldsymbol{z}$. In the elimination phase, we verify that $u_k \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$, and $v_k \neq 0$ on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$, where $1 \le k \le n-1$. In the search phase, we verify the unique solution of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ on $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$ with y_n in the interior of $\boldsymbol{y}_n$, and on $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$ with x_n in the interior of $\boldsymbol{x}_n$, compute the signs of u_n and the signs of the Jacobi matrices of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ at the four solutions of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$, compute the degree contributions of the 4 faces $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$ according to the formula in Theorem 5.1, and finally add the contributions to get the degree.

ALGORITHM

Box-setting Phase

1. Compute the preconditioner of the original system, using Gaussian elimination with full pivoting.
2. Set the widths of $\boldsymbol{x}_k$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_k$ (see explanation below), for $1 \le k \le n-1$.
3. Set the widths of $\boldsymbol{x}_n$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_n$ as in (5.1) and (5.2).

Elimination Phase

1. Do for $1 \le k \le n-1$
   (a) Do for $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{k}}$
      i. Compute the mean-value extension of $\boldsymbol{u}_k$ over that face.
      ii. If $0 \in \boldsymbol{u}_k$, then stop and signal failure.
   (b) Do for $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{k}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{k}}$
      i. Compute the mean-value extension of $\boldsymbol{v}_k$ over that face.
      ii. If $0 \in \boldsymbol{v}_k$, then stop and signal failure.

Search Phase

1. Do for $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$
   (a) i. Use mean-value extensions for $\boldsymbol{u}_k(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ to solve for x_k to get sharper bounds $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_k$ with width $\mathcal{O}\left(\|(\boldsymbol{x}-\check{x},\boldsymbol{y})\|^2\right)$, $1 \le k \le n-1$.
      ii. If $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_k \cap \boldsymbol{x}_k = \emptyset$, then return the degree contribution of that face as 0.
      iii. Update $\boldsymbol{x}_k$.
   (b) i. Compute the mean-value extension $\boldsymbol{u}_n$ over that face.
      ii. If $\boldsymbol{u}_n < 0$, then return the degree contribution of that face as 0.
   (c) Construct a small subinterval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ of $\boldsymbol{y}_n$ which is centered at 0.
   (d) i. Use mean-value extensions for $\boldsymbol{v}_k(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ to solve for y_k to get sharper bounds $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k$ with width $\mathcal{O}\left(\max(\|(\boldsymbol{x}-\check{x},\boldsymbol{y})\|^2, \|\boldsymbol{y}_n^0\|)\right)$, $1 \le k \le n-1$, thus getting a subface $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0$) of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$.)
      ii. If $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k \cap \boldsymbol{y}_k = \emptyset$, then stop and signal failure.
   (e) i. Set up an interval Newton method for $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ to verify existence and uniqueness of a zero in the subface $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0$.)
      ii. If the zero can not be verified, then stop and signal failure.

(f) Inflate $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ as much as possible subject to verification of existence and uniqueness of the zero of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ over the corresponding subface, and thus get a subinterval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^1$ of $\boldsymbol{y}_n$.

(g) In this step, we verify $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has no solutions when $y_n \in \boldsymbol{y}_n \setminus \boldsymbol{y}_n^1$. $\boldsymbol{y}_n \setminus \boldsymbol{y}_n^1$ has two separate parts; we denote the lower part by $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$ and the upper part by $\boldsymbol{y}_n^u$. We only present the processing of the lower part. The upper part can be processed similarly.

i. Do

A. Use mean-value extensions for $\boldsymbol{v}_k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ to solve for y_k to get sharper bounds for y_k, $1 \le k \le n-1$, and thus to get a subface of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$).

B. Compute the mean-value extensions $\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{\neg u_n}$ over the subface obtained in the last step.

C. If $0 \in \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{\neg u_n}$, then bisect $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$, update the lower part as a new $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$ and cycle.
If $0 \notin \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{\neg u_n}$, then exit the loop.

ii. Do

A. If $\underline{y}_n^1 \le \overline{y}_n^l$, then exit the loop.

B. $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l \longleftarrow [\overline{y}_n^l, \overline{y}_n^l + \mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n^l)]$.

C. Use mean-value extensions for $\boldsymbol{v}_k(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ to solve for y_k to get sharper bounds for y_k, $1 \le k \le n-1$, and thus to get a subface of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$).

D. Compute the mean-value extensions $\tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{\neg u_n}$ over the subface obtained in the last step.

E. If $0 \notin \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{\neg u_n}$, then cycle.
If $0 \in \tilde{\boldsymbol{F}}_{\neg u_n}$, then $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l \longleftarrow [\underline{y}_n^l, \mathrm{mid}(\boldsymbol{y}_n^l)]$ and cycle.

(h) i. Compute the mean-value extension of $\boldsymbol{u}_n$ over $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0$.)

ii. If $\boldsymbol{u}_n < 0$, then return the degree contribution of that face as 0.

(i) i. Compute $\left|\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0)\right|$ (or $\left|\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0)\right|$).

ii. If $0 \in \left|\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0)\right|$ (or $0 \in \left|\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0)\right|$), then stop and signal failure.

(j) Use the formula in Theorem 5.1 to compute the degree contribution of that face.

2. Do for $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$

(a) Same as Step 1a except change x_k to y_k, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_k$ to $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k$, $\boldsymbol{x}_k$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_k$ and $\boldsymbol{u}_k$ to $\boldsymbol{v}_k$.

(b) Same as Step 1b.

(c) Same as Step 1c except change $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_n^0$, $\boldsymbol{y}_n$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_n$ and 0 to $\check{x}_n$.

(d) Same as Step 1d except change y_k to x_k, $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}_k$ to $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}_k$, $\boldsymbol{y}_k$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_k$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}^0$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}^0$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$.

(e) Same as Step 1e except change $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}^0$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}^0$.

(f) Same as Step 1f except change $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_n^0$, $\boldsymbol{y}_n^1$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_n^1$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_n$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_n$.

(g) Same as Step 1g except change $\boldsymbol{y}_n \setminus \boldsymbol{y}_n^1$ to $\boldsymbol{x}_n \setminus \boldsymbol{x}_n^1$.

(h) Same as Step 1h except change $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}^0$ and $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0$ to $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}^0$.

(i) Same as Step 1i except change $\left|\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}^0)\right|$ to $\left|\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} x_n}(\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}^0)\right|$ and

$\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} y_n}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}^0)\right|$ to $\left|\frac{\partial \tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}}{\partial x_1 y_1 \ldots x_{n-1} y_{n-1} x_n}(\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}^0)\right|$.

(j) Same as Step 1j.

3. Add the degree contributions of the four faces obtained in steps 1 and 2 to get the degree.

END OF ALGORITHM

An Explanation of the Algorithm

1. In the box-setting phase, in Step 2, the width $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ of $\boldsymbol{x}_k$ depends on the accuracy of the approximate solution $\check{x}$ of the system $F(x) = 0$. $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ should be much larger than $|\check{x}_k - x_k^*|$. At the same time, $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ should not be too large, since the quadratic model needs to be accurate over the box.
2. In the search phase, in Step 1b (or 2b), we check the sign of u_n on that face and discard that face at the earliest possible time if $u_n < 0$ on that face, since we know the degree contribution of that face is 0 according to the formula in Theorem 5.1. This will save time significantly if it happens that $u_n < 0$ on that face. It did happen for all the test problems. (See §8 for the test results.)
3. In the search phase, in Step 1e (or 2e), we precondition the system $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ before we use an interval Newton method, so that the method will succeed (see §1.3 and §3). The system $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ is nonsingular over the subfaces under consideration.
4. In the search phase, in Step 1f (or 2f), we first expand the subinterval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_n^0$) by $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n^0)$ at both ends. If existence and uniqueness of the zero of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ can be verified over the corresponding subface, then we expand the subinterval by 2ϵ at both ends, then 4ϵ and so on until existence and uniqueness verification fails.
5. In the search phase, in Step 1g (or 2g), the underlying idea is that the farther away the interval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$ is from the interval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^0$ whose corresponding subface of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$) contains a unique solution of $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ or the narrower the interval $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$ is, the more probable it is that we can verify that $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} \neq 0$ over the subface of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$ (or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$) corresponding to $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$.

6.2. Computational Complexity.

Derivation of the Computational Complexity

Box-setting Phase: Step 1 is of order $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. Step 2 is of order $\mathcal{O}(n)$. Step 3 is of order $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. Thus, the order of this phase is $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.

Elimination Phase: Step 1ai and 1bi are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. Step 1aii and 1bii are of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$. Thus, the order of this phase is $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.

Search Phase: Step 1a and 2a are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. Step 1b and 2b are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. Step 1c and 2c are of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$. Step 1d and 2d are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. Step 1e and 2e are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. Step 1f and 2f are of order N_{infl}*$\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. (See explanation below.) Step 1g and 2g are of order N_{proc}*$\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. (See explanation below.) Step 1h and 2h are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. Step 1i and 2i are of order $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$. Step 1j and 2j are of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$. The last step of this phase is of order $\mathcal{O}(1)$ too. Thus, the order of this phase is $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.

The order of the overall algorithm is thus $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$.

Remark: The order of the algorithm cannot be improved, since computing precondi-

tioners of the original system and the system $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n}$ is necessary and computing each preconditioner is of order $\mathcal{O}\left(n^3\right)$.

7. Test Problems and Test Environment.

7.1. Test Problems. Before describing the test set, we introduce one more problem. Motivated by [10, Lemma 2.4], we considered systems of the following form.

EXAMPLE 3. *Set $f(x) = h(x,t) = (1-t)(Ax - x^2) - tx$, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ is the matrix corresponding to central difference discretization of the boundary value problem $-u'' = 0$, $u(0) = u(1) = 0$ and $x^2 = (x_1^2, \ldots, x_n^2)^T$. The parameter t was chosen to be equal to $t_1 = \lambda_1/(1+\lambda_1)$, where λ_1 is the largest eigenvalue of A.*

The homotopy h in Example 3 has a simple bifurcation point at $t = t_1$, where the two paths cross obliquely. That is, there are two solutions to $f(x) = 0$ near $x = 0$, for all t near t_1 and on either side of t_1. Furthermore, the quadratic terms in the Taylor expansion for f do not vanish at $t = t_1$.

The test set consists of Example 1, Example 2 with $\epsilon = +10^{-6}$ and -10^{-6}, and Example 3 with $n = 5, 10, 20, 40, 80, 160, 320$. For all the test problems, we used $(0, 0, \ldots, 0)$ as a good approximate solution to the problem $F(x) = 0$. Actually, it's the exact solution in Example 1 and Example 3. $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ and $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)$ were set to 10^{-3} for $1 \le k \le n-1$. $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)$ and $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_n)$ were computed automatically by the algorithm. In fact, $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ and $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)$, $1 \le k \le n-1$, can also be computed automatically by the algorithm, depending on the accuracy of the approximate solution. At present, we used the known true solutions to Example 1 and Example 3 and the known approximate solution to Example 2 to test the algorithm and set the widths apparently small but otherwise arbitrary.

For all the problems, the algorithm succeeded and returned a degree of 2.

7.2. Test Environment. The algorithm in §6.1 was programmed in the Fortran 90 environment developed and described in [15, 16]. Similarly, all the functions in the test problems were programmed using the same Fortran 90 system, and internal symbolic representations of the functions were generated prior to execution of the numerical tests. In the actual tests, generic routines then interpreted the internal representations to obtain both floating point and internal values.

The `LINPACK` routines `DGECO` and `DGESL` were used in Step 1 of the box-setting phase, and in Step 1e, 2e, 1f and 2f of the search phase to compute the preconditioners. (See the algorithm and its explanation in §6.1.)

The Sun Fortran 90 compiler version 1.2 was used on a Sparc Ultra model 140 with optimization level 0. Execution times were measured using the routine `DSECND`. All times are given in CPU seconds.

8. Numerical Results.

We present the numerical results in Table 8.1 and some statistical data in Table 8.2.

The column labels of Table 8.1 are as follows.

Problem: names of the problems identified in §7.1.
n: number of independent variables.
Success: whether the algorithm was successful.
Degree: topological degree returned by the algorithm.
CPU Time: CPU time in seconds of the algorithm.
Time Ratio: This only applies to Example 3. It's the ratio of two successive CPU times.

The column labels of Table 8.2 are as follows.

Problem: names of the problems identified in §7.1.

TABLE 8.1
Numerical Results

Problem	n	Success	Degree	CPU Time	Time Ratio
Example 1	2	Yes	2	0.0761	
Example 2 ($\epsilon = +10^{-6}$)	2	Yes	2	0.0511	
Example 2 ($\epsilon = -10^{-6}$)	2	Yes	2	0.0513	
Example 3	5	Yes	2	0.6806	
Example 3	10	Yes	2	3.3403	4.91
Example 3	20	Yes	2	19.440	5.82
Example 3	40	Yes	2	140.34	7.22
Example 3	80	Yes	2	1123.6	8.01
Example 3	160	Yes	2	8891.3	7.91
Example 3	320	Yes	2	65395.5	7.36

TABLE 8.2
Statistical Data

		N_{infl}				N_{proc}			
Problem	n	$\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$	$\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$
Example 1	2	6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
Example 2 ($\epsilon = +10^{-6}$)	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Example 2 ($\epsilon = -10^{-6}$)	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Example 3	5	0	0	5	5	0	0	2	2
Example 3	10	0	0	5	5	0	0	2	2
Example 3	20	0	0	4	4	0	0	2	2
Example 3	40	0	0	4	4	0	0	2	2
Example 3	80	0	0	4	4	0	0	2	2
Example 3	160	0	0	4	4	0	0	2	2
Example 3	320	0	0	3	3	0	0	2	2

n**:** number of independent variables.

N_{infl}**:** number of inflations the algorithm did in Step 1f or 2f for the indicated face $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{y}}$.

N_{proc}**:** number of subintervals of $\boldsymbol{y}_n \setminus \boldsymbol{y}_n^1$ the algorithm processed in Step 1g or subintervals of $\boldsymbol{x}_n \setminus \boldsymbol{x}_n^1$ the algorithm processed in Step 2g, i.e. the number of $\boldsymbol{y}_n^l$'s plus number of $\boldsymbol{y}_n^u$'s in Step 1g or number of $\boldsymbol{x}_n^l$'s plus number of $\boldsymbol{x}_n^u$'s in Step 2g for the indicated face $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ or $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{y}}$.

We can see from Table 8.1 that the algorithm was successful on each problem in the test set. The overall algorithm is $\mathcal{O}\left(n^3\right)$, but the are many $\mathcal{O}\left(n^3\right)$ and $\mathcal{O}\left(n^2\right)$ steps. Some steps have many $\mathcal{O}\left(n^3\right)$ and $\mathcal{O}\left(n^2\right)$ substeps, and some of the substeps still have many $\mathcal{O}\left(n^2\right)$ structures. Thus, when n was small, those lower order structures had significant influence on the CPU time. However, for the larger n in the examples tried, the $\mathcal{O}\left(n^3\right)$ terms dominated. We can see this from the time ratios of Example 3 in Table 8.1.

In Table 8.2, in each problem there were two faces of $\boldsymbol{x}_{\underline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{x}_{\overline{n}}$, $\boldsymbol{y}_{\underline{n}}$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_{\overline{n}}$ for which $N_{infl} = 0$. This is because the algorithm verified that $u_n < 0$ on each of those two faces in Step 1b or 2b, and returned a degree contribution of each of those two faces as 0. Thus, the algorithm didn't proceed to Step 1f or 2f. For the same reason, $N_{proc} = 0$ for those two faces. For the remaining two faces for which the algorithm did proceed to Step 1f or 2f, N_{infl} is small.

In Step 1g or 2g, which immediately follows the inflations, $N_{proc} = 0$ for Example 1 and Example 2. This is because the inflations had covered the whole interval $\boldsymbol{y}_n$. More significant is that $N_{proc} = 2$ in Example 3 regardless of small n or large n. This is because only one interval was processed to verify that $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has no solutions when $x_n \in \boldsymbol{x}_n^l$ and only one interval was processed to verify that $\tilde{F}_{\neg u_n} = 0$ has no solutions when $x_n \in \boldsymbol{x}_n^u$. This means that the algorithm was quite efficient.

9. Conclusions and Future Work. When we tested the algorithm, we took advantage of knowing the true solutions. (See §7.1.) For this reason, we set $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{x}_k)$ and $\mathrm{w}(\boldsymbol{y}_k)$, $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ somewhat arbitrarily. But we plan to have the algorithm eventually compute these, based on the accuracy of the approximate solution obtained by a floating point algorithm and the accuracy of the quadratic model.

We presented an algorithm which was designed to work for the case that the rank deficiency of the Jacobian matrix at the singular solution is one. But the analysis in §5 and the algorithm in §6.1 can be generalized to general rank deficiency. Also, at present, it is assumed that the second derivatives $\frac{\partial^2 f_n}{\partial x_k \partial x_l}$, $1 \leq k \leq n, 1 \leq l \leq n$ don't vanish simultaneously at the singular solution. In fact, the analysis in §5 and the algorithm in §6.1 can be generalized to the general case that the derivatives of f_n of order 1 through r ($r \geq 2$) vanish simultaneously at the singular solution. But computing higher order derivatives may be expensive. Those two generalizations can also be combined, i.e. any rank deficiency and any order of derivatives of f_n that vanish. We will pursue these generalizations in the future.

Modification of the algorithm to verify complex roots whose not lying near the real axis is possible.

Another future direction of this study is to apply the algorithms to bifurcation problems and other physical models.

Finally, verification is possible for $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, in a multidimensional analogue of odd-multiplicity roots. We are presently writing up theoretical and experimental results for this situation.

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