# Enhancing monotonicity checking in parametric interval linear systems 

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#### Abstract

Solving systems of parametric linear equations with parameters varying within closed intervals is a hard computational problem. However, we may reduce the problem dimension and thus make the problem more tractable by utilizing the monotonicity of the solution components with respect to the parameters. In this paper, we propose two improvements of the standard monotonicity checking techniques. The first improvement relies on creating a system with original variables and their derivatives as unknowns, and the second one employs the so-called $p$-solution. By a series of numerical experiments we show that the improved monotonicity approach outperforms the standard one.


## 1 Introduction

In solving real-life problems, we often deal with data that are not know exactly due to various kinds of inexactness - measurement errors, incomplete knowledge, data estimation etc. In this paper, we assume that lower and upper bounds on uncertain data are known; i.e., we assume that we are dealing with interval valued quantities. Using intervals is advantageous because of their ability to track rounding and truncation errors and what follows to produce guaranteed solutions. However, due to the so-called dependency problem, classical interval computations often lead to large overestimation which makes their results irrelevant. Therefore, we address here a more general problem with dependencies between interval entries. More specifically, we focus on solving systems of linear equations with entries dependent on parameters varying within prescribed intervals.

Formally, consider an $n$-dimensional system of linear equations

$$
A(p) x=b(p)
$$

in which the constraint matrix $A(p)$ and the right-hand side vector $b(p)$ depend on parameters $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{K}$. The parameters are assumed to vary within compact intervals, i.e., for $k=1, \ldots, K$,

[^0]$p_{k} \in \boldsymbol{p}_{k}=\left[\underline{p}_{k}, \bar{p}_{k}\right]$. Thus, instead of a single parametric linear system, we have the following family of parametric linear systems
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(p) x=b(p), \quad p \in \boldsymbol{p} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where $p=\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{K}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{p}=\left(\boldsymbol{p}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{p}_{K}\right)^{T}$.
As a special case, we will also discuss systems with affine-linear dependencies, meaning that the entries of $A(p)$ and $b(p)$ are affine-linear functions of parameters. In this case, $A(p)$ and $b(p)$ can be expressed as

$$
A(p)=\sum_{k=1}^{K} A^{(k)} p_{k}, \quad b(p)=\sum_{k=1}^{K} b^{(k)} p_{k}
$$

where $A^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $b^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ are fixed and known a priori.
The solution set of the system (1) is usually defined as the set of solutions to all systems from the family (1), i.e.,

$$
\Sigma \triangleq\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \exists p \in \boldsymbol{p}: A(p) x=b(p)\right\}
$$

The (also called united) solution set $\Sigma$ is hard to characterize, even for particular classes of the affine-linear case. For example, the explicit description of the symmetric systems (where the symmetry of the constraint matrix defines the linear dependencies) was developed, e.g., in $[4,18,19]$. The general case of affine-linear dependencies was characterized by Popova [26] in particular. In such case, the shape of the solution set is described by quadrics (see Fig. 1). Handling $\Sigma$ is computationally hard. Many questions, such as nonemptiness, boundedness or approximation, are NP-hard even for very special subclasses of problems; see [15, 16, 20].

Example 1. Consider the following three-dimensional parametric interval linear system with nonlinear dependencies in the right-hand side vector:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & p_{1} & p_{2}  \tag{2}\\
p_{1} & 2 & p_{1} \\
p_{2} & p_{1} & 3
\end{array}\right) x=\left(\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
p_{1}^{2} \\
p_{1}^{2}
\end{array}\right),
$$

where $p_{1} \in[0,1], p_{2} \in[0,0.9]$. The solution set of the system is depicted in Fig. 1. To give a better idea, we display the solution set from two different perspectives there.

Let us now introduce some interval notation. An interval vector is defined as

$$
\boldsymbol{x} \triangleq\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \underline{x}_{i} \leqslant x_{i} \leqslant \bar{x}_{i}, i=1, \ldots, n\right\}
$$

where $\underline{x}, \bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \underline{x} \leqslant \bar{x}$, are given. The midpoint of an interval $\boldsymbol{x}$ is denoted by $x^{c} \triangleq \frac{1}{2}(\underline{x}+\bar{x})$, and its radius by $x^{\Delta} \triangleq \frac{1}{2}(\bar{x}-\underline{x})$. The set of $n$-dimensional interval vectors and the set of $n \times m$ interval matrices are denoted by $\mathbb{\mathbb { R } ^ { n }}$ and $\mathbb{I} \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, respectively. The smallest (w.r.t. inclusion) interval vector containing a bounded $\Sigma$ is called an interval hull of $\Sigma$ and is denoted by $\square \Sigma$.

The basic problem that we consider here is to compute a tight outer interval enclosure of the solution set $\Sigma$, i.e, to find an interval vector $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $\Sigma \subseteq \boldsymbol{x}$. There exist various approaches to finding such an enclosure. For the case of affine-linear dependencies, various iterative methods were investigated, e.g., in $[3,8,12,21,28,30,31]$. The so called direct methods were given in $[1,5,10,13,32]$. The problem of computing the tightest enclosure, the interval hull of $\Sigma$, was addressed in Kolev [9, 11, 13] and Skalna [35]. The general case of dependencies was discussed, e.g., in [9, 23, 36].


Figure 1: Solution set of system (2) viewed from different perspectives.

### 1.1 Monotonicity approach

A monotonicity approach was investigated by Kolev [7], Popova [22], Rohn [29], Skalna [34], and Skalna \& Duda [38]. The idea is as follows. If $A(p)$ is non-singular, then the solution of the system $A(p) x=b(p)$ is $x=A(p)^{-1} b(p)$. So, the solution is a real valued function of $p$, i.e., $x=x(p)$. If $x_{i}(p)$ is monotonic on $\boldsymbol{p}$ with respect to all parameters, then the smallest and largest values of $x_{i}(p)$ on $\boldsymbol{p}$ (i.e., minimum and maximum of $\Sigma$ in $i$ th coordinate) are attained at the respective endpoints of $\boldsymbol{p}$.

If $x_{i}(p)$ is monotonic with respect to some parameters only, then we can fix these parameters at the respective endpoints and then bound the range of $x_{i}(p)$ on a box of a lower dimension. Suppose that

- $x_{i}(p)$ is nondecreasing on $\boldsymbol{p}$ in variables $p_{k}, k \in K_{1}$,
- $x_{i}(p)$ is nonincreasing on $\boldsymbol{p}$ in variables $p_{k}, k \in K_{2}$,
- $x_{i}(p)$ is non-monotonic on $\boldsymbol{p}$ in variables $p_{k}, k \in K_{3}$.

Define the restricted set of parameters $\boldsymbol{p}^{1}$ and $\boldsymbol{p}^{2}$ as follows

$$
\boldsymbol{p}_{k}^{1}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\underline{p}_{k} & k \in K_{1}, \\
\bar{p}_{k} & k \in K_{2}, \\
\boldsymbol{p}_{k} & k \in K_{3},
\end{array} \quad \boldsymbol{p}_{k}^{2}= \begin{cases}\bar{p}_{k} & k \in K_{1}, \\
\underline{p}_{k} & k \in K_{2}, \\
\boldsymbol{p}_{k} & k \in K_{3},\end{cases}\right.
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{(\square \Sigma)}{}_{i}=\min \left\{x_{i} \mid x \in \Sigma\right\}=\min \left\{x_{i} \mid \exists p \in \boldsymbol{p}^{1}: A(p) x=b(p)\right\} \\
& {\overline{(\square \Sigma)_{i}}}_{i}=\max \left\{x_{i} \mid x \in \Sigma\right\}=\max \left\{x_{i} \mid \exists p \in \boldsymbol{p}^{2}: A(p) x=b(p)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

In this way, the computation reduces to two problems of smaller dimension.
The question now is how to check for monotonicity of $x_{i}(p)$ in parameter $p_{k}$. The standard way is to determine the sign of the partial derivative $\frac{\partial x_{i}(p)}{\partial p_{k}}$ on $\boldsymbol{p}$. We can determine the sign of $\frac{\partial x_{i}(p)}{\partial p_{k}}$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n$ by solving the following parametric interval linear system

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(p) \frac{\partial x(p)}{\partial p_{k}}=\frac{\partial b(p)}{\partial p_{k}}-\frac{\partial A(p)}{\partial p_{k}} x(p), \quad p \in \boldsymbol{p} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, for the affine-linear case, the system (3) takes the form

$$
A(p) \frac{\partial x(p)}{\partial p_{k}}=b^{(k)}-A^{(k)} x(p), \quad p \in \boldsymbol{p}
$$

Since the vector $x(p)$ in (3) is not known a priori, it is usually estimated by an outer interval enclosure of the solution set. That is, let $\boldsymbol{x} \supseteq \Sigma$, and consider the parametric interval linear system

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(p) \frac{\partial x(p)}{\partial p_{k}}=\frac{\partial b(p)}{\partial p_{k}}-\frac{\partial A(p)}{\partial p_{k}} x, \quad x \in \boldsymbol{x}, p \in \boldsymbol{p} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the affine-linear case, the system (4) takes the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(p) \frac{\partial x(p)}{\partial p_{k}}=b^{(k)}-A^{(k)} x, \quad x \in \boldsymbol{x}, p \in \boldsymbol{p} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\boldsymbol{d}$ be an enclosure of the solution set of the system (4). If $\underline{d}_{i} \geqslant 0$, then $x_{i}(p)$ is nondecreasing in $p_{k}$, and similarly if $\bar{d}_{i} \leqslant 0$, then $x_{i}(p)$ is nonincreasing in $p_{k}$.

By solving the system (4) for each $k=1, \ldots, K$, we obtain the interval vectors $\boldsymbol{d}^{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{d}^{K}$. Provided that $0 \notin \boldsymbol{d}_{i}^{k}$ for every $k=1, \ldots, K$ and $i=1, \ldots, n$, we can compute the exact range of the solution set $\Sigma$ as follows. For every $k=1, \ldots, K$ and $i=1, \ldots, n$ define

$$
p_{k}^{1, i}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\underline{p}_{k} & \underline{d}_{i}^{k} \geqslant 0, \\
\bar{p}_{k} & \bar{d}_{i}^{k} \leqslant 0,
\end{array} \quad p_{k}^{2, i}= \begin{cases}\bar{p}_{k} & \underline{d}_{i}^{k} \geqslant 0, \\
\underline{p}_{k} & \bar{d}_{i}^{k} \leqslant 0 .\end{cases}\right.
$$

By solving a pair of real linear systems of equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& A\left(p^{1, i}\right) x^{1}=b\left(p^{1, i}\right),  \tag{6a}\\
& A\left(p^{2, i}\right) x^{2}=b\left(p^{2, i}\right), \tag{6~b}
\end{align*}
$$

we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{(\square \Sigma)}{}_{\overline{(\square \Sigma)}_{i}}=x_{i}^{1} \\
=x_{i}^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By solving $n$ pairs of real linear systems (6), we obtain the range of the solution set in all coordinates, that is, $\square \Sigma$. The number of equations to be solved can be decreased by removing redundant vectors from the list

$$
\mathcal{L}=\left\{p^{1,1}, \ldots, p^{1, n}, p^{2,1}, \ldots, p^{2, n}\right\} .
$$

If only some of the partial derivatives have constant sign on $\boldsymbol{p}$, then, in the worst case, instead of $2 n$ real systems, we must solve $2 n$ parametric interval linear systems with a smaller number of interval parameters.

## 2 New approach

The main deficiency of the approach described above follows from replacing $x(p)$ in (4) by the interval vector $\boldsymbol{x}$ such that $\Sigma \subseteq \boldsymbol{x}$. This replacement causes some loss of information about the dependencies. We will overcome this shortcoming by introducing suitable modifications. The general idea of the presented modifications was mentioned in [37]. This work extends this general idea by some new theoretical results. Moreover, several numerical examples are solved to compare the efficiency and accuracy of different variants of the monotonicity approach.

### 2.1 Augmented system

The first idea is to consider $\partial x(p) / \partial p_{k}, k=1, \ldots, K$, as additional variables in (3). This approach was suggested by prof. L. Kolev, however, as far as we know, the result was not published anywhere. For each $k=1, \ldots, K$, we create the following parametric interval linear system

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A(p) & 0  \tag{7}\\
\frac{\partial A(p)}{\partial p_{k}} & A(p)
\end{array}\right)\binom{x}{\frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}}=\binom{b(p)}{\frac{\partial b(p)}{\partial p_{k}}}, \quad p \in \boldsymbol{p},
$$

and solve it in order to obtain, hopefully narrower, bounds for $\frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}(p)$ over $\boldsymbol{p}$. Then we proceed analogously as described in the previous section. Let us notice that for the affine-linear case, the system (8) takes the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A(p) & 0  \tag{8}\\
A^{(k)} & A(p)
\end{array}\right)\binom{x}{\frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}}=\binom{b(p)}{b^{(k)}}, \quad p \in \boldsymbol{p},
$$

which is also a parametric interval linear system with affine-linear dependencies.
The presented modified version of the monotonicity approach eliminates the problem of the "lost of information", however, instead we have to solve several systems which are twice larger than the original system. Since the basic version of the method is already quite expensive, hence for larger problems the modified method might be inefficient.

## $2.2 p$-solution

Below, we present a new approach to the "lost of information" problem, which relies on replacing $x(p)$ in the right hand side of (3) with a more precise object. For this purpose, we employ the $p$-solution that was introduced by Kolev [13, 14], and later studied by the authors in [39]. This type of solution has the parametric form $\boldsymbol{x}(p)=L p+\boldsymbol{a}$, where $L$ is a real $n \times K$-matrix and $\boldsymbol{a}$ is an interval column vector. Substituting $x(p)$ with this type of solution, we obtain the following parametric interval linear system

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(p) \frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}=b(\boldsymbol{p})-\frac{\partial A(p)}{\partial p_{k}} L p-\frac{\partial A(p)}{\partial p_{k}} a, \quad a \in \boldsymbol{a}, p \in \boldsymbol{p} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the elements of interval vector $\boldsymbol{a}$ are treated as new interval parameters, independent from $\boldsymbol{p}$. In the affine-linear case, the linear system (9) takes the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(p) \frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}=b^{(k)}-A^{(k)} L p-A^{(k)} a, \quad a \in \boldsymbol{a}, p \in \boldsymbol{p} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.3 Properties of $p$-solution approach

In this subsection, we consider the affine-linear case only. From many perspectives the system (10) is not more complicated than the original system (1).

Proposition 1. Consider the class of problems where matrices $A(p)$, for all $p \in \boldsymbol{p}$, are nonsingular and the solution set is convex resp. polyhedral for any right-hand side vector $b(p)$. Then the solution set of (10) is convex resp. polyhedral, too.

Proof. Under the assumption, the solution set is bounded and each realization of interval data yields a system that is uniquely solvable. Further, for a fixed $a \in \boldsymbol{a}$, the solution set of (10)
is convex resp. polyhedral. The image of $A^{(k)} a$ over $a \in \boldsymbol{a}$ is a zonotope, which is a convex polyhedron. Due to linearity of the solution $x=A(p)^{-1} b(p)$ with respect to $b(p)$, we have that the solution set of (10) is a Minkowski sum of the convex resp. polyhedral set (corresponding to fixed $a:=a^{c}$ ) and a zonotope. Therefore, the whole solution set remains convex resp. polyhedral.

Popova [24, 25] defines the so-called 1 st class parameters as those parameters $p_{k}$ that appear in only one equation of the system (1). If all parameters are of the 1st class, then the solution set $\Sigma$ is characterized as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|A\left(p^{c}\right) x-b\left(p^{c}\right)\right| \leqslant \sum_{k=1}^{K} p_{k}^{\Delta}\left|A^{(k)} x-b^{(k)}\right| . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will now show that a similar property holds for the system (10) under slightly more general assumptions avoiding the right-hand side structure.

Corollary 1. Suppose that each parameter appears in at most one row of the parametric matrix $A(p)$. Then the solution set of (10) is characterized by the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|A\left(p^{c}\right) \frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}-b^{(k)}+A^{(k)} L p^{c}+A^{(k)} a^{c}\right| \leqslant\left|A^{(k)}\right| a^{\Delta}+\sum_{k=1}^{K}\left|A^{(k)} \frac{\partial x}{\partial p_{k}}+A^{(k)} L_{* k}\right| p_{k}^{\Delta} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $L_{* k}$ denotes the $k$ th column of $L$.
Proof. Under the assumption, each matrix $A^{(k)}$ has only one non-zero row. Hence also matrix $A^{(k)} L$ has only one non-zero row. Therefore, the system (10) satisfies the assumption of the first class parameters, and the characterization (11) takes the form of (12).

The above observations are generally not true for the augmented system (8) since the dependencies in the constraint matrix are doubled, making the problems more complicated.

### 2.4 Time complexity

The asymptotic time complexity of the MA method is $\mathcal{O}(K \cdot \kappa+2 n \cdot \tau)$, where $\kappa$ is the time complexity of the method used to solve the parametric interval linear system (4) and $\tau$ is the time complexity of the method used to solve the systems (6). The asymptotic time complexity of the MA1 method is $\mathcal{O}\left(K \cdot \kappa^{\prime}+2 n \cdot \tau\right)$, where $\kappa^{\prime}$ is the time complexity of the method used to solve the system (7). The asymptotic time complexity of the MA2 method is $\mathcal{O}\left(K \cdot \kappa+n \cdot \tau^{\prime}\right)$, where $\tau^{\prime}$ is the time complexity of the method used to compute the $p$-solution. In the experiments presented in the next section we use Interval-affine Gauss-Seidel iteration (IAGSI) method [39] both to solve parametric interval linear systems and to obtain the $p$-solution. This choice is dictated by the fact that IAGSI is one of best methods for solving parametric interval linear systems and, what is more important, it is able to produce the $p$-solution. However, the method is quite expensive, so in the future we will try to employ some other methods.

Let us notice that the computational time of all three methods can be further decreased by computing the bounds of the derivatives in parallel. This can be done easily, since these computations are completely independent from each other.

## 3 Numerical experiments

In the examples presented in this section, we compare the presented three variants of the monotonicity approach in terms of speed and accuracy. All computations were carried out by using authors own software (implemented in C++ and compiled with Visual Studio 2017 C++ Compiler; the program was run on a computer with Windows 10 OS and $\operatorname{Intel}(\mathrm{R}) \operatorname{Core}(\mathrm{TM})$ i5-7200U CPU @ 2.50 GHz processor).

For the purposes of the comparison and further analysis we will refer to the basic version of the monotonicity approach (Section 1.1) as the MA method, the monotonicity approach involving the augmented system (7) (Section 2.1) will be referred to as the MA1 method, whereas the approach utilizing the $p$-solution (Section 2.2 ) will be referred to as the MA2 method.

Example 2. Consider the parametric interval linear system

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
p_{1} & p_{1}  \tag{13}\\
p_{1} & p_{1}+0.01
\end{array}\right)\binom{x_{1}}{x_{2}}=\binom{p_{2}}{p_{2}+0.01}
$$

where $p_{1} \in[0.9,1.1], p_{2} \in[1.9,2.1]$. If we neglect the dependencies, then the interval matrix contains a singular matrix; and thus the solution set is unbounded. So taking into account dependencies is crucial in this case. Moreover, if we neglect the rounding errors, then we will obtain the bound $[0.9999999999999716,0.9999999999999716]$ for $x_{2}$ that is not guaranteed. The results of the MA, MA1 and MA2 methods, which take into account both the dependencies and rounding errors, are presented in Table 1. As can be seen from the table, all three methods produced guaranteed solutions; i.e., the resulting interval vectors enclose the interval hull solution $\square \Sigma=([8 / 11,4 / 3],[1,1])^{T}=([0 . \overline{72}, 1 . \overline{3}],[1,1])^{T}$. The MA1 method turned out to be the best (in terms of accuracy) in this case, whereas the MA and MA2 methods produced the same results. The computational time of all three methods is $\approx 0.003 \mathrm{~s}$.

| Method | Outer enclosure |
| :--- | ---: |
| MA | $[0.7090307597988463,1.333333333333602]$ |
|  | $[0.9999999999997983,1.000000000000145]$ |
| MA1 | $[0.7272727272725469,1.333333333333561]$ |
|  | $[0.9999999999997983,1.000000000000145]$ |
| MA2 | $[0.7090307597988463,1.333333333333602]$ |
|  | $[0.9999999999997983,1.000000000000145]$ |

Table 1: Outer interval solutions obtained using MA, MA1 and MA2 methods for Example 2.

Example 3. Consider the following parametric interval linear system

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
2 p_{1} & p_{2}-1 & -p_{3} & p_{2}+3 p_{5}  \tag{14}\\
p_{2}+1 & 0 & p_{1} & p_{4}+1 \\
2-p_{3} & 4 p_{2}+1 & 1 & -p_{5} \\
-1 & 2 p_{5}+2 & 0.5 & 2 p_{1}+p_{4}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{3} \\
x_{4}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
1+2 p_{3} \\
-p_{4}+2 \\
3 p_{4}+p_{5} \\
p_{1}+p_{2}+2 p_{5}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $p_{k} \in[0.8-\delta, 1.1+\delta], k=1, \ldots, K=5$.
We solve the system for $\delta=0.01,0.02,0.03,0.04,0.05$. The computational times are given in Table 2. As we can see from the table, the MA and MA2 methods perform similarly, whereas the MA1 method is twice slower.

| $\delta$ | MA | MA1 | MA2 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.08 | 0.04 |
| 0.02 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.04 |
| 0.03 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.04 |
| 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.09 | 0.05 |
| 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.10 | 0.05 |

Table 2: Computational times (in seconds) for Example 3.

Table 3 presents the obtained interval enclosures (the results are rounded to four decimal places). We can see from the table that for $\delta=0.01,0.02,0.03$ the standard version of the monotonicity approach produced the worst results. For $\delta=0.01$, the results of the MA1 method and the MA2 method coincide, whereas for $\delta=0.02,0.03$ the MA1 method is slightly better than the MA2 method. For $\delta=0.04$ the advantage of MA1 over two other methods is significant, and for $\delta=0.05$ all the methods produced the same result. In order to show that it is important to take into account the dependencies in the system, we also provide in Table 3 the results of the Combinatorial Approach ${ }^{1}$ (CA) method (see, e.g., [35]). The CA method produces the interval hull solution of the corresponding interval linear system (obtained by neglecting the dependencies, i.e., by computing the interval extensions of $A(p)$ and $b(p)$ over $\boldsymbol{p})$.

| Method | $\delta=0.01$ | $\delta=0.02$ | $\delta=0.03$ | $\delta=0.04$ | $\delta=0.05$ |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| MA | $[0.0334,1.0028]$ | $[-0.1152,1.1007]$ | $[-0.1723,1.1630]$ | $[-0.2345,1.2306]$ | $[-0.3027,1.3042]$ |  |
|  | $[0.5935,1.2378]$ | $[0.5702,1.2657]$ | $[0.5459,1.2949]$ | $[0.5204,1.3255]$ | $[0.4936,1.3577]$ |  |
|  | $[-1.5219,0.2774]$ | $[-1.7763,0.5719]$ | $[-1.8903,0.6998]$ | $[-2.0151,0.8405]$ | $[-2.1527,0.9963]$ |  |
| MA1 | $[0.0831,0.6445]$ | $[0.0573,0.6655]$ | $[0.0302,0.6875]$ | $[0.0018,0.7107]$ | $[-0.0283,0.7358]$ |  |
|  | $[0.1115,0.9652]$ | $[0.0892,1.0065]$ | $[0.0669,1.0494]$ | $[0.0240,1.1238]$ | $[-0.3027,1.3042]$ |  |
|  | $[0.6537,1.2167]$ | $[0.6403,1.2403]$ | $[0.6265,1.2687]$ | $[0.5982,1.3077]$ | $[0.4936,1.3577]$ |  |
|  | $[-1.5219,0.2774]$ | $[-1.5982,0.3599]$ | $[-1.6787,0.4477]$ | $[-2.0151,0.8405]$ | $[-2.1527,0.9963]$ |  |
| MA2 | $[0.1106,0.6090]$ | $[0.0898,0.6248]$ | $[0.0684,0.6408]$ | $[0.0381,0.6678]$ | $[-0.0283,0.7358]$ |  |
|  | $[0.1115,0.9652]$ | $[0.0773,1.0281]$ | $[0.0518,1.0749]$ | $[-0.2345,1.2306]$ | $[-0.3027,1.3042]$ |  |
|  | $[-1.5440,1.2274]$ | $[0.6288,1.2532]$ | $[0.5459,1.2949]$ | $[0.5204,1.3255]$ | $[0.4936,1.3577]$ |  |
|  | $[0.1106,0.2774]$ | $[-1.5982,0.3599]$ | $[-1.6787,0.4477]$ | $[-2.0151,0.8405]$ | $[-2.1527,0.9963]$ |  |
|  | CA | $[-0.2814,1.3244]$ | $[0.0838,0.6323]$ | $[0.0302,0.6875]$ | $[0.0018,0.7107]$ | $[-0.0283,0.7358]$ |
|  | $[0.5660,1.4164]$ | $[0.5381,1.3862]$ | $[-0.3965,1.4493]$ | $[-0.4561,1.5137]$ | $[-0.5170,1.5858]$ |  |
|  | $[-2.1050,0.4641]$ | $[-2.2853,0.5590]$ | $[0.5326,1.5032]$ | $[0.5164,1.5491]$ | $[0.4999,1.59688]$ |  |
|  | $[-0.0785,0.8710]$ | $[-0.1168,0.90483]$ | $[-2.48444,0.6921]$ | $[-2.7048,0.8156]$ | $[-2.9496,0.9456]$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 3: Outer interval solutions (results are rounded to four decimal places) obtained using MA, MA1, MA2 and CA methods for Example 3.

In order to assess the accuracy of the obtained enclosures, we use the sharpness measure [28], which is defined for two intervals $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}(\boldsymbol{x} \subseteq \boldsymbol{y})$ as

$$
O_{s}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})= \begin{cases}1, & y^{\Delta}=0  \tag{15}\\ 0, & \boldsymbol{x}=\emptyset \\ \frac{x^{\Delta}}{y^{\Delta}}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

For interval vectors we take minimum and maximum values over all entries.
Table 4 presents the minimal and maximal values of the sharpness measure $O_{s}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$, where $\boldsymbol{x}$ is the $i$-th component of computed interval enclosure and $\boldsymbol{y}$ is the $i$-th component of the inner estimation of the hull (IEH) solution produced by the evolutionary optimization (EO) method [33].

[^1]| $\delta$ | MA | MA1 | MA2 | CA |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | min-max | $\min -\max$ | $\min -\max$ | $\min -\max$ |
| 0.01 | $0.77-0.87$ | $0.77-1.00$ | $0.77-0.99$ | $0.52-0.66$ |
| 0.02 | $0.63-0.86$ | $0.76-1.00$ | $0.76-0.96$ | $0.51-0.66$ |
| 0.03 | $0.62-0.85$ | $0.75-0.99$ | $0.75-0.94$ | $0.50-0.65$ |
| 0.04 | $0.60-0.84$ | $0.60-0.95$ | $0.60-0.84$ | $0.49-0.65$ |
| 0.05 | $0.59-0.83$ | $0.59-0.83$ | $0.59-0.83$ | $0.47-0.65$ |

Table 4: Comparison of accuracy of MA, MA1 and MA2 methods for Example 3: minimal and maximal values of sharpness measure taken over all entries of solution vector.

Example 4. Consider the parametric interval linear system (16), which occurs in worst-case tolerance analysis of linear AC (alternate current) electrical circuits [2, 6, 7, 40]. The circuit depicted in Fig. 2 (cf. Kolev [6]) has eleven branches and five nodes. The goal here is to find bounds for the node voltages $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{5}$. The parameters of the model have the following nominal values:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e_{1}=e_{2}=100 V, e_{5}=e_{7}=10 V \\
& Z_{j}=R_{j}+i X_{j} \in \mathbb{C}, R_{j}=100 \Omega, X_{j}=\omega L_{j}-\frac{1}{\omega C_{j}}, j=1, \ldots, 11 \\
& \omega=50, X_{1,2,5,7}=\omega L_{1,2,5,7}=20, X_{3}=\omega L_{3}=30 \\
& X_{4}=-\frac{1}{\omega C_{4}}=-300, X_{10}=-\frac{1}{\omega C_{10}}=-400, X_{6,8,9,11}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The worst-case tolerance analysis leads to a complex parametric interval linear system [7, 27]

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{Z_{1}}+\frac{1}{Z_{3}}+\frac{1}{Z_{6}} & -\frac{1}{Z_{3}} & 0  \tag{16}\\
-\frac{1}{Z_{3}} & \frac{1}{Z_{2}}+\frac{1}{Z_{3}}+\frac{1}{Z_{4}}+\frac{1}{Z_{5}} & -\frac{1}{Z_{4}}-\frac{1}{Z_{5}} \\
0 & -\frac{1}{Z_{4}}-\frac{1}{Z_{5}} & \frac{1}{Z_{4}}+\frac{1}{Z_{5}}+\frac{1}{Z_{7}}+\frac{1}{Z_{10}} \\
0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{Z_{7}} \\
-\frac{1}{Z_{6}} & 0 & 0 \\
& 0 & -\frac{1}{Z_{6}} \\
& 0 & 0 \\
& -\frac{1}{Z_{7}} & 0 \\
{ }^{2}+\frac{1}{Z_{8}}+\frac{1}{Z_{9}} & -\frac{1}{Z_{9}} \\
& -\frac{1}{Z_{9}} & \frac{1}{Z_{6}}+\frac{1}{Z_{9}}+\frac{1}{Z_{11}}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
V_{1} \\
V_{2} \\
V_{3} \\
V_{4} \\
V_{5}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\frac{e_{1}}{Z_{1}} \\
\frac{e_{2}}{Z_{2}}-\frac{e_{5}}{Z_{5}} \\
\frac{e_{5}}{Z_{5}}+\frac{e_{7}}{Z_{7}} \\
-\frac{e_{7}}{Z_{7}} \\
0
\end{array}\right),
$$

where

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
Z_{1}=Z_{2}=Z_{5}=Z_{7}=100+i 20, & Z_{3}=100+i 30, & Z_{4}=100-i 300 \\
Z_{6}=Z_{8}=Z_{9}=Z_{11}=100, & Z_{10}=100-i 400
\end{array}
$$

We put $p_{j}=1 / Z_{j}$ and we solve the system with tolerances $\pm 5 \%, \pm 10 \%, \pm 15 \%$ and $\pm 20 \%$. The computational times (in seconds) are presented in Table 5 . As can be seen, the MA and MA2 methods have similar computational times, whereas the MA1 method, as expected, is much more expensive.

Table 6 presents the accuracy of the obtained interval enclosures. Similarly as in the previous example, we compare outer interval enclosures with inner estimation of the hull


Figure 2: (Example 4) Linear electrical circuit with five nodes and eleven branches.

| Uncertainty | MA | MA1 | MA2 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $5 \%$ | 0.8 | 2.1 | 0.7 |
| $10 \%$ | 1.1 | 2.6 | 1.0 |
| $15 \%$ | 1.5 | 3.5 | 1.4 |
| $20 \%$ | 2.5 | 5.6 | 2.5 |

Table 5: Computational times (in seconds) for Example 4.

| Uncertainty | MA | MA1 | MA2 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | min-max | min-max | min-max |
| $5 \%$ | $0.96-0.99$ | $0.99-1.00$ | $0.99-1.00$ |
| $10 \%$ | $0.80-0.96$ | $0.83-0.99$ | $0.82-0.98$ |
| $15 \%$ | $0.46-0.81$ | $0.53-0.92$ | $0.53-0.88$ |
| $20 \%$ | $0.28-0.54$ | $0.28-0.54$ | $0.28-0.54$ |

Table 6: Comparison of accuracy MA, MA1 and MA2 methods for Example 4: minimal and maximal values of sharpness measure taken over all entries of interval solution vector.
solution produced by the EO method. Additionally, the interval solution vector obtained for $5 \%$ uncertainty is provided in Table 7.

As can be seen from Table 6, also in this case the MA1 and MA2 methods outperformed the standard approach. The MA2 method produced slightly worse results than the MA1 method, however it turned out to be more efficient.

| Voltage | EO | MA2 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $V_{1}$ | $[64.8265,69.4151]+i[-7.4030,-5.6879]$ | $[64.8259,69.4158]+i[-7.4083,-5.6817]$ |
| $V_{2}$ | $[69.0870,73.5915]+i[-8.7003,-6.4356]$ | $[69.0867,73.5926]+i[-8.7089,-6.4305]$ |
| $V_{3}$ | $[53.3405,58.9868]+i[-13.0941,-9.7543]$ | $[53.3347,58.9913]+i[-13.1005,-9.7474]$ |
| $V_{4}$ | $[22.9180,27.2849]+i[-7.4055,-5.7220]$ | $[22.9166,27.2855]+i[-7.4076,-5.7193]$ |
| $V_{5}$ | $[28.5406,33.0201]+i[-5.0545,-3.7151]$ | $[28.5401,33.0209]+i[-5.0554,-3.7130]$ |

Table 7: Results (rounded to four decimal places) of EO and MA2 methods for $5 \%$ uncertainty; Example 4.

Example 5. Consider the planar steel frame depicted in Fig. 3 with three types of support and external load uniformly distributed along the beam (cf. [17]). Under specific assumptions (cf. [17]), the frame is described by a set of five equilibrium equations for forces and bending


Figure 3: (Example 5) Planar frame (left) and its fundamental system of internal parameters (right) (cf. [17]).
moments (see Fig. 3 (right)) and three canonical equations linking bending moments with material properties of the beams. Similarly as in [17], we assume here that all beams have the same Young modulus $E$, but momentum of inertia $J$ of beam cross-sections are related by the formula $J_{12}=J_{23}=1.5 J_{24}$. Taking this into account, the combination of the equilibrium and canonical equations yields the following system of linear equations for reaction forces and bending moments:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc}
2 l_{12} & l_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
l_{12} & 2 l_{12}+2 l_{23} & -2 l_{23} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -2 l_{23} & 3 l_{24}+2 l_{23} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & l_{12} & l_{12}+l_{24} & 0 & l_{23} \\
-1 & 1 & 0 & -l_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & l_{24} & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
M_{1} \\
M_{21} \\
M_{24} \\
R_{1}^{y} \\
R_{3}^{y} \\
R_{4}^{y} \\
R_{1}^{x} \\
R_{3}^{x}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
-\frac{3}{8} q l_{24}^{3} \\
0 \\
q l_{24} \\
q l_{24}\left(l_{12}+\frac{1}{2} l_{24}\right) \\
0 \\
\frac{1}{2} q l_{24}^{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The lengths of the beams and the load are considered to be uncertain ${ }^{2}$ and vary within intervals: $l_{12}, l_{24} \in[1-\delta, 1+\delta], l_{23} \in 0.75[1-\delta, 1+\delta], q \in 10[1-\delta, 1+\delta]$. The parameters of the frame are given as dimensionless numbers; however it is assumed that the values of the parameters are physically realistic when endowed with appropriate units (cf. [17]). We solve the problem for $\delta=0.5 \%, 1 \%, 5 \%, 10 \%$. The computational times are provided in Table 8.

Table 9 presents the accuracy of the obtained interval enclosures. Similarly as in the previous examples, we compare outer interval enclosures with inner estimation of the hull solution produced by the EO method. Additionally, the results of the EO and MA2 methods for $\delta=1 \%$ are provided in Table 10 .

| $\delta$ | MA | MA1 | MA2 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $0.5 \%$ | 0.11 | 0.17 | 0.09 |
| $1 \%$ | 0.11 | 0.17 | 0.09 |
| $5 \%$ | 0.13 | 0.17 | 0.10 |
| $10 \%$ | 0.14 | 0.19 | 0.12 |

Table 8: Computational times (in seconds) for Example 5.

[^2]| $\delta$ | MA | MA1 | MA2 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | min-max | min-max | min-max |
| $0.5 \%$ | $0.90-1.00$ | $0.90-1.00$ | $0.90-1.00$ |
| $1 \%$ | $0.81-0.99$ | $0.81-0.99$ | $0.81-0.99$ |
| $5 \%$ | $0.47-0.97$ | $0.39-0.97$ | $0.39-0.97$ |
| $10 \%$ | $0.19-0.91$ | $0.19-0.93$ | $0.19-0.93$ |

Table 9: Comparison of outer interval solutions obtained using MA, MA1 and MA2 methods for Example 5: minimal and maximal values of sharpness measure taken over all entries of solution vector.

|  |  | EO |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| $M_{1}$ | $[0.2397,0.2607]$ | $[0.2395,0.2607]$ |
| $M_{21}$ | $[-0.5213,-0.4793]$ | $[-0.5213,-0.4790]$ |
| $M_{24}$ | $[-1.0344,-0.9664]$ | $[-1.0344,-0.9657]$ |
| $R_{1}^{y}$ | $[-0.7899,-0.7119]$ | $[-0.7899,-0.7113]$ |
| $R_{3}^{y}$ | $[6.5905,6.9126]$ | $[6.5872,6.9150]$ |
| $R_{4}^{y}$ | $[3.9204,4.0804]$ | $[3.9179,4.0811]$ |
| $R_{1}^{x}$ | $[-0.7021,-0.6328]$ | $[-0.7085,-0.6227]$ |
| $R_{3}^{x}$ | $[0.6328,0.7021]$ | $[0.6227,0.7085]$ |

Table 10: Results (rounded to four decimal places) of EO and MA2 methods for $\delta=1 \%$; Example 5

## 4 Conclusion

We have proposed in this work two modifications of the monotonicity approach for solving parametric interval linear systems. Based on the obtained results we can conclude that, generally, the MA2 method (which is based on using the $p$-solution) is most recommended. It produces similar results as the MA1 methods, whereas it is computationally much more efficient. In our future work we will try to employ parallel techniques in order to decrease the computational time. Also we will try to combine monotonicity approach with some other methods for solving parametric interval linear systems.

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[^0]:    M. Martel, N. Damouche and J. Alexandre Dit Sandretto (eds.), TNC'18 (Kalpa Publications in Computing, vol. 8), pp. 70-83

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Combinatorial Approach has exponential time complexity, so it can be used to solve small problems only.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ It is assumed that there is no prestressing of the structure due to inexact dimensions of the beams (cf. [17]).

