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► **To cite this version:**

Aixiang Huang. A Simple Approach for Multiple Singular Points. [Research Report] RR-2490, INRIA. 1995. inria-00074185

**HAL Id: inria-00074185**

**<https://hal.inria.fr/inria-00074185>**

Submitted on 24 May 2006

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INSTITUT NATIONAL DE RECHERCHE EN INFORMATIQUE ET AUTOMATIQUE

## *A Simple Approach for Multiple Singular Points*

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**N° RR-2490**

Février 1995

PROGRAMME 6

Calcul scientifique,  
modélisation  
et logiciel numérique



*R*apport  
de recherche

1994





# A Simple Approach for Multiple Singular Points

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Programme 6 — Calcul scientifique, modélisation et logiciel numérique  
Projet Ident

Rapport de recherche n° RR-2490 — Février 1995 — 12 pages

**Abstract:** In this paper, we present a simple approach for determining multiple limit points and multiple bifurcation points.

**Key-words:** bifurcation, limit point, singular points, multiple points

*(Résumé : tsvp)*

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# **Une Approche Simple pour la Détermination de Points Singuliers Multiples**

**Résumé :** Dans cet article, nous présentons une approche simple du problème de la détermination de points limite multiples et de points de bifurcation multiples

**Mots-clé :** bifurcation, point limite, points singuliers, points multiples

# 1 Introduction

We consider a nonlinear functional equation of the form

$$(1) \quad G(u, \lambda) = 0,$$

where  $u$  is an element of some Banach space  $X$  with the norm  $\| \cdot \|$ ,  $\lambda$  is a real parameter, and  $G$  is an operator mapping  $X \times \mathbb{R}$  into some Banach space  $Y$ . It is assumed that a solution  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  is known at which the Frechet derivative of  $G$  with respect to  $u$ , denoted by  $D_u G_0 = D_u G_0(u_0, \lambda_0)$ , is singular. Of course, this is necessary for branching to occur at  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$ .

**Definition 1**  $(u_0, \lambda_0) \in X \times \mathbb{R}$  is called a multiple singular point if

1.  $G(u_0, \lambda_0) = 0$
2.  $D_u G_0$  is singular, 0 is an eigenvalue of  $D_u G_0$  with geometric and algebraic multiplicity  $m$ . There exist  $m$  linearly independent function  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m$ ,  $\| \phi_i \| = 1, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$  such that

$$(2) \quad \begin{aligned} \ker(D_u G_0) &= \text{span} \{ \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m \}, \\ \text{Range}(D_u G_0) &\text{ is closed, } \text{codim Range}(D_u G_0) = m. \end{aligned}$$

Assumption (2) requires  $D_u G_0$  to be a Fredholm operator of index zero. The adjoint or dual operator  $D_u G_0^* : Y^* \rightarrow X^*$  will have, say

$$(3) \quad \ker(D_u G_0^*) = \text{span} \{ \psi_1^*, \psi_2^*, \dots, \psi_m^* \}$$

and then  $\text{Range}(D_u G_0)$  is characterized by

$$\text{Range}(D_u G_0) = \{ y \in Y; \langle \psi_i^*, y \rangle > 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m \}$$

We also choose  $\psi_i^* \in Y^*, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , to satisfy

$$\langle \psi_i^*, \phi_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

where  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  denotes pair product between  $X$  and  $Y^*$ .

**Definition 2** An  $m$ -multiple singular point  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  is called an  $m$ -multiple limit point (LP) if

$$D_\lambda G_0 \equiv D_\lambda G(u_0, \lambda_0) \notin \text{Range}(D_u G_0)$$

and is called an  $m$ -multiple regular bifurcation point (RBP) if

$$(4) \quad D_\lambda G_0 \in \text{Range}(D_u G_0).$$

By virtue of (4) there exist a unique solution  $\phi_0$  of the following equation

$$(5) \quad D_u G_0 \phi_0 + D_\lambda G_0 = 0, \quad \langle \psi_i^*, \phi_0 \rangle = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

For simplicity, in the sequel we introduce the following matrices and vectors :

$$(6) \quad \begin{aligned} A(\xi) &= (A_{ij}(\xi))_{i,j=1,2,\dots,m}, & B &= (b_{ij})_{i,j=1,2,\dots,m}, \\ C &= (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m)^T, & D &= (d_1, d_2, \dots, d_m)^T, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$(7) \quad A_{ij}(\xi) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_{ijk} \xi^k, \quad \xi = (\xi^1, \xi^2, \dots, \xi^m)^T \in R^m,$$

$$a_{ijk} = a_{ikj} = \langle \psi_i^*, D_{uu} G_0 \phi_j \phi_k \rangle,$$

$$b_{ij} = \langle \psi_i^*, D_u D G_0(\phi_0, 1) \phi_j \rangle = \langle \psi_i^*, D_{uu} G_0 \phi_0 \phi_j + D_{u\lambda} G_0 \phi_j \rangle,$$

$$c_i = \langle \psi_i^*, D^2 G_0(\phi_0, 1)^2 \rangle = \langle \psi_i^*, D_{uu} G_0 \phi_0 \phi_0 + 2D_{u\lambda} G_0 \phi_0 + D_{\lambda\lambda} G_0 \rangle,$$

$$d_i = \langle \psi_i^*, D_\lambda G_0 \rangle.$$

## 2 The Bifurcation Equations and the Solution Branch

Assume that  $G(\cdot, \cdot)$  is smooth enough, and there exists a solution arc  $(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon))$  on the branch depending smoothly on some parameter  $\varepsilon$ , i.e.

$$(8) \quad G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon)) = 0, \quad |\varepsilon| \leq \varepsilon_0$$

with  $(u(0), \lambda(0)) = (u_0, \lambda_0)$ . Differentiating (8) twice with respect to  $\varepsilon$  and evaluating at  $\varepsilon = 0$  we get

$$(9) \quad D_u G_0 \dot{u}(0) + D_\lambda G_0 \dot{\lambda}(0) = 0,$$

$$(10) \quad D_u G_0 \ddot{u}(0) + D_\lambda G_0 \ddot{\lambda}(0) = -(D_{uu} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \dot{u}(0) + 2D_{u\lambda} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \dot{\lambda}(0) + D_{\lambda\lambda} G_0 \dot{\lambda}(0) \dot{\lambda}(0)).$$

The general solution of (9) can be written as

$$(11) \quad \dot{u}(0) = \sum_{i=0}^m \xi^i \phi_i,$$

where  $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m\}$  is a basis of  $\ker(D_u G_0)$  and  $\phi_0$  is defined by (5). It is easy to verify that

$$\xi^0 = \dot{\lambda}(0) \begin{cases} = 0 & \text{for } LP \\ \neq 0 & \text{for } RBP. \end{cases}$$

Using (11) and (7), we find that a necessary condition for the existence of a solution  $\ddot{u}(0)$  of (10) is

$$(12) \quad \sum_{j,k=1}^m a_{ijk} \xi^j \xi^k + \eta d_i = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \text{ for } LP,$$

$$(13) \quad \sum_{j,k=1}^m a_{ijk} \xi^j \xi^k + 2 \sum_{j=1}^m b_{ij} \xi^j \xi^0 + c_i \xi^0 \xi^0 = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \text{ for } RBP$$

where  $\eta = \ddot{\lambda}(0)$ . (12) is called the Limit Point Bifurcation Equation and (13) is called the Algebraic Bifurcation Equation.

On the other hand, in view of smoothness of  $G$  there are eigenvalues  $\rho_i(\varepsilon)$  and eigenfunctions  $\phi_i(\varepsilon)$  of  $D_u G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon))$  :

$$(14) \quad D_u G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon)) \phi_i(\varepsilon) = \rho_i(\varepsilon) \phi_i(\varepsilon), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$

with  $\rho_i(0) = 0, \phi_i(0) = \phi_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . Differentiating (14) with respect to  $\varepsilon$  and evaluating at  $\varepsilon = 0$  we obtain

$$(15) \quad D_{uu} G \dot{u}(\varepsilon) \phi_i(\varepsilon) + D_{u\lambda} G \dot{\lambda}(\varepsilon) \phi_i(\varepsilon) + D_u G \dot{\phi}_i(\varepsilon) = \dot{\rho}_i(\varepsilon) \phi_i(\varepsilon) + \rho_i(\varepsilon) \dot{\phi}_i(\varepsilon), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m,$$



$$(16) \quad D_u G_0 \dot{\phi}_0(0) = \begin{cases} -D_{uu} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \phi_j + \dot{\rho}_j(0) \phi_j & \text{for LP} \\ -D_{uu} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \phi_j - D_{u\lambda} G_0 \phi_j \xi^0 + \dot{\rho}_j(0) \phi_j & \text{for RBP} \end{cases}$$

Applying (11) and (7), we derive from (16) that

$$(17) \quad -\sum_{k=1}^m a_{ijk} \xi^k + \dot{\rho}_j(0) \delta_{ij} = 0, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad \text{for LP}$$

$$(18) \quad -\sum_{k=1}^m a_{ijk} \xi^k - b_{ij} \xi^0 + \dot{\rho}_j(0) \delta_{ij} = 0, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad \text{for RBP.}$$

Equations (12), (13) and (17), (18) can be written as :  
for the case of the limit point bifurcation equation

$$(19) \quad A(\xi) \xi + \eta D = 0, \quad \xi^T \xi = 1$$

$$(20) \quad A(\xi) = \text{diag} (\dot{\rho}_1(0), \dot{\rho}_2(0), \dots, \dot{\rho}_m(0)).$$

For the case of the algebraic bifurcation equation

$$(21) \quad A(\xi) \xi + B \xi \xi^0 + C \xi^0 \xi^0 = 0, \quad \xi^T \xi = 1$$

$$(22) \quad A(\xi) + B \xi^0 = \text{diag} (\dot{\rho}_1(0), \dot{\rho}_2(0), \dots, \dot{\rho}_m(0)).$$

In a neighborhood of  $\varepsilon = 0$ , (11) can be written as

$$(23) \quad \dot{u}(\varepsilon) = \sum_{i=0}^m \xi^i(\varepsilon) \phi_i(\varepsilon),$$

$$(24) \quad \eta(\varepsilon) = \ddot{\lambda}(\varepsilon)$$

with

$$(25) \quad \xi^i(0) = \xi^i, \quad \eta(0) = \eta, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m.$$

Now we return to (10).

For the case of LP, let  $v_0 = \ddot{u}(0)$ ;  $v_0$  satisfies

$$(26) \quad \begin{aligned} D_u G_0 v_0 + \eta D_\lambda G_0 &= -D_{uu} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \dot{u}(0), \\ \langle \psi_i^*, v_0 \rangle &= 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m. \end{aligned}$$

For the case of RBP, let  $v_0 = \ddot{u}(0) - \ddot{\lambda}(0)\phi_0$ ;  $v_0$  satisfies

$$(27) \quad \begin{aligned} D_u G_0 v_0 &= -(D_{uu} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \dot{v}(0) + 2D_{u\lambda} G_0 \dot{u}(0) \xi^0 + D_{\lambda\lambda} G_0 \xi^0 \xi^0), \\ \langle \psi_i^*, v_0 \rangle &= 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m. \end{aligned}$$

It is well known that not all roots of the limit point bifurcation equation and the algebraic bifurcation equation can be guaranteed to generate solution arcs, but isolated roots of the limit point bifurcation equation and algebraic bifurcation equation do generate a solution arc through  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$ . On the other hand, the root  $(\xi_0, \eta_0)$  of the limit point bifurcation equation is isolated if and only if its Jacobian matrix

$$(28) \quad J_l(\xi_0) = \begin{pmatrix} 2A(\xi_0) & D \\ \xi_0^T & \eta \end{pmatrix}$$

evaluated at the root is nonsingular, and the root  $(\xi_0, \xi_0^0)$  of the algebraic bifurcation equation is isolated if and only if its Jacobian matrix

$$(29) \quad J_b(\xi_0, \xi_0^0) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} A(\xi_0) + \xi_0^0 B & B\xi_0 + \xi_0^0 C \\ \xi_0^T & \xi_0^0 \end{pmatrix}$$

evaluated at the root is nonsingular.

Precisely, we have the following theorem ([DK80]).

**Theorem 1** *Assume that  $G(u, \lambda)$  is a  $C^k$  mapping from  $X \times R$  into  $Y$ ,  $D_u G_0$  satisfies (2) and  $\{\psi_i^*, i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$  satisfies  $\langle \psi_i^*, \phi_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ . Let  $(\xi_0, \eta_0)$  or  $(\xi_0, \xi_0^0)$  be an isolated root of the limit point bifurcation equation or the algebraic bifurcation equation respectively, and let  $v_0$  be the unique solution of (26) or (27). Then there exist  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$  and unique functions  $(\Phi(\varepsilon), v(\varepsilon), \eta(\varepsilon))$  or  $((\Phi(\varepsilon), v(\varepsilon), \xi^0(\varepsilon)))$  such that :*

*for the limit point bifurcation equation,  $\forall |\varepsilon| \leq \varepsilon_0$*

$$(30) \quad \begin{aligned} G(u_0 + \varepsilon\Phi(\varepsilon) + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 v(\varepsilon), \lambda_0 + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 \eta(\varepsilon)) &= 0, \\ \Phi(\varepsilon) &= \sum_{j=1}^m \xi^j(\varepsilon) \phi_j, \langle \psi_i^*, v(\varepsilon) \rangle = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \end{aligned}$$

for the algebraic bifurcation equation,  $\forall |\varepsilon| \leq \varepsilon_0$

$$(31) \quad \begin{aligned} G(u_0 + \varepsilon\Phi(\varepsilon) + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2v(\varepsilon), \lambda_0 + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2\xi^0(\varepsilon)) &= 0, \\ \Phi(\varepsilon) &= \sum_{j=1}^m \xi^j(\varepsilon)\phi_j, \quad \langle \psi_i^*, v(\varepsilon) \rangle > 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m. \end{aligned}$$

Where the  $\xi(\varepsilon), \eta(\varepsilon), \xi^0(\varepsilon), v(\varepsilon)$  are  $C^{k-2}$  functions of  $\varepsilon$  with

$$\xi(0) = \xi_0, \quad \eta(0) = \eta_0, \quad \xi^0(0) = \xi_0^0, \quad v(0) = v_0$$

### 3 A Simple Approach for the Limit Point and the Regular Bifurcation Point and Isolated Root

Firstly we discuss the relation between isolated roots of the bifurcation equation and the character of the eigenvalues  $\rho_i(\varepsilon), i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Theorem 2**  $(\xi_0, \eta_0 \neq 0)$  is an isolated root of the limit point bifurcation equation if and only if  $\dot{\rho}_i(0) \neq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , where  $\dot{\rho}_i(0)$  defined by (20).

**Proof :** It follows from (20) that

$$(32) \quad \det[A(\xi_0)] = \prod_{i=1}^m |\dot{\rho}_i(0)|$$

on the other hand, the Jacobian matrix  $J_l(\xi_0)$  defined by (28) is nonsingular if and only if

$$A(\xi_0) \text{ is nonsingular}$$

or

$$\eta_0 = 0; \ker(A(\xi_0)) = \text{span} \{\xi_0\}, D \notin \text{Range}(A(\xi_0)).$$

Hence  $(\xi_0, \eta_0 \neq 0)$  is an isolated root of the limit point bifurcation equation if and only if  $A(\xi_0)$  is nonsingular, i.e.  $\dot{\rho}_i(0) \neq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ .

**Theorem 3**  $(\xi_0, \xi_0^0 \neq 0)$  is an isolated root of the algebraic bifurcation equation if and only if  $\dot{\rho}_i(0) \neq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , where  $\dot{\rho}_i(0)$  is defined by (22). ■

**Proof :** It follows from (22) that

$$(33) \quad \det[A(\xi_0) + \xi_0^0 B] = \prod_{i=1}^m |\dot{\rho}_i(0)|.$$

We derive that the Jacobian  $J_b(\xi_0, \xi_0^0)$  defined by (29) is nonsingular if and only if

$$A(\xi_0) + \xi_0^0 B \text{ is nonsingular}$$

or

$$\xi_0^0 = 0, \ker(A(\xi_0)) = \text{span} \{\xi_0\}, B\xi_0 \notin \text{Range}(A(\xi_0)).$$

Therefore  $(\xi_0, \xi_0^0 \neq 0)$  is an isolated root of the algebraic bifurcation equation if and only if  $A(\xi_0) + \xi_0^0 B$  is nonsingular. (33) yields  $\dot{\rho}_i(0) \neq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . ■

By theorems 2 and 3 we obtain

**Theorem 4** Along any solution branch generated by an isolated root of the bifurcation equation the real eigenvalues  $\rho_i(\varepsilon), i = 1, 2, \dots, m$  change sign at  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$ . Furthermore, if  $m$  is odd, then  $\det(D_u G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon)))$  changes sign.

**Proof :** It is easy to derive that a real  $\rho_i(\varepsilon)$  changes sign at  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  because of  $\rho_i(0) = 0$  and theorems 2 and 3. If there exist complex eigenvalues they must appear in conjugate pairs, for example,  $\alpha(\varepsilon) \pm \beta(\varepsilon)i$ . This follows from theorems 2 and 3 and that  $\dot{\rho}_i(0) \neq 0, i.e. \dot{\alpha}(0)\dot{\beta}(0) \neq 0$

1. If a pair of complex eigenvalues are still complex when they pass through  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  then  $|\alpha + i\beta||\alpha - i\beta| = \alpha^2 + \beta^2$ , it is not change sign.

2. If a pair of complex eigenvalues become two real eigenvalues  $\alpha_1(\varepsilon), \alpha_2(\varepsilon)$  when they pass through  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  then  $\beta(0) = 0$  and  $\alpha(0) \neq 0$ . Hence  $\alpha_1(\varepsilon)$  and  $\alpha_2(\varepsilon)$  have the same sign, and the sign of  $\det(D_u G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon)))$  does not change.
3. If a real eigenvalue becomes a pair of complex eigenvalues pass through  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  it is also impossible for the sign of  $\det(D_u G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon)))$  to change.

Because  $m$  is odd, the number of eigenvalues which are still real when they pass through  $(u_0, \lambda_0)$  is odd, hence their product will change sign at  $\varepsilon = 0$ . Therefore,  $\det(D_u G(u(\varepsilon), \lambda(\varepsilon)))$  changes sign at  $\varepsilon = 0$ .

■

## 4 The case of a Simple Singular Point

We consider the case  $m = 1$ . For a simple limit point

$$(34) \quad \begin{aligned} a &\equiv a_{111} = \langle \psi, D_{uu} G_0 \phi \phi \rangle \\ A(\xi) &= a\xi, \quad \xi = \xi^1, \quad \dot{u}(0) = \xi \phi. \end{aligned}$$

Nonsingular of  $A$  implies  $a \neq 0$ . Then (26) becomes

$$(35) \quad D_u G_0 v_0 + \eta D_\lambda G_0 = D_{uu} G_0 \phi \phi \xi,$$

and  $d = \langle \psi^*, D_\lambda G_0 \rangle \neq 0$ . Hence

$$\eta d = -a\xi,$$

i.e.

$$\eta = \ddot{\lambda}(0) = -a\xi/d \neq 0.$$

This means that  $(u, \lambda_0)$  is nondegenerated limit point. So the isolated root of the limit point bifurcation equation is equivalent to the nondegeneration condition for the simple limit point.

For the simple bifurcation point

$$(36) \quad \begin{aligned} a &\equiv a_{111} = \langle \psi^*, D_{uu}G_0\phi\phi \rangle, \\ b &\equiv b_{11} = \langle \psi^*, D_uDG_0(\phi_0, 1)\phi \rangle, \\ c &\equiv c_1 = \langle \psi^*, D^2G_0(\phi_0, 1)(\phi_0, 1) \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The algebraic bifurcation equation becomes

$$(37) \quad \begin{aligned} a\xi^2 + 2b\xi\xi^0 + c\xi^0\xi^0 &= 0, \quad \xi^2 + (\xi^0)^2 = 1, \\ A(\xi) &= a\xi, \quad B = b. \end{aligned}$$

Then  $(\xi_0, \xi_0^0 \neq 0)$  is an isolated root of the algebraic bifurcation equation if and only if

$$(38) \quad a\xi_0 + b\xi_0^0 \neq 0.$$

Setting  $\chi = \frac{\xi_0}{\xi_0^0}$ , then  $\chi$  satisfies (38) and (37), i.e.

$$(39) \quad a\chi + b \neq 0$$

$$(40) \quad a\chi^2 + 2b\chi + c = 0$$

If  $a = 0$ , then  $b \neq 0$ , and  $\chi = -\frac{c}{2b}$  is an isolated root. If  $a \neq 0$ , combining (39) and (40),  $\chi \neq -\frac{b}{a}$  and we have

$$(41) \quad \chi = -\frac{b}{a} \pm \frac{\sqrt{b^2 - ac}}{a}, \quad b^2 - ac \neq 0.$$

Equations (41) show that the algebraic bifurcation equation (37) does not have a multiple root.

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Éditeur  
Inria, Domaine de Voluceau, Rocquencourt, BP 105, 78153 Le Chesnay Cedex (France)  
ISSN 0249- 6399