

## Principal Component Analysis of Modal interval-valued Data with Constant Numerical Characteristics

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**Abstract:** Modal interval-valued data is one of the most important types of symbolic data and each unit of its matrix contains a histogram or a distribution function. In this paper, a new method through Principal Component Analysis of modal interval-valued data is discussed. This Principal Component Analysis (PCA) method aims to reduce the dimensions of a large dataset by reconstructing the covariance matrix. The fundamental elements of the covariance matrix such as mean, variance and the covariance and their definition method is important in Principal Component Analysis. Some of the current researches on Principal Component Analysis of modal interval-valued data have contributions to dimension reduction of modal interval-valued data by transforming the histogram-valued data into interval data. In other existing methods, the definition of mean is in distributive data form and the mean is an average level for all modal-valued data observations. However, data centralization based on the mean defined this way actually obtains the residual distribution. The result of Principal Component Analysis in accordance with the matrix of residual distributions may thus fail to present the essential variation of the original data accordingly. In this paper, we define numerical characteristics of modal interval-valued data as real constants which can make full use of information in histograms. Centralization in terms of constant numerical characteristics is to relocate the modal-valued variances as a whole to get original histograms whose gravity center is settled on the origin. Therefore, the Principal Component Analysis of modal interval-valued data with constant numerical characteristics based on the obtained covariance matrix is proposed. Simulation proves the effectiveness of the proposed method.

**Key words:** Modal interval-valued data; Principal Component Analysis; Constant Numerical Characteristics

### 1 introduction

Symbolic data analysis method is one of the most groundbreaking theoretical achievements in modern statistical data analysis field. Modal interval-valued data is one of the symbolic data types and each unit of a high-dimensional modal interval-valued data matrix contains a histogram or a distribution function.

This paper will focus on PCA of modal interval-valued data. The routine method applied on PCA on modal interval-valued data is transforming it into interval data by a certain transformation method. For instance, Rodriguez O., Diday E., Winsberg S.<sup>[1]</sup> (2000) and Sun Makosso Kallyth, Edwin Diday<sup>[2]</sup> (2010) ; thus it can be analyzed by Principal Component Analysis method of interval-valued data.

A more direct method for histogram PCA was presented by P. Nagabhushan and R. Pradeep Kumar<sup>[3]</sup> (2007). In the paper, they defined unit histogram, null histogram, and the basic arithmetic operations of histogram such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and proposed a histogram PCA. However, means of histogram variables based on the above method is in histogram form, and data centralization obtains the residual histograms consequently. The result of PCA histogram with the matrix of residual histograms may thus fail to represent the essential variation of the original data accordingly.

In this paper, we attempt to explore a new PCA method for modal interval-valued variables. Based on the method of numerical characteristics integral calculation on continuous random variables in probability theory, we firstly define constant numerical characteristics about modal interval-valued data, then implement them for dimension reduction modeling of model interval-valued dataset through PCA. The proposed method not only can make use of complete information in the histogram, but also may give a more reliable conclusion, since data centralization on the basis of the constant numerical characteristics. Furthermore, an approximate method to calculate the linear combination of modal interval-valued variables is given according to the algorithm of univariate histograms theory of histogram-valued data<sup>[4]</sup> (2006) combined with

Moore algebra<sup>[5]</sup> (1962) in interval data analysis. Thus the projecting original modal interval-valued data to principal axes can be realized.

This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 introduces several basic definitions about numerical characteristics of modal interval-valued data and the derivation process and calculation steps of PCA on modal interval-valued data; simulation is conducted in section 3 to validate the effectiveness of the proposed method; the last section gives out the summary.

## 2 Methodology

We consider a  $n \times p$  data matrix  $\mathbf{X}_{n \times p} = (x_{ij})_{n \times p}$ , which is called modal interval-valued data, and whose elements are all random variables that follow a histogram or a distribution function.

Here  $x_{ij} = \{I_{ij}, f_{ij}\}$  means the random variable  $\xi$  defined on the field of definitions  $I_{ij}$  with the density function  $f_{ij}(\xi)$ . For histogram data, the density function of histogram data  $f_{ij}(\xi)$  would be denoted as follows,

$$f_{ij}(\xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{P_{ij}^k}{x_{ij}^{k+1} - x_{ij}^k}, x_{ij}^k \leq \xi < x_{ij}^{k+1} (k = 1, 2, \dots, K_{ij}), \\ 0, \text{else} \end{cases}, i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, p, \quad (1)$$

Subject to:

$$0 \leq p_{ij}^k \leq 1, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{K_{ij}} p_{ij}^k = 1.$$

where  $K_{ij}$  is the number of modalities of  $x_{ij}$ , and  $I_{ij}^k = [x_{ij}^k, x_{ij}^{k+1})$  is the  $j$ th sub-interval of  $I_{ij}$ , which satisfies  $I_{ij} = \bigcup_k I_{ij}^k = [x_{ij}^1, x_{ij}^{K_{ij}+1})$ ,  $p_{ij}^k$  is the frequency of  $I_{ij}^k$ . It is assumed that within each sub-interval  $I_{ij}^k$ , the random variable  $\xi$  is uniformly distributed across the sub-interval. Hence, for histogram data  $x_{ij}$  also can be denoted as follows:

$$x_{ij} = \{I_{ij}, f_{ij}\} = \{\xi \in [x_{ij}^k, x_{ij}^{k+1}), p_{ij}^k, k = 1, \dots, K_{ij}\}, i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, p.$$

### 2.1 The first moment, second moment and second order mixed moment

According to classical probability theory, the first moment, second moment and second order mixed moment of modal-valued variable can be defined as follows:

**Definition 1.** For a modal-valued variable  $\mathbf{X}_j$ , the *first moment* is given by

$$\mu_j = E(\mathbf{X}_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(x_{ij}), \quad (2)$$

Where the first moment of unit  $x_{ij}$  is defined as

$$E(x_{ij}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \xi \cdot f_{ij}(\xi) d\xi = \sum_k \int_{x_{ij}^k}^{x_{ij}^{k+1}} \xi \cdot \frac{p_{ij}^k}{x_{ij}^{k+1} - x_{ij}^k} d\xi = \sum_k \frac{1}{2} p_{ij}^k (x_{ij}^{k+1} + x_{ij}^k), \quad (3)$$

Accordingly, the *centralization* of  $x_{ij}$  is given by

$$y_{ij} = x_{ij} - E(\mathbf{X}_j) = \{\xi \in [x_{ij}^k - E(\mathbf{X}_j), x_{ij}^{k+1} - E(\mathbf{X}_j)), p_{ij}^k, k = 1, \dots, K_{ij}\}, i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, p. \quad (4)$$

**Definition 2.** Given any two modal-valued variables  $\mathbf{X}_j$  and  $\mathbf{X}_k$  ( $j \neq k$ ), the *second order mixed moment* is defined as

$$E(\mathbf{X}_j \cdot \mathbf{X}_k) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(x_{ij} \cdot x_{ik}), \quad (5)$$

Where

$$E(x_{ij} \cdot x_{ik}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \xi \eta \cdot f_{ij}(\xi) f_{ik}(\eta) d\xi d\eta = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \xi \cdot f_{ij}(\xi) d\xi \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \eta \cdot f_{ij}(\eta) d\eta = E(x_{ij}) \cdot E(x_{ik}), \quad (6)$$

Here  $x_{ij}$  and  $x_{ik}$  are supposed to be independent.

**Definition 3.** For any modal-valued variable  $\mathbf{X}_j$ , the *second moment* is defined by

$$E(\mathbf{X}_j^2) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(x_{ij}^2), \tag{7}$$

Where

$$E(x_{ij}^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \xi^2 \cdot f_{ij}(\xi) d\xi = \sum_k \int_{x_{ij}^k}^{x_{ij}^{k+1}} \xi^2 \cdot \frac{p_{ij}^k}{x_{ij}^{k+1} - x_{ij}^k} d\xi = \sum_k \frac{1}{3} p_{ij}^k \left[ (x_{ij}^{k+1})^2 + x_{ij}^{k+1} \cdot x_{ij}^k + (x_{ij}^k)^2 \right]. \tag{8}$$

Therefore the covariance and variance of modal-valued variables  $\mathbf{X}_j, \mathbf{X}_k$  are as follows:

$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_j, \mathbf{X}_k) = E\left((\mathbf{X}_j - E(\mathbf{X}_j))(\mathbf{X}_k - E(\mathbf{X}_k))\right) = E(\mathbf{X}_j \cdot \mathbf{X}_k) - E(\mathbf{X}_j) \cdot E(\mathbf{X}_k), \tag{9}$$

$$D(\mathbf{X}_j) = E\left((\mathbf{X}_j - E(\mathbf{X}_j))^2\right) = E(\mathbf{X}_j^2) - E(\mathbf{X}_j)^2. \tag{10}$$

### 2.2 Linear combination algorithm of modal interval-valued variables

Linear combination algorithm for interval-valued variables has been introduced by Moore(1962), the definition can be expressed as follow:

**Definition 4.** Given  $p$  interval-valued variables  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$ , all with  $n$  observations and real numbers  $a_j \in \mathbb{R} (j=1, 2, \dots, p)$ , each observation can be regarded as a **hypercube**. Define an interval-valued variable  $\mathbf{Y}$  as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$ , viz.

$$\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{j=1}^p a_j \mathbf{X}_j = \left( [\underline{y}_1, \bar{y}_1], [\underline{y}_2, \bar{y}_2], \dots, [\underline{y}_n, \bar{y}_n] \right)', \tag{11}$$

where  $\underline{y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^p a_j [\tau x_{ij} + (1-\tau) \bar{x}_{ij}]$  and  $\bar{y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^p a_j [(1-\tau) x_{ij} + \tau \bar{x}_{ij}]$ , with  $\tau = \begin{cases} 0, & a_j \leq 0 \\ 1, & a_j > 0 \end{cases}$ .

With Definition 4, an algorithm to calculate the linear combination of modal interval-valued variables can be presented. Given  $p$  modal interval-valued variables  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$ , and real numbers  $a_j \in \mathbb{R} (j=1, 2, \dots, p)$ , an modal interval-valued variable  $\mathbf{Y}$  as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$  can be defined as follows,

$$\mathbf{Y} \approx \sum_{j=1}^p a_j \mathbf{X}_j, \tag{12}$$

where  $\mathbf{Y}$  is a histogram vector, each element can be expressed as follows,

$$y_i = \{I'_i, f'_i\} = \{\xi \in [y_i^k, y_i^{k+1}), p_i^{k'}; k=1, 2, \dots, K_i\}, \text{ where } K_i = \max\{K_{ij} | i=1, \dots, n; j=1, \dots, p\}.$$

For the  $ij$  th histogram  $x_{ij}$ , the number of modalities  $K_{ij}$ , each sub-interval has its density function as

$p_{ij}^k, k=1, \dots, K_{ij}$ , thus the  $i$  th observation contains  $\prod_{j=1}^p K_{ij}$  hypercubes in  $p$  dimension space. The density of

each hypercube is the product of the density of corresponding sub-interval and be denoted as  $p'_{iu}$ ,

$u=1, 2, \dots, \prod_{j=1}^p K_{ij}$ . According to formula (11) in Definition 4, calculating linear combination to all the

hypercubes, we can obtain  $I'_{iu}, u=1, 2, \dots, \prod_{j=1}^p K_{ij}$ . Then we can get the maximum and the minimum values of

$I'_{iu}, u=1, 2, \dots, \prod_{j=1}^p K_{ij}$ , denote as  $I'_i$ . The sub-interval  $I_i^{k'} = [y_i^k, y_i^{k+1}), k=1, 2, \dots, K_i$  can be obtained by

dividing  $I'_i$  into  $K_i$  parts. Projecting the above  $I'_{iu}, u=1, 2, \dots, \prod_{j=1}^p K_{ij}$  to  $I_i^{k'}$ , which is denoted as follows.

$$p_i^{k'} = \sum_u p'_{iu} \frac{\|I'_{iu} \cap I_i^{k'}\|}{\|I'_{iu}\|}, u=1, 2, \dots, \prod_{j=1}^p K_{ij}. \tag{13}$$

According to the above mentioned steps, we can get the linear combination of all variables in the  $i$  th

histogram observation.

### 2.3 The Algorithm

For convenience, suppose the modal interval-valued vectors are all centralized. With the above definitions, we begin to derive the Principal Component Analysis method for modal interval-valued data. Similar to the numeric case, the  $k$ th modal interval-valued data PC  $\mathbf{Y}_k (k=1,2,\dots,p)$  is a linear combination of  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{Y}_k = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{u}_k = \sum_{j=1}^p u_{kj} \mathbf{X}_j$ , where  $u_{kj} \in \mathbb{R} (j=1,2,\dots,p)$ , with the constraints of  $\|\mathbf{u}_k\|=1$  and  $\mathbf{u}'_k \mathbf{u}_l = 0 (l=1,2,\dots,p, l \neq k)$ . Also, the first  $m$  principal components  $\mathbf{Y}_1, \mathbf{Y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_p$  must maximize total variance to represent the original information carried by  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$ . According to definitions proposed above, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(\mathbf{Y}_k) &= E(\mathbf{Y}_k^2) \\
 &= E\left(\left(u_{k1}\mathbf{X}_1 + u_{k2}\mathbf{X}_2 + \dots + u_{kp}\mathbf{X}_p\right)^2\right) \\
 &= (u_{k1}, u_{k2}, \dots, u_{kp}) \begin{pmatrix} E(\mathbf{X}_1^2) & E(\mathbf{X}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_2) & \dots & E(\mathbf{X}_1 \cdot \mathbf{X}_p) \\ E(\mathbf{X}_2 \cdot \mathbf{X}_1) & E(\mathbf{X}_2^2) & \dots & E(\mathbf{X}_2 \cdot \mathbf{X}_p) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ E(\mathbf{X}_p \cdot \mathbf{X}_1) & E(\mathbf{X}_p \cdot \mathbf{X}_2) & \dots & E(\mathbf{X}_p^2) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{k1} \\ u_{k2} \\ \vdots \\ u_{kp} \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \mathbf{u}'_k \mathbf{V} \mathbf{u}_k,
 \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

where  $\mathbf{V}$  represents the covariance matrix of  $\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_p$ .

The following derivation is the same with the classical PCA that for numeric data, i.e., looking for  $m$  orthogonalised vectors  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$  to achieve maximization of  $\sum_{k=1}^p D(\mathbf{Y}_k)$  with  $D(\mathbf{Y}_1) \geq D(\mathbf{Y}_2) \geq \dots \geq D(\mathbf{Y}_p)$  by solving equations of  $\mathbf{V}\mathbf{u}_p = \lambda_p \mathbf{u}_p (1 \leq k \leq p)$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$  are the orthonormal eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{V}$ , corresponding to the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_p$ . By algorithm of linear combination of modal-valued variables, see formula (12), we finally get the  $k$ th modal-valued PC  $\mathbf{Y}_k = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{u}_k$ .

### 3 Experimental Results of Synthetic Data Sets

This section we conduct a comparison between PCA of modal interval-valued data and PCA of numeric data. The histogram dataset will be generated in Monte-Carlo simulation method. And the numeric dataset corresponding to this histogram dataset will be obtained by differentiating  $I_{ij}$ , the field of definitions of the histogram. The comparison will focus on the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix of histogram dataset and numeric dataset. It'll be concluded that the eigenvalues and eigenvectors are similar for the two types of data. The calculation results of numeric dataset tend to the histogram dataset's results when the number of differentiation in  $I_{ij}$  becomes lager.

#### 3.1. Dataset

##### 3.1.1 Histogram dataset

We implement Monte-Carlo simulation method to generate a  $50 \times 4$  histogram dataset. For generality, we take all the number of modalities as three. Therefore, the  $ij$  histogram  $x_{ij} = \{I_{ij}, f_{ij}\}$  can be generated randomly by the two steps as follows.

- 1) Define the generation method of field of definitions: generate the center  $x_{ij}^C \sim U[-5,5]$  randomly and the radius  $x_{ij}^R \sim U[1,10]$ , thus we can get the interval of histogram  $I_{ij} = [x_{ij}^C - x_{ij}^R, x_{ij}^C + x_{ij}^R]$  and divide the interval  $I_{ij}$  equally into three parts, we obtain  $I_{ij}^k = [x_{ij}^k, x_{ij}^{k+1}), k = 1, \dots, 3$ .
- 2) Define the generation method of density(frequency) function: generate three data  $q_{ij}^1, q_{ij}^2, q_{ij}^3$ , where

$q_{ij}^k \sim U[0,1], k=1,2,3$ , then orthogonalize the data as follows:

$$Q_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^3 q_{ij}^k, \quad p_{ij}^k = q_{ij}^k / Q_{ij}, k=1,2,3.$$

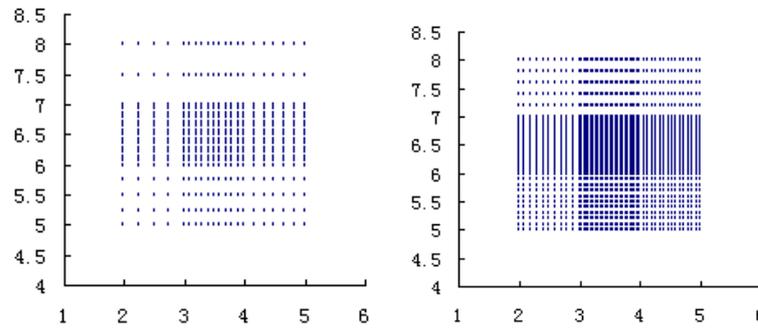
Meantime, it satisfies the constraint  $\sum_{k=1}^3 p_{ij}^k = 1$  and we can get the density function of the  $ij$  th histogram in the dataset.

### 3.1.2 Numeric dataset

When we get the histogram dataset, for each histogram we get a numeric dataset by differentiating the field of definitions. That is for each histogram  $x_{ij} = \{I_{ij}, f_{ij}\}$ , to choose  $m$  positive integer numbers in the field of definition interval  $I_{ij}$  with dividing the  $k$ th sub-interval equally into  $m \cdot p_{ij}^k (k=1, \dots, K)$  parts, therefore the numeric dataset bide by approximately to the distribution of  $x_{ij}$ . We call  $m$  as the number of differentiation. The larger of the number of differentiation, the more similar of numeric dataset to the histogram. For example, for two dimension histogram,

$$(x, y) = (\{[2,3], 0.2; [3,4], 0.5; [4,5], 0.3\}, \{[5,6], 0.2; [6,7], 0.7; [7,8], 0.1\})$$

Fig1 shows the conditions of  $m=20$  and  $m=50$  respectively. In the left chart there are 441 points while there are 2601 in the right chart.



**Fig1. The diagram of numeric dataset with the conditions of  $m=20$  and  $m=50$**

Therefore, a  $p$  dimension histogram is expanded into a  $(m+1)^p$  numeric dataset, on which classical multivariate analysis can be performed. It proves the method proposed in this paper is reasonable, if the calculation results obtained by PCA tend to the histogram dataset’s while the number of differentiation is increasing

### 3.2 The simulation result of PCA of histogram data

For the  $50 \times 4$  histogram dataset generated above, we calculate its eigenvalues and eigenvectors of its covariance matrix by PCA method; the eigenvalues are sorted descending as follows:

$$\lambda_1^* = 23.5362; \lambda_2^* = 20.4752; \lambda_3^* = 19.3498; \lambda_4^* = 15.0953.$$

And the corresponding eigenvectors are showed in table 1.

**Table 1. Eigenvectors of corresponding eigenvalue**

$\mathbf{u}_1^*$	$\mathbf{u}_2^*$	$\mathbf{u}_3^*$	$\mathbf{u}_4^*$
-0.6325	0.6589	-0.1626	0.3734
0.1177	0.4471	-0.4286	-0.7763
0.6725	0.2391	-0.4836	0.5067
0.3659	0.5557	0.7456	-0.0362

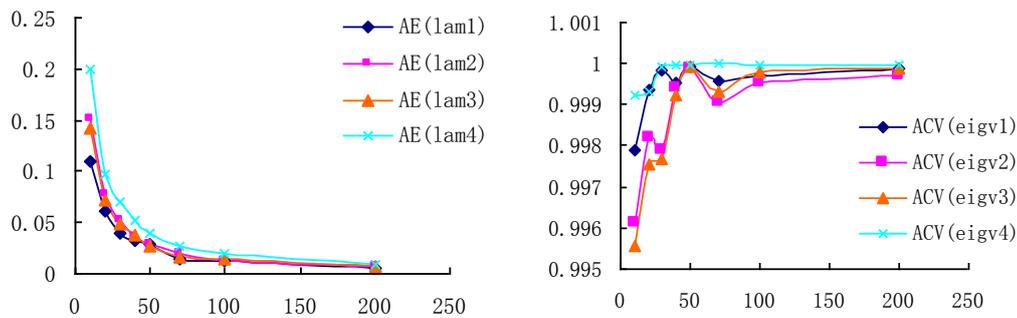
In the following part, we compare the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of histogram data and numeric data. Assume the number of differentiations are 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 70, 100 and 200, we calculated the eigenvalues  $\lambda_2^m$  and eigenvectors  $\mathbf{u}_j^m j=1,2, \dots, 4; m=10,20,30,40,50,70,100,200$ . For the eigenvalues, we take Absolute Error to compare the both, i.e.:

$$AE(\lambda_j, m) = |\lambda_j^m - \lambda_j^*|, j=1, \dots, 4; m=10,20,30,40,50,70,100,200.$$

For the eigenvectors, we take the Absolute Cosine Value, which is defined as follows:

$$ACV_j^m = \left| \frac{\mathbf{u}_j^{*t} \mathbf{u}_j^m}{\|\mathbf{u}_j^*\| \cdot \|\mathbf{u}_j^m\|} \right|, \quad m = 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 70, 100, 200, j = 1, \dots, 4$$

The horizontal axis in Fig2 denotes the number of differentiation. In the left chart of Fig2 the curves show the AE changes while the number of differentiation is increasing, we can see the AE is getting smaller while the number of differentiation is on the increase. The vertical axis of the right chart denotes  $ACV_j^m$ , the results shows the absolute error of  $ACV_j^m$  converges to 1 while the number of differentiation is increasing which illustrates the angle between the two compared vectors converges to 0. The obtained components are more alike when the similarity is high.



**Fig2. The AE of eigenvalues and ACE of eigenvectors**

Finally, we contrast the sample distribution of first principle component of numeric data and histogram data. The first principle component of histogram data is obtained by the linear combination of histogram as section 2.2, while the first principle component of numeric data is calculated the empirical distribution frequency. For saving computation, we take  $m=10$ , the sample size of number dataset is  $(10+1)^4 \times 50$ . Then the results of Two Independent Samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov test from the 50 samples show that both distributions are consistent.

#### 4 Conclusion

This paper proposed a new PCA method based on numeric characteristic constant type for modal interval-valued variables, which is drawn on the method of numerical characteristics integral calculation on continuous random variables in probability theory, In the process of computation, the method not only adopts the complete information of histogram, but also make the characteristic analysis clear and the result is reasonable and precise. The simulation proves the rationality and effectiveness of the method.

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