Why Taylor models and modified Taylor models are empirically successful: A symmetry-based explanation

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Abstract

In this paper, we show that symmetry-based ideas can explain the empirical success of Taylor models and modified Taylor models in representing uncertainty.

Keywords: Taylor models, Modified Taylor models, symmetries

1 Taylor Models and Modified Taylor Models: A Brief Reminder

General problem: reminder. In many practical situations:

- we know the equations that describe how desired quantities change with time (and space), and
- we want to use this knowledge to find the values of the desired quantities at different moments of time, at different locations, and for different values of the corresponding actions.

For example:

- we want to know how the location of a spaceship at time t depends on t and on the parameters of the launch: time, coordinates, orientation, etc.;
- another example is particle accelerators, in which particles move in a reasonable narrow tube with speeds close to the speed of light: we want to be able to predict the location of a particle beam at different moments of time for different values of the corresponding parameters.

In all these cases, we want to know the dependence of each desired quantity y on quantities $x_1, \ldots, x_n$.

Often, we want guaranteed bounds. There are many numerical computation techniques for computing the desired dependence. However, numerical computations usually lead to an approximate description of the actual dependence: $y_{\text{approx}}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \approx y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$.

In many real-life problems, it is important to provide not only an approximate value of y for given $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, but guaranteed bounds on this value, i.e., values $\underline{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and $\overline{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ for which

$$\underline{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \le y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \le \overline{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

- This is important in space exploration: we want to make sure that the spaceship does not collide with anything and reaches its target within desired accuracy.
- This is important for particle accelerators: we want to make sure that the particle beam does not self-destruct by hitting the tube walls and instead, reaches the desired target.

Taylor models. In many real-life problems, the deviations from nominal values are small, so small that we can safely ignore terms which are quadratic or of higher order in terms of these deviations. In such situations, we can expand the desired dependence in Taylor series and keep only linear terms in this expansion. Hence linearization is one of the main tools in practical physics; see, e.g., [5].

To get a more accurate result, one can take into account quadratic terms. An even more accurate result emerges if we take into account cubic an higher order terms. In general, we take the sum of the first few terms in Taylor series and thus get a polynomial $P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, i.e., a linear combination of monomials

$$P(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \sum c_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot x_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n}.$$

A natural way to transform this approximate model into a guaranteed model is to supplement the approximate polynomial $P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ with a guaranteed upper bound Δ on the absolute value of the approximation error $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) - P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$:

$$|y(x_1, \ldots, y_n) - P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)| \le \Delta.$$

Once we know this upper bound, we can conclude that for each combination of values $x_1, \ldots, x_n$, we have

$$y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in P(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + [-\Delta, \Delta] = \sum c_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot x_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n} + [-\Delta, \Delta]. \quad (1)$$

The right-hand side of this inclusion is known as a *Taylor model*.

Taylor models has indeed been successfully used in many important applications; see, e.g., [1–3, 7, 8, 10].

Comment. The term "Taylor model" may be somewhat misleading: this term does not necessarily mean that the values $c_{i_1 \ldots i_n}$ are the coefficients of the Taylor expansion of the original function $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, it simply means that to approximate the original function, we use a polynomial $P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ – e.g., a Chebyshev polynomial – as opposed to approximating the function by, e.g., a rational expression.

Taylor models and uncertainty. In some cases, we know the exact dependence $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. This happens, e.g., in situations described by fundamental physics, when we know the exact equations. However, in many other cases, we only have an approximate model $\widetilde{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ for the desired dependence. In many such cases, we know the upper bound δ on the approximation error:

$$|\widetilde{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) - y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)| \le \delta.$$

In this case, if we have a polynomial $P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ that approximates the model $\widetilde{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ with accuracy δ', so that $|\widetilde{y}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) - P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)| \le \delta'$, then we have

$$|y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) - P(x_1, \ldots, x_n| \le \Delta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \delta + \delta',$$

i.e., we have $y(x_1 \ldots, x_n) \in P(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + [-\Delta, \Delta]$.

Comment. In addition to uncertainty about the dependence $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, we often also have uncertainty about the values of the quantities $x_1, \ldots, x_n$. Indeed, these values usually come from measurements, and measurements are practically never absolutely accurate: the measurement results $\widetilde{x}_i$ are, in general, different from the actual (unknown) values of the corresponding quantities x_i. In many cases, the only information that we have about the measurement errors $\Delta x_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \widetilde{x}_i - x_i$ are the upper bounds Δ_i on the measurement error's absolute value: $|\Delta x_i| \le \Delta_i$. In such cases, once we have the measurement results $\widetilde{x}_i$, the only information that we have about each actual value x_i is that x_i belongs to the interval $[\widetilde{x}_i - \Delta_i, \widetilde{x}_i + \Delta_i]$. In such situations, we need to find the range of the expression (1) when x_i takes values from these intervals.

Modified Taylor models. In the traditional Taylor model, we use a single upper bound Δ to describe the approximation error for all possible combinations of the values x_i. In many practical cases, however, the approximation error depends on the values x_i. For example, when we predict a trajectory, usually,

- the predictions are very accurate for small t,
- but become less and less accurate as the time t increases.

To get a better description of the model's accuracy, it is therefore desirable to take into account that the approximation error may depend on x_i.

One successful way to take this dependence into account was proposed in [4] under the name of *modified Taylor models*. In this description, each coefficient $c_{i_1, \ldots, i_n}$ is an interval:

$$y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \sum [\underline{c}_{i_1 \ldots i_n}, \overline{c}_{i_1, \ldots, i_n}] \cdot x_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n}. \quad (2)$$

Comments.

- The meaning of the formula (2) is that for each combination of the values $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ there exist values $c_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \in [\underline{c}_{i_1 \ldots i_n}, \overline{c}_{i_1 \ldots i_n}]$ for which

$$y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \sum c_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot x_i^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n}.$$

- Models (2) also describe situations when we do not know the exact dependence $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$; in this case, different values of the coefficients $c_{i_1,\ldots,i_n}$ correspond to different possible dependency functions.

Why Taylor models? In the above text, we explained how Taylor series naturally appear if we consider more and more accurate polynomial approximations of the actual dependence $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. The possibility to use polynomials comes from the known fact that any continuous function on a bounded domain can be, with any given accuracy, approximated by a polynomial.

However, many others families of functions have the same universal approximation property: rational functions, finite trigonometric series, functions corresponding to neural networks, etc. Several such approximate models have been used to approximate a real-life dependence, and in many practical cases, it turned out that Taylor models work the best – either they provide better accuracy within the same computation time, or faster computations for the same accuracy. For example, in particle accelerator design, Taylor modes turned to be the most efficient computational tool among the tools that have been tried.

This empirical fact natural leads to the first question that we will study in this paper: How can we explain this empirical fact? Why do Taylor series approximation turn out to be among the most empirically efficient?

Why modified Taylor models. The second question is related to the fact that, once we have selected the Taylor model, there are many ways to take into account uncertainty. In coming up with the formula (2), we represented the original polynomial as a linear combination of monomials, and allowed the coefficients at these monomials to vary within the appropriate intervals. Alternatively, we could select another non-monomial basis in the space of all polynomials, and allow coefficient corresponding to this basis to vary within some intervals. This will lead to a different family of approximating functions.

Empirical comparison [4] shows that in many practical situations, the formula (2) works better than formulas based on other bases: the formula (2) either leads to a better accuracy for the same computation time, or to faster computations if we fix the desired accuracy. So why is formula (2) empirically efficient?

What is known and what we do in this paper. A symmetry-based explanation of why Taylor models are efficient have been proposed in [9]. In this paper, we:

- first, use techniques from [6] to prove a stronger version of that result – thus providing a new justification for Taylor models, and
- then, extend this new result to a justification of the modified Taylor models.

This provides a theoretical explanation of why Taylor models work, and why modified Taylor models (2) are empirically successful.

2 Why Taylor Models: A New Justification

Towards formalization of the problem: we need to select a vector space. We want to select a family of functions $\mathcal{F}$, so that the results of our prediction have a form $y(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + [-\Delta, \Delta]$ for some function $F \in \mathcal{F}$.

In the computer, the only directly hardware supported operations on real numbers are arithmetic operations. Programming languages also use elementary functions like sine, but inside the computer, all these functions are implemented via a sequence of arithmetic operations. In this sense, all computations on a computer reduce to a sequence of arithmetic operations.

Sometimes this sequence is explicit, sometimes it is hidden if we only consider the code in a high-level language, but it becomes clear if we take into account how the non-arithmetic mathematical functions are implemented.

Any function that is obtained by a sequence of arithmetic operations is *analytical*, i.e., it can be expanded into Taylor series. Thus, it is reasonable to restrict ourselves to analytical functions F.

We want to be able to represent functions from the class $\mathcal{F}$ inside a computer. Inside a computer, we can only represent a finite number of parameters, so it makes sense to consider *finite-dimensional* families of functions.

It would be useful to select the family $\mathcal{F}$ in such a way that an application of any arithmetic operation $\odot$ does not lead to additional approximation error. In other words, ideally, we would like to select $\mathcal{F}$ in such a way that, if two intermediate results r and s belong exactly to $\mathcal{F}$, then $r \odot s$ should also belong to $\mathcal{F}$. However, if we require that, then, since

- we start with variables and
- the family is closed under addition and multiplication,

we will end up with arbitrary polynomials, which contradicts to $\mathcal{F}$ being finite-dimensional. So, we cannot require that the family $\mathcal{F}$ be closed under all arithmetic operations:

- since we cannot require that for *all* operations,
- we should at least require it for the *simplest* ones: $+$, $-$, and multiplication by a real number λ.

In other words, we require that if $F \in \mathcal{F}$ and $G \in \mathcal{F}$, then $F + G \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\lambda \cdot F \in \mathcal{F}$. So, the family $\mathcal{F}$ is a (finite-dimensional) *vector space* of functions.

We should select the optimal vector space. There are many possible vector spaces of functions. The question is: which of these vector spaces is the best ("optimal") for our purpose?

When we say "the best", we mean that on the set of all such spaces, there is a relation $\succeq$ describing which family is better or equal in quality. This relation must be transitive (if $\mathcal{F}$ is better than $\mathcal{G}$, and $\mathcal{G}$ is better than $\mathcal{H}$, then $\mathcal{F}$ is better than $\mathcal{H}$).

This relation must also clearly be *reflexive*: $\mathcal{F} \succeq \mathcal{F}$ for every family $\mathcal{F}$.

This relation is not necessarily asymmetric, because we can have two families of the same quality. However, we would like to require that this relation be *final* in the sense that it should define a unique *best* family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$, for which $\forall \mathcal{G}\, (\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt} \succeq \mathcal{G})$. Indeed:

- if none of the families is the best,
- then this criterion is of no use.

So, there should be *at least one* optimal family. Similarly:

- if *several* different families are equally best,
- then we can use this ambiguity to optimize something else.

For example:

- if we have two families with the same approximating quality,
- then we can choose the one which is easier to compute.

As a result, the original criterion was not final: we obtain a new criterion: $\mathcal{F} \succeq_{\rm new} \mathcal{G}$, if:

- either $\mathcal{F}$ gives a better approximation,
- or $\mathcal{F} \sim_{\rm old} \mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{F}$ is easier to compute.

For this new optimality criterion, the class of optimal families is narrower.

We can repeat this procedure until we obtain a final criterion for which there is only one optimal family.

Scale invariance. The numerical value of each quantity x_i depends on the choice of the measuring unit. If instead of the original measuring unit, we choose a new one which is λ_i times smaller, then all numerical values are multiplied by λ_i: $x_i \to x_i' = \lambda_i \cdot x_i$. For example:

- if to measure height, we use centimeters instead of meters,
- then all numerical values of height are multiplied by 100: e.g., 2 m becomes 200 cm.

It is reasonable to require that the relative quality of two families should not change if we simply apply such re-scaling to one of the variables x_i.

Thus, we arrive at the following definition.

Definition 1. *Let $n > 0$ and $N > 0$ be integers.*

- *By a* N-dimensional family*, we mean a family $\mathcal{F}$ of all functions of the type*

$$\{C_1 \cdot F_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots + C_N \cdot F_N(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\},$$

where $F_1, \ldots, F_N$ are given analytical functions, and $C_1, \ldots, C_N$ are arbitrary (real) constants.

- *By an* optimality criterion*, we mean a transitive reflexive relation $\succeq$ on the set of all N-dimensional families.*
- *We say that a criterion is* final *if there exists one and only one optimal family, i.e., family $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$ for which $\forall \mathcal{G}\, (\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}} \succeq \mathcal{G})$.*
- *For every transformation $T = \lambda \cdot x$ $(\lambda > 0)$, and for every i, we define*

$$(T_i(F))(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} F(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}, T(x_i), x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n),$$

and $T_i(\mathcal{F}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{T_i(F) \,|\, F \in \mathcal{F}\}$.

- *We say that a criterion $\succeq$ is* scale-*invariant if for every two families $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$, for every i, and for every linear function $T(x) = \lambda \cdot x$, $\mathcal{F} \succeq \mathcal{G}$ implies $T_i(\mathcal{F}) \succeq T_i(\mathcal{G})$.*

Proposition 1. *Let $\succeq$ be a final scale-invariant optimality criterion on the set of all families. Then, every function F from the optimal family $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$ is a polynomial.*

Comments.

- This result justifies the Taylor models.
- This result is stronger than the result from [9], since there, we also required that the optimality criterion be invariant if we change the starting point for measuring x_i.

Proof.

1°. Let us first prove that the optimal family $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$ is itself scale-invariant, i.e., that for every rescaling T and for every i, we have $T_i(\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}) = \mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$.

Indeed, let T and i be given. Since $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$ is optimal, for every other family $\mathcal{G}$, we have $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}} \succeq T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{G})$ (where T_i^{-1} means the inverse transformation). Since the optimality criterion $\succeq$ is invariant, we conclude that $T_i(\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}) \succeq T_i(T_i^{-1}(\mathcal{G})) = \mathcal{G}$. Since this is true for every family $\mathcal{G}$, the family $T_i(\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}})$ is also optimal. But since our criterion is final, there is only one optimal family and therefore, $T_i(\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}) = \mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$.

2°. Since the family $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$ is scale-invariant, in particular, it means that for every function $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ from this family, and for every $\lambda > 0$, the function

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} F(\lambda \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda \cdot x_n)$$

also belongs to the optimal family.

3°. Let us now take any function $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ from the optimal family $\mathcal{F}_{\text{opt}}$ and prove that this function is a polynomial.

The family consists of analytical functions, thus the selected function $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is also analytical.

By definition, an analytical function $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is an infinite series consisting of monomials $m(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ of the type

$$a_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot x_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n}.$$

For each such term, by its *total order*, we will understand the sum $i_1 + \ldots + i_n$. The meaning of this total order is simple: if we multiply each input of this monomial by λ, then the value of the monomial is multiplied by λ^k:

$$m(\lambda \cdot x_1, \ldots \lambda \cdot x_n) = a_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot (\lambda \cdot x_1)^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot (\lambda \cdot x_n)^{i_n} =$$
$$\lambda^{i_1 + \ldots + i_n} \cdot a_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot x_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n} = \lambda^k \cdot m(x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

For each order k, there are finitely many possible combinations of integers $i_1, \ldots, i_n$ for which $i_1 + \ldots + i_n = k$, so there are finitely many possible monomials of this order. Let $P_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ denote the sum of all the monomials of order k from the series describing the function $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. Then, we have

$$F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = P_0 + P_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + P_2(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots$$

Some of these terms may be zeros – if the original expansion has no monomials of the corresponding order. Let k_0 be the first index for which the term $P_{k_0}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is not identically 0. Then,

$$F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = P_{k_0}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + P_{k_0+1}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots$$

Since the family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ is scale-invariant, it also contains the function

$$F_\lambda(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=F(\lambda\cdot x_1,\ldots,\lambda\cdot x_n).$$

At this re-scaling, each term P_k is multiplied by λ^k; thus, we get

$$F_\lambda(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\lambda^{k_0}\cdot P_{k_0}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)+\lambda^{k_0+1}\cdot P_{k_0+1}(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)+\ldots$$

Since $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ is a linear space, it also contains a function

$$\lambda^{-k_0}\cdot F_\lambda(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=P_{k_0}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)+\lambda\cdot P_{k_0+1}(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)+\ldots$$

Since $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ is finite-dimensional, it is closed under turning to a limit. In the limit $\lambda\to 0$, we conclude that the term $P_{k_0}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ also belongs to the family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$.

Since $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ is a linear space, this means that the difference

$$F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)-P_{k_0}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=$$

$$P_{k_0+1}(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)+P_{k_0+2}(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_n)+\ldots$$

also belongs to $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$. If we denote, by k_1, the first index $k_1>k_0$ for which the term $P_{k_1}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ is not identically 0, then we can similarly conclude that this term $P_{k_1}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ also belongs to the family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$, etc.

We can therefore conclude that for every index k for which term $P_k(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ is not identically 0, this term $P_k(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ also belongs to the family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$.

Monomials of different total order are linearly independent. Thus, if there were infinitely many non-zero terms P_k in the expansion of the function $F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$, we would have infinitely many linearly independent functions in the family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ – which contradicts to our assumption that the family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ is a finite-dimensional linear space.

So, in the expansion of the function $F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$, there are only finitely many non-zero terms. Hence, the function $F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ is a sum of finitely many monomials – i.e., a polynomial.

The proposition is proven.

Comment. As we can see form the proof, to show that every function from the optimal family is a polynomial, we do not even need to use scale-invariance with respect to each of the variables: it is sufficient to require that the optimality criterion is invariant with respect to a simultaneous re-scaling of all the variables:

$$x_1\to\lambda\cdot x_1,\ldots,x_n\to\lambda\cdot x_n.$$

3 Why Modified Taylor Models: A Justification

Discussion. In the original Taylor model, coefficients at the unknown functions were real numbers. The main idea behind modified Taylor models is that we can have interval-valued coefficients. Thus, we arrive at the following definition.

Definition 2. *Let $n>0$, $N>0$, and $M>0$ be integers.*

- *By a* (N,M)-family, *we mean a family $\mathcal{F}$ of all interval-valued functions of the type*

$$\{C_1\cdot F_1(x_1,\ldots,x_n)+\ldots+C_N\cdot F_N(x_1,\ldots,x_n)+$$

$$\mathbf{C}_1\cdot G_1(x_1,\ldots,x_n)+\ldots+\mathbf{C}_M\cdot G_M(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\},$$

  where $F_1,\ldots,F_N$ and $G_1,\ldots,G_M$ are given analytical functions, $C_1,\ldots,C_N$ are arbitrary (real) constants, and $\mathbf{C}_k=[\underline{C}_k,\overline{C}_k]$ are arbitrary intervals.

- *By an* optimality criterion, *we mean a transitive reflexive relation $\succeq$ on the set of all (N,M)-families.*

- *We say that a criterion is* final *if there exists one and only one optimal family, i.e., family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ for which $\forall\mathcal{G}\,(\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}\succeq\mathcal{G})$.*

- *For every transformation $T=\lambda\cdot x$ $(\lambda>0)$, and for every i, we define*

$$(T_i(F))(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\stackrel{\rm def}{=}F(x_1,\ldots,x_{i-1},T(x_i),x_{i+1},\ldots,x_n),$$

  and $T_i(\mathcal{F})\stackrel{\rm def}{=}\{T_i(F)\,|\,F\in\mathcal{F}\}$.

- *We say that a criterion $\succeq$ is* scale-*invariant if for every two families $\mathcal{F}$ and $\mathcal{G}$, for every i, and for every linear function $T(x) = \lambda \cdot x$, $\mathcal{F} \succeq \mathcal{G}$ implies $T_i(\mathcal{F}) \succeq T_i(\mathcal{G})$.*

Proposition 2. *Let $\succeq$ be a final scale-invariant optimality criterion on the set of all families. Then, every function F from the optimal family $\mathcal{F}_{\rm opt}$ is a sum of finitely many monomials with interval coefficients.*

Comment. This result justifies the modified Taylor models.

Proof.

1°. First let us notice that each interval $[\underline{C}_k, \overline{C}_k]$ can be represented as $\underline{C}_k + [0, W_i k]$, where $W_k \stackrel{\rm def}{=} \overline{C}_k - \underline{C}_k$ is the width of the k-th interval. Substituting this expression into the general formula for a family, we conclude that each interval-valued function from the family is a linear combination of:

- real-valued functions F_j and G_k and
- functions G_k multiplied by an interval $[0, W_k]$.

Thus, without losing generality, we can safely assume that in each interval $\mathbf{C}_k$, the lower endpoint is 0, i.e., that each such interval has the form $[0, W_k]$ for some $W_k \geq 0$.

2°. Similarly to the proof of Proposition 1, we can prove that the optimal family is scale-invariant, i.e., remains unchanged if we re-scale each variable $x_i \to \lambda_i \cdot x_i$.

In other words, for each interval-valued function from the optimal family,

- if we re-scale all the variables,
- we get an interval-valued function from the same family – but probably corresponding to different coefficients C'_k and W'_k.

So, the re-scaled interval-valued function

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) +$$

$$[0, W_1] \cdot \cdot G_1(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n) + \ldots + [0, W_M] \cdot G_M(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n),$$

where

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \stackrel{\rm def}{=} C_1 \cdot F_1(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n) + \ldots + C_N \cdot F_N(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n),$$

coincides with the interval-valued function

$$F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + [0, W'_1] \cdot G_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots + [0, W'_M] \cdot G_M(x_1, \ldots, x_n),$$

where

$$F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \stackrel{\rm def}{=} C'_1 \cdot F_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots + C'_N \cdot F_N(x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

Each interval-valued function is a convex set in the class of all functions, obtained by taking all possible values $w_k \in [0, W_k]$.

Since the convex sets coincide, this means that their sets of extreme points should also coincide. These extreme points correspond to extreme values 0 and W_k of the parameters $w_k \in [0, W_k]$. Thus, for the re-scaled family, they are:

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W_1 \cdot G_1(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n), \ldots,$$

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W_M \cdot G_M(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n),$$

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W_1 \cdot G_1(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n) + W_2 \cdot G_2(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n), \ldots$$

For the new family. the extreme points are:

$$F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \quad F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W'_1 \cdot G_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \ldots,$$

$$F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W'_M \cdot G_M(x_1, \ldots, x_n),$$

$$F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W'_1 \cdot G_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + W'_2 \cdot G_2(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \ldots$$

For $\lambda_1 = \ldots = \lambda_n = 1$, the first function in the first list coincides with the first function in the second list, etc. Since the dependence on λ_i is continuous, we cannot switch to different equalities, so always:

- the first extreme function from the first list must coincide with the first extreme function from the second list,
- the second extreme function from the first list must coincide with the second extreme function from the second list, etc.

Equality of the first terms means that, for every tuple $C_1, \ldots, C_N$ and for every tuple $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$, there exist values $C'_1, \ldots, C'_N$ for which

$$F_\lambda(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = C_1 \cdot F_1(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n) + \ldots + C_N \cdot F_N(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_n) =$$

$$F'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = C'_1 \cdot F_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots + C'_N \cdot F_N(x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

This means that the class of all functions

$$C_1 \cdot F_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + \ldots + C_N \cdot F_N(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$$

corresponding to different values C_j is scale-invariant. Thus, based on Proposition 1, all the functions $F_j(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ are polynomials – i.e., a sum of finitely many monomials.

For each k from 1 to M, since both the first and the $(k+1)$-st terms in the two lists are equal to each other, we conclude the differences between these term should also be equal. Thus, we conclude that

$$W_k \cdot G_k(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_k) = W'_k \cdot G_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

For $W_1 = 1$, this means that for every tuple $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$, there exists a value W'_k for which

$$G_k(\lambda_1 \cdot x_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \cdot x_k) = W'_k \cdot G_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

The function $G_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is an analytical function and is, thus, the sum of monomials $c_{i_1 \ldots i_n} \cdot x_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_n^{i_n}$. Under re-scaling $x_i \to \lambda_i \cdot x_i$, each monomial is multiplied by different coefficients $\lambda_1^{i_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \lambda_n^{i_n}$. So, the only case when the whole sum of monomials is multiplied by the same number W'_k is when the function $G_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ consists of a single monomial.

Thus, each interval-valued function from the optimal family is indeed a sum of finitely many monomials $G_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ with interval coefficients. The proposition is proven.

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