

## 2. Convex Sets and Convexity

### 2.1. Convex Sets

A set  $S$  is *convex* if any line segment joining two elements of  $S$  is a subset of  $S$ , i.e., for any  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S$  and  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ ,  $\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2 \in S$ . By definition, the empty set  $\emptyset$  is convex. There are multiple reasons to define convex sets. One practical reason is to have a connected domain.

Exercise 2.1.1. Let  $S_i$  be a convex set for all  $i$ . Show that  $\bigcap_i S_i$  is also a convex set.  $\diamond\diamond$

Exercise 2.1.2. Let  $g_1(x_1, x_2, x_3) = 2x_1 - 5x_2 + 3x_3$  and  $g_2(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3$ . Show that the  $G = \{\mathbf{x} \mid g_1(\mathbf{x}) \leq 8 \text{ and } g_2(\mathbf{x}) \leq 8\}$  is a convex set. *Remark.* By a similar argument, the feasible set of a linear program is a convex set.  $\diamond\diamond$

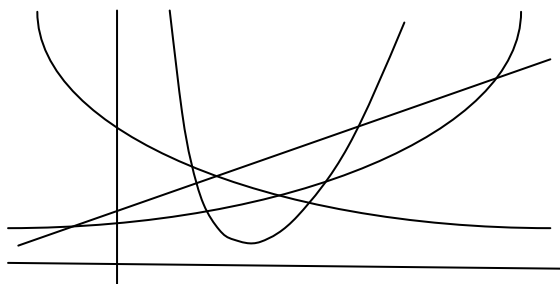
### 2.2. Convex Functions and Concave Functions

Many results in non-linear optimization involve convex (and concave) functions. In fact, most of those nice, beautiful results rely on convexity (and concavity).

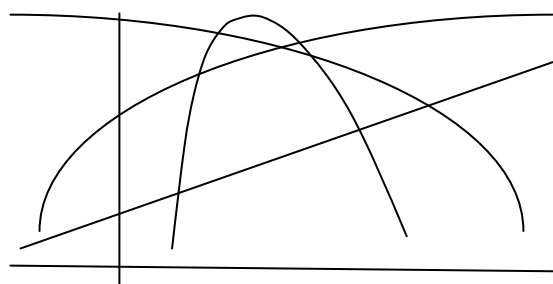
**Definition 2.2.1.** A function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is (*strictly*) *convex* over a convex  $S \subseteq \mathfrak{R}^n$  iff

$$f(\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2) (<) \leq \alpha f(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1-\alpha)f(\mathbf{x}_2) \text{ for all } \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S \text{ and } 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1. \quad \diamond\diamond$$

Definition 2.2.1 has a nice graphical representation, i.e., function  $f$  is a convex function in a convex set  $S$  if the line segment joining  $(\mathbf{x}_1, f(\mathbf{x}_1))$  and  $(\mathbf{x}_2, f(\mathbf{x}_2))$  is not less than the functional value of any point  $\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2$  between  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2$ .



Examples of Convex Functions



Examples of Concave Functions

**Definition 2.2.2.** A function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is (*strictly*) *concave* over a convex  $S \subseteq \mathfrak{R}^n$  iff



$A$  is *indefinite* if it does not belong to the above four types.

Example 2.3.1. Check the definiteness of these matrices:  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} -9 & 6 \\ 6 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ .

*Proof.* (a).  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = (2x+y, x+2y) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 2x^2+xy+xy+2y^2 = x^2+y^2+(x+y)^2 > 0$   
for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Therefore,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  is positive definite.

(b).  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = (x+y)^2 \geq 0$  for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Therefore,  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is positive semi-definite.

(c).  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = (-x+y, x-4y) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -x^2+xy+xy-4y^2 = -(x-y)^2-3y^2 < 0$  for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ .  
Therefore,  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$  is negative definite.

(d).  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} -9 & 6 \\ 6 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -9x^2+12xy-4y^2 = -(3x-2y)^2 \leq 0$  for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Therefore,  $\begin{bmatrix} -9 & 6 \\ 6 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$  is negative semi-definite.

(e).  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 3x^2+2xy = x^2 - y^2 + (x+y)^2$ , which can be positive and negative for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Therefore,  $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is indefinite.

(f).  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -2x^2+2xy+y^2 = (x+y)^2 - 3x^2$ , which can be positive and negative for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . Therefore,  $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  is indefinite. ◇◇

*Remarks.* The definiteness of a matrix is also related to the optimization result.

Minimizing  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  gives (0, 0) as the unique global minimum; minimizing  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  gives multiple minimum when  $x = -y$ ; maximizing  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  gives (0, 0) as the unique global maximum; maximizing  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} -9 & 6 \\ 6 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  gives multiple maximum for  $3x = 2y$ ; there is neither minimum nor maximum for the two functions  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  and  $(x \ y) \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ .  $\diamond \diamond$

In general, the definiteness of a *symmetric* matrix **A** can be found from the determinants of **A**<sup>1</sup>:

- **A** is *positive definite* iff the determinants of *all the leading principal* sub-matrices<sup>#2</sup> are positive for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- **A** is *negative definite* iff  $a_{11} < 0$  and the determinants of remaining leading principal sub-matrices alternate in sign, i.e., the determinant of the second principal sub-matrix  $> 0$ , the third  $< 0$ , and so on.
- **A** is *positive semi-definite* iff the determinants of *all principal* sub-matrices, *leading or not*, are non-negative.
- **A** is *negative semi-definite* iff the determinants of *all principal* sub-matrices of *odd order*, leading or not, are non-positive, and the determinants of *all principal* sub-matrices of *even order*, leading or not, are non-negative.
- **A** is *indefinite* iff it is none of the above four types.

It is also possible to check the (semi)definiteness of a square symmetric matrix by diagonalizing it. We skip this method.

Example 2.3.2. There are simple formulas to get the determinants For 2×2 and 3×3 matrices.

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<sup>1</sup>

<sup>#2</sup> The leading principal sub-matrices of  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  are [4],  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ . However,

$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  does have principal sub-matrices (that are not leading), including [2] and [6] of order 1,

$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$  of order 2. Naturally, for an  $n \times n$  matrix, it has  $C_k^n$  principal sub-matrices of order  $k$ .

For  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = ab - cd$ , and for  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = aei + cdh + bfg -$

$ceg - afh - bdi$ .

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In the context of Hessians of function  $f$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  may be a function of variables rather than a set of pure numbers.

Example 2.3.3. The following parts are examples from the textbook JB. Check the (semi-)definiteness of the Hessians of the following functions. Note especially that in (d) the Hessian changes with the value of  $(x_1, x_2)$ .

(a).  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 3x_1x_2 + x_1^2 + 3x_2^2$ .

(b).  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 24x_1x_2 + 9x_1^2 + 16x_2^2$ .

(c).  $f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1x_2 + x_1x_3 + x_2x_3 + \frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}x_2^2$ .

(d).  $f(\mathbf{x}) = (x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$ .

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## 2.4. Differentiable Convex Functions

The Mean Value Theorem and the Taylor's Theorem can be regarded as the linear and the quadratic approximations of a function in a given direction.

**Mean Value Theorem.** For  $f \in C^1$  in the linear segment container  $[\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2]$ , there exists an  $\alpha$ ,  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}_2) = f(\mathbf{x}_1) + \nabla^T f(\alpha\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2) (\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1).$$

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Exercise 2.4.1. Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ .

(a). Find  $\alpha$  such that  $f\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = f\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \nabla^T f\left(\left(1-\alpha\right)\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

(b). For the  $\alpha$  found in (a),  $f\begin{pmatrix} 0.99 \\ 0.99 \end{pmatrix} \approx f\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \nabla^T f\left(\left(1-\alpha\right)\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)\begin{pmatrix} 0.99 \\ 0.99 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $f\begin{pmatrix} 1.01 \\ 1.01 \end{pmatrix} \approx$

$$f \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \nabla^T f \left( (1-\alpha) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) \begin{pmatrix} 1.01 \\ 1.01 \end{pmatrix}. \quad \diamond \diamond$$

**Taylor's Theorem.** For  $f \in C^2$  in the linear segment container  $[\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2]$ , there exists an  $\alpha$ ,  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , such that

$$f(\mathbf{x}_2) = f(\mathbf{x}_1) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x}_1)(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1)^T \mathbf{H}(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2)(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1). \quad \diamond \diamond$$

**Definition of a convex function as a function above tangent:** Suppose that  $f \in C^1$ . Then  $f$  is convex (over convex set)  $S$  iff  $f(\mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

*Proof.* First consider a convex  $f$ . Take  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_2$ . From the convexity of  $f$ ,  $\frac{f(\mathbf{x}_1 + \alpha(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1)) - f(\mathbf{x}_1)}{\alpha} \leq f(\mathbf{x}_2) - f(\mathbf{x}_1)$ . Passing to the limit as  $\alpha$  goes to zero gives

$\nabla^T f(\mathbf{x}_1)(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_2) - f(\mathbf{x}_1)$ . Now suppose that  $f(\mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ . Choosing  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_1$  and again  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}_2$  gives two inequalities. Adding the two inequalities gives

$$\alpha f(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1-\alpha)f(\mathbf{x}_2) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}).$$

Further choosing  $\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2$  completes the proof.  $\diamond \diamond$

**Definition of a convex function by its Hessian.** Suppose that  $f \in C^2$ . Then  $f$  is convex (over convex set)  $S$  iff the Hessian of  $f$  is positive semi-definite throughout  $S$ .

*Proof.* From Taylor's Theorem, for  $f \in C^2$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{x}_2) = f(\mathbf{x}_1) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x}_1)(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1)^T \mathbf{H}(\alpha \mathbf{x}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{x}_2)(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1).$$

$\mathbf{H}$  is positive semi-definite is equivalent to  $f(\mathbf{x}_2) \geq f(\mathbf{x}_1) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x}_1)(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_1)$ .  $\diamond \diamond$

For a single-variable function  $f \in C^2$ ,  $f$  is convex iff  $\frac{d^2 f(x)}{d^2 x} \geq 0$ . For a quadratic form

$f(\mathbf{x}) = a + \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x} \in C^2$ , its Hessian  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{Q}$ . Thus,  $f$  is convex if it is a positive semi-definite function.

There are different types of optimization problems. Please refer to Figure 9.22 [Categorization of Optimization Problems](#) of JB.