

Convex Optimization notes

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1 Introduction

Definition 1.1 A mathematical optimization problem has the form:

Minimize $f_0(x)$ subject to $f_i(x) \leq b_i \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the optimization variable and $f_0 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the objective function. The functions $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are the constraint functions. A vector $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is optimal (or a solution) if $f_0(x^*) \leq f_0(x) \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and also $f_i(x^*) \leq b_i \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$.

Definition 1.2 An optimization problem in which the objective and the constraint functions f_0, \dots, f_m are all linear (i.e. $f_i(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha f_i(x) + \beta f_i(y) \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$) is called a linear program.

Definition 1.3 A convex optimization problem is one in which the objective and constraint functions are convex, which means they satisfy the inequality $f_i(\alpha x + \beta y) \leq \alpha f_i(x) + \beta f_i(y) \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\alpha + \beta = 1, \alpha \geq 0, \beta \geq 0$.

Theorem 1.1 ■ Every linear program is also a convex optimization problem.

Definition 1.4 A least-squares problem is an optimization problem with no constraints and an objective function which is of the form:

Minimize $f_0(x) = \|Ax - b\|_2^2$ where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}, k \geq n$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the optimization variable.

Theorem 1.2 The solution of the least squares problem is $x = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$

Theorem 1.3 Every least squares problem is also a convex optimization problem.

Theorem 1.4 Every linear program is of the form:

Minimize $c^T x$ subject to $a_i^T(x) \leq b_i, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ where $c, a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 1.5 The Chebyshev approximation problem is to:

Minimize $\max_{i=1, \dots, k} |a_i^T x - b_i|$ where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the optimization variable, and $a_1, \dots, a_k \in \mathbb{R}^n, b_1, \dots, b_k \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 1.5 The Chebyshev approximation problem can be transformed to an equivalent linear program of the form:

Minimize t subject to $a_i^T x - t \leq b_i, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ and $-a_i^T x - t \leq -b_i, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

2 Convex sets

Definition 2.1 A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is affine if the line through any two distinct points in C lies in C , i.e. $\forall x_1, x_2 \in C$ and $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in C$.

Theorem 2.1 ■ A set C is affine if and only if C contains all linear combinations of any two points in C whose coefficients sum to 1.

Definition 2.2 An affine combination of a set of points $x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is of the form $\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k$ where $\theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 1$.

Theorem 2.2 ■ A set C is affine if and only if C contains all affine combinations of any set of its points.

Theorem 2.3 If a set C is affine, and $x_0 \in C$, then the set $V = \{x - x_0 \mid x \in C\}$ is a subspace.

Theorem 2.4 If a set C is affine, and $x_0 \in C$, then the set $C = \{v + x_0 \mid v \in V\}$ for some subspace V .

Theorem 2.5 An affine set C is also a vector space if and only if it contains the zero vector.

Definition 2.3 The dimension of an affine set C is the dimension of a subspace V where $C = V + x_0$ where $x_0 \in C$.

Theorem 2.6 The dimension of an affine set C is unique.

Theorem 2.7 If $Ax = b$ is a system of linear equations where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, x \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, then the solution set to this system is affine (provided a solution exists).

Definition 2.4 The affine hull of a set C is the set of all affine combinations of points in C .

$$\mathbf{aff} C = \{\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k \mid x_1 \dots x_k \in C, \theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 1\}$$

Theorem 2.8 The intersection of two or more affine sets is affine.

Theorem 2.9 Given a set C , the intersection of all affine sets containing C is the affine hull of C .

Theorem 2.10 (?) A set is affine if and only if it equals its affine hull.

Theorem 2.11 The affine hull of any set is affine.

Theorem 2.12 Let x_1, x_2, \dots be a sequence in C and let $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$ be a sequence where each $\theta_i \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i = 1$. If C is affine, then $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i x_i \in C$ if the series converges.

Theorem 2.13 Let $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy $\int_C p(x) dx = 1$, where $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is affine. Then $\int_C p(x)x dx \in C$ if the integral exists.

Definition 2.5 The affine dimension of a set C is the dimension of its affine hull.

Example 2.1 The affine dimension of the unit circle in \mathbb{R}^2 , i.e. $\{(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1\}$ is 2.

Theorem 2.14 The affine dimension of a set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is n if and only if $\mathbf{aff} C = \mathbb{R}^n$

Definition 2.6 The relative interior of the set C , denoted $\mathbf{relint} C$ is its interior relative to $\mathbf{aff} C$:

$\mathbf{relint} C = \{x \in C \mid B(x, r) \cap \mathbf{aff} C \subseteq C \text{ for some } r > 0\}$ where $B(x, r) = \{y \mid \|y - x\| \leq r\}$ where $\|\cdot\|$ is any norm.

Definition 2.7 The relative boundary of a set C is $\mathbf{cl} C \setminus \mathbf{relint} C$ where $\mathbf{cl} C$ is the closure of C .

Example 2.2 Consider the unit square in the xy-plane in \mathbb{R}^3 , i.e. $C = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x_1 \in [-1, 1], x_2 \in [-1, 1], x_3 = 0\}$. Its affine hull is the xy-plane. The interior of C is empty, but its relative interior is $\mathbf{relint} C = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x_1 \in (-1, 1), x_2 \in (-1, 1), x_3 = 0\}$. Its boundary is itself, and its relative boundary is $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|\} = 1, x_3 = 0\}$.

Definition 2.8 A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex if the line segment through any two distinct points in C lies in C , i.e. $\forall x_1, x_2 \in C$ and $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we have $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in C$.

Theorem 2.15 Every affine set is also convex.

Theorem 2.16 A set C is convex if and only if C contains the convex combination of any two points in C whose coefficients sum to 1.

Definition 2.9 A convex combination of a set of points $x_1 \dots x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is of the form $\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k$ where $\theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 1$ and each of the $\theta_1 \dots \theta_k$ are all in $[0, 1]$.

Theorem 2.17 A set C is convex if and only if C contains all convex combinations of any set of its points in C .

Definition 2.10 The affine hull of a set C is the set of all affine combinations of points in C .
 $\text{aff } C = \{\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k \mid x_1 \dots x_k \in C, \theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 1\}$

Theorem 2.18 The intersection of two or more convex sets is convex.

Theorem 2.19 Given a set C , the intersection of all convex sets containing C is the convex hull of C .

Theorem 2.20 (?) A set is convex if and only if it equals its convex hull.

Theorem 2.21 The convex hull of any set is convex.

Theorem 2.22 Let $x_1, x_2 \dots$ be a sequence in C and let $\theta_1, \theta_2 \dots$ be a sequence where each $\theta_i \in [0, 1]$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i = 1$. If C is convex, then $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i x_i \in C$ if the series converges.

Theorem 2.23 Let $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy $p(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in C$ and $\int_C p(x) dx = 1$, where $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex. Then $\int_C p(x)x dx \in C$ if the integral exists.

Theorem 2.24 If $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex and x is a random vector with $p(x) = 1$, then $\mathbf{E}[x] \in C$.

Definition 2.11 A set C is a cone, or nonnegative homogenous, if for all $x \in C$ and $\theta \geq 0$ we have $\theta x \in C$. C is a convex cone, if it is convex and a cone.

Theorem 2.25 C is a convex cone if and only if for all $x_1, x_2 \in C$, and $\theta_1, \theta_2 \geq 0$, we have $\theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 \in C$.

Definition 2.12 A conic combination of a set of points $x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is of the form $\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k$ where each of the $\theta_i \geq 0$.

Theorem 2.26 A set C is a convex cone if and only if C contains all conic combinations of its elements.

Theorem 2.27 Let $x_1, x_2 \dots$ be a sequence in C and let $\theta_1, \theta_2 \dots$ be a sequence where each $\theta_i \geq 0$. If C is a convex cone, then $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i x_i \in C$ if the series converges.

Theorem 2.28 Let $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy $p(x) \geq 0$, where $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a convex cone. Then $\int_C p(x)x dx \in C$ if the integral exists.

Definition 2.13 The conic hull of a set C is the set of all conic combinations of points in C .
 $\{\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k \mid x_1 \dots x_k \in C, \theta_i \geq 0\}$

Theorem 2.29 (?) The intersection of two or more convex cones is a convex cone.

Theorem 2.30 Given a set C , the intersection of all conic cones containing C is the conic hull of C .

Theorem 2.31 (?) A set is a conic cone if and only if it equals its conic hull.

Theorem 2.32 The conic hull of any set is a convex set.

Example 2.3 The empty set \emptyset , any singleton in \mathbb{R}^n , and \mathbb{R}^n itself are all affine (hence, convex) subsets of \mathbb{R}^n .

Example 2.4 Any line is affine. If it passes through zero, it is a subspace, and hence also a convex cone.

Example 2.5 The line segment connecting two distinct points is convex, but not affine.

Example 2.6 The ray $\{(x_0 + \theta v \mid \theta \geq 0\}$ where $v \neq 0$ is convex, but not affine. It is a convex cone if its base $x_0 = 0$.

Example 2.7 Any subspace is affine, and also a convex cone.

Definition 2.14 A hyperplane is a set of the form $\{x \mid a^T x = b\}$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}^n, a \neq 0, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 2.33 The above hyperplane definition can be equivalently stated as $\{x \mid a^T(x - x_0) = 0\} = x_0 + a^\perp$ where a^\perp is the orthogonal complement of a .

Definition 2.15 A halfspace of \mathbb{R}^n is of the form $\{x \mid a^T x \leq b\}$ where $a \neq 0$.

Theorem 2.34 The above halfspace definition can be equivalently stated as $\{x \mid a^T(x - x_0) \leq 0\}$ where x_0 is a point on the hyperplane $a^T x = b$.

Theorem 2.35 Halfspaces are convex, but not affine.

Theorem 2.36 A hyperplane divides \mathbb{R}^n into two disjoint halfspaces. Vectors fall into one or the other of the two halfspaces depending on whether the angle they make with a normal vector to the halfspace is acute or obtuse. Vectors normal to a normal lie in the hyperplane.

Theorem 2.37 The boundary of a halfspace is the associated hyperplane.

Definition 2.16 A Euclidean ball in \mathbb{R}^n has the form $B(x_c, r) = \{x \mid \|x - x_c\|_2 \leq r\}$ where $r > 0$ and $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean norm.

Theorem 2.38 An equivalent definition of a Euclidean ball is $B(x_c, r) = \{x_c + ru \mid \|u\|_2 \leq 1\}$.

Theorem 2.39 Euclidean balls are convex. In fact, balls are convex with respect to any norm.

Definition 2.17 An ellipsoid is a set of the form $\mathcal{E} = \{x \mid (x - x_c)^T P^{-1}(x - x_c) \leq 1\}$ where $P = P^T \succ 0$ is symmetric and positive definite and x_c is the center of the ellipse.

Theorem 2.40 The lengths of the semi-axes of \mathcal{E} are given by $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$ where λ_i are the eigenvalues of P .

Theorem 2.41 A ball is an ellipsoid with $P = r^2 I$.

Theorem 2.42 An equivalent definition of an ellipsoid is $\mathcal{E} = \{x_c + Au \mid \|u\|_2 \leq 1\}$ where A is square and nonsingular. (By taking $A = P^{1/2}$, we get the ellipsoid defined earlier.

Theorem 2.43 When the matrix in the above definition is symmetric positive definite but singular, the set in the definition above is called a degenerate ellipsoid and its affine dimension is equal to the rank of A .

Theorem 2.44 Ellipsoids (including degenerate ones) are convex.

Definition 2.18 The norm cone associated with the norm $\|\cdot\|$ is the set $C = \{(x, t) \mid \|x\| \leq t\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$.

Theorem 2.45 Norm cones are convex cones.

Example 2.8 The second-order cone, defined by $C = \{(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \|x\|_2 \leq t\}$ is the norm cone for the Euclidean norm. It is also known as the quadratic cone, the Lorentz cone, or the ice-cream cone.

Definition 2.19 A polyhedron is the solution set of a finite number of linear equalities and inequalities. $\mathcal{P} = \{x \mid a_j^T x \leq b_j, j = 1, \dots, m, c_j^T x = d_j, j = 1, \dots, p\}$. Another notation is $\mathcal{P} = \{x \mid Ax \preceq b, Cx \preceq d\}$. where \preceq denotes componentwise vector inequality.

Theorem 2.46 A polyhedron is the intersection of a finite number of halfspaces and hyperplanes.

Theorem 2.47 Affine sets (subspaces, hyperplanes, lines), rays, line segments, and halfspaces are all polyhedra.

Theorem 2.48 Polyhedra are convex sets.

Example 2.9 The nonnegative orthant is the set of points with nonnegative components, $\mathbb{R}_+^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, n\}$. The nonnegative orthant is both a polyhedron and a cone.

Definition 2.20 Suppose the $k + 1$ points $v_0, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are affinely independent, which means $v_1 - v_0, \dots, v_k - v_0$ are linearly independent. The simplex determined by them is $C = \text{conv}\{v_0, \dots, v_k\} = \{\theta_0 v_0 + \dots + \theta_k v_k \mid \theta \succeq 0, \mathbf{1}^T = 1\}$

Theorem 2.49 Simplices are also polyhedra and a simplex from $k+1$ points has affine dimension k .

Example 2.10 A 1D simplex is a line segment, a 2D simplex is a triangle, and a 3D simplex is a tetrahedron.

Theorem 2.50 The convex hull of a finite set is a polyhedron, and bounded, but not necessarily represented easily as polyhedra. Likewise, polyhedra are not necessarily easily represented as convex hulls of a set of points.

Example 2.11 The unit ball in the ℓ_∞ -norm in \mathbb{R}^n is $C = \{x \mid |x_i| \leq 1, i = 1, \dots, n\}$. This set can be described in polyhedron form with $2n$ inequalities, or in convex hull form with 2^n points.

Theorem 2.51 The set of symmetric $n \times n$ matrices, $S^n = \{X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid X = X^T\}$ is a subspace with dimension $n(n + 1)/2$.

Definition 2.21 $S_+^n = \{X \in S^n \mid X \succeq 0\}$ denotes the set of symmetric positive semidefinite matrices. $S_{++}^n = \{X \in S^n \mid X \succ 0\}$ denotes the set of symmetric positive definite matrices.

Theorem 2.52 The set S_+^n is a convex cone.

Theorem 2.53 Affine transformations preserve convexity.

Theorem 2.54 Inverse images of affine transformations preserve convexity.

Theorem 2.55 Projections preserve convexity.

Theorem 2.56 The sum of two convex sets is convex (the sum is denoted by $S_1 + S_2 = \{x_1 + x_2 \mid x_1 \in S_1, x_2 \in S_2\}$).

Theorem 2.57 The partial sum of two convex sets is convex (with respect to one of the sets) is convex (the partial sum of two vectors adds only some of the components.)

Example 2.12 The polyhedron $\{x \mid Ax \preceq b, Cx = d\}$ can be expressed as the inverse image of the Cartesian product of the nonnegative orthant and the origin under the affine function $f(x) = (b - Ax, d - Cx)$: $\{x \mid f(x) \in \mathbb{R}_+^m \times \{0\}\}$.

Example 2.13 The condition $A(x) = x_1 A_1 + \dots + x_n A_n \preceq B$, where $B, A_i \in S^m$ is called a linear matrix inequality in x . The solution set of such an inequality is convex, and it is indeed the inverse image of the positive semidefinite cone under the affine map $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow S^m$ given by $f(x) = B - A(x)$.

Example 2.14 The hyperbolic cone is the set $\{x \mid x^T P x \leq (c^T x)^2, c^T x \geq 0\}$. where $P \in S_+^n$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$. It is convex, since it is the inverse image of the second-order cone, $\{(z, t) \mid z^T z \leq t^2, t \geq 0\}$ under the affine function $f(x) = (P^{1/2} x, c^T x)$.

Example 2.15 The ellipsoid $\mathcal{E} = \{x \mid (x - x_c)^T P^{-1} (x - x_c) \leq 1\}$, where $P \in S_{++}^n$, is the image of the unit Euclidean ball $\{u \mid \|u\|_2 \leq 1\}$ under the affine mapping $f(u) = P^{1/2}u + x_c$. It is also the inverse image of the unit ball under the affine mapping $g(x) = P^{-1/2}(x - x_c)$.

Definition 2.22 The perspective function $P : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\text{dom } P = \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}_{++}$ is $P(z, t) = z/t$ where \mathbb{R}_{++} is the set of positive reals.

Theorem 2.58 A perspective function is equivalent to the action of a pin-hole camera.

Theorem 2.59 If $C \subseteq \text{dom } P$ is convex, then its image $P(C) = \{P(x) \mid x \in C\}$ is convex.

Theorem 2.60 A line-segment, viewed through a pin-hole camera, yields a line-segment.

Theorem 2.61 If $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex, then its inverse image under the perspective function is also convex, i.e. $P^{-1}(C) = \{(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid x/t \in C, t > 0\}$ is convex.

Definition 2.23 A linear-fractional function is formed by composing the perspective function with an affine function. Let $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$ be affine, i.e.

$$g(x) = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ c^T \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix},$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $d \in \mathbb{R}$. The function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ given by $f = P \circ g$ is called a linear-fractional function. If $c = 0$ and $d > 0$, the domain of f is \mathbb{R}^n , and f is affine.

Theorem 2.62 A equivalent representation of linear-fractional functions to the above is $f(x) = (Ax + b)/(c^T x + d)$, $\text{dom } f = \{x \mid c^T x + d > 0\}$.

Theorem 2.63 Affine and linear functions are special cases of linear-fractional functions.

Example 2.16 A linear-fractional function can be represented as a matrix

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} A & b \\ c^T & d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+1) \times (n+1)}$$

that acts on points of the form $(x, 1)$ to yield $(Ax + b, c^T x + d)$ which is then normalized to $(f(x), 1)$. The projective correspondence $\mathcal{P}(z) = \{t(z, 1) \mid t > 0\}$ in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} between \mathbb{R}^n and the halfspace of rays with positive last component is one-to-one and onto. The linear fractional function can be expressed as $f(x) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(Q\mathcal{P}(x))$. Thus, start with $x \in \text{dom } f$, i.e. $c^T x + d > 0$, then the form the ray $\mathcal{P}(x)$ in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} . The linear transformation Q acts on this ray to produce another ray, whose last component assumes positive values. The inverse projective transformation then recovers $f(x)$.

Theorem 2.64 Linear-fractional functions preserve convexity. If C is convex and lies in the domain of f , i.e. $c^T x + d > 0 \forall x \in C$ then its image $f(C)$ is convex.

Theorem 2.65 If $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is convex, then the inverse image $f^{-1}(C)$ is convex.

Example 2.17 if u and v are random variables that take on values in $\{1, \dots, n\}$ and $\{1, \dots, m\}$ respectively, let p_{ij} denote the probability that $u = i, v = j$. Then the conditional probability $f_{ij} = \text{prob}(u = i \mid v = j)$ is $f_{ij} = \frac{p_{ij}}{\sum_{k=1}^n p_{kj}}$ which is a linear-fractional mapping from p . If C is a convex set of joint probabilities for (u, v) , then the associated set of conditional probabilities of u given v is also convex.

Definition 2.24 A cone $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a proper cone if it satisfies the following:

1. K is convex
2. K is closed

3. K is solid, which means it has nonempty interior.
4. K is pointed, which means that it contains no line (or, $x \in K$ and $-x \in K$ imply $x = 0$).

Definition 2.25 Define the relation $x \preceq_K y \iff y - x \in K$ and the relation $x \prec_K y \iff y - x \in \mathbf{K}$. These relations are called generalized inequalities.

Theorem 2.66 $x \preceq_K y$ is a partial order.

Theorem 2.67 $x \prec_K y$ is a strict partial order.

Theorem 2.68 When $K = \mathbb{R}_+$, the $x \preceq_K y$ reduces to $x \leq y$ and $x \prec_K y$ reduces to $x < y$.

Example 2.18 The nonnegative orthant is a proper cone. The associated inequalities $x \preceq_K y$ and $x \prec_K y$ reduce to the component-wise inequalities $x \preceq y$ and $x \prec y$ respectively.

Example 2.19 The positive semidefinite cone S_+^n is a proper cone in S^n . \preceq_K and \prec_K reduce to the usual matrix inequalities. $X \preceq Y$ means $Y - X$ is positive semidefinite and $X \prec Y$ means $Y - X$ is positive definite. The interior of S_+^n consists of the positive definite matrices.

Example 2.20 Let $K = \{c \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid c_1 + c_2 t + \dots + c_n t^{n-1} \geq 0 \forall t \in [0, 1]\}$. Then K is a proper cone, and its interior is set of coefficients of polynomials that are positive on $[0, 1]$. $c, d \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfy $c \preceq_K d$ if and only if $c_1 + c_2 t + \dots + c_n t^{n-1} \leq d_1 + d_2 t + \dots + d_n t^{n-1}$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$.

Theorem 2.69 Properties of generalized inequalities (\preceq_K):

1. Preserved under addition: If $x \preceq_K y$ and $u \preceq_K v$, then $x + u \preceq_K y + v$.
2. Transitive: If $x \preceq_K y$ and $y \preceq_K z$, then $x \preceq_K z$.
3. Nonnegative homogeneity: If $x \preceq_K y$ and $\alpha \geq 0$, then $\alpha x \preceq_K \alpha y$.
4. Reflexive: $x \preceq_K x$.
5. Antisymmetric: If $x \preceq_K y$ and $y \preceq_K x$, then $x = y$.
6. Preserved under limits: If $x_i \preceq_K y_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots$, and $x_i \rightarrow x$ and $y_i \rightarrow y$ as $i \rightarrow \infty$, then $x \preceq_K y$.

Theorem 2.70 Properties of strict generalized inequalities (\prec_K):

1. If $x \prec_K y$ then $x \prec_K y$.
2. Preserved under addition: If $x \prec_K y$ and $u \prec_K v$, then $x + u \prec_K y + v$.
3. Positive homogeneity: If $x \prec_K y$ and $\alpha > 0$, then $\alpha x \prec_K \alpha y$.
4. Non-reflexive: $x \not\prec_K x$.
5. If $x \prec_K y$ then $x + y \prec_K y + v$ for u, v small enough.

Example 2.21 $x \prec y$ is not preserved under limits, nor is it antisymmetric.

Example 2.22 (?) Generalized inequalities need not be total orders.

Definition 2.26 $x \in S$ is the minimum element of S if for all $y \in S$ we have $x \preceq_K y$. $x \in S$ is the maximum element of S if for all $y \in S$ we have $x \succeq_K y$.

Theorem 2.71 Minimum and maximum elements of a set are unique, if they exist.

Definition 2.27 $x \in S$ is a minimal element of S if $y \in S, y \preceq_K x$ implies $y = x$. $x \in S$ is a maximal element of S if $y \in S, y \succeq_K x$ implies $y = x$.

Theorem 2.72 Minimal and maximal elements of a set need not be unique.

Theorem 2.73 (?) In general, minimal or maximal or minimum or maximum elements need not exist.

Theorem 2.74 A minimum must also be minimal and a maximum must also be maximal.

Theorem 2.75 $x \in S$ is the minimum element of S if and only if $S \subseteq \{y \mid y \succeq x\}$.

Theorem 2.76 $x \in S$ is the maximum element of S if and only if $S \subseteq \{y \mid y \preceq x\}$.

Theorem 2.77 $x \in S$ is a minimal element of S if and only if $\{y \mid y \preceq x\} \cap S = \{x\}$.

Theorem 2.78 $x \in S$ is a maximal element of S if and only if $\{y \mid y \succeq x\} \cap S = \{x\}$.

Example 2.23 For $K = \mathbb{R}_+$, the concepts of minimal and minimum are the same, and agree with the usual definition of the minimum element of a set (and likewise for maximum/maximal).

Example 2.24 For each $A \in S_{++}^n$, define the ellipsoid $\mathcal{E}_A = \{x \mid x^T A^{-1} x \leq 1\}$. Then $A \preceq B$ if and only if $\mathcal{E}_A \subseteq \mathcal{E}_B$. Let $v_1 \dots v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be given and define $S = \{P \in S_{++}^n \mid v_i^T P^{-1} v_i \leq 1, i = 1, \dots, k\}$. Then S has no minimum element.

Theorem 2.79 Let C and D be two disjoint convex sets. Then there exists $a \neq 0$ and b such that $a^T x \leq b$ for all $x \in C$ and $a^T x \geq b$ for all $x \in D$. The hyperplane $\{x \mid a^T x = b\}$ is called a separating hyperplane for the sets C and D .

Example 2.25 Suppose C is convex and D is affine, i.e. $D = \{Fu + g \mid u \in \mathbb{R}^m\}$, where $F \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. If C and D are disjoint, then by the separating hyperplane there are $a \neq 0$ and b such that $a^T x \leq b$ for all $x \in C$ and $a^T x \geq b$ for all $x \in D$. But $a^T x \geq b$ for all $x \in D$ means $a^T Fu \geq b - a^T g$ for all $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$. But a linear function is bounded below on \mathbb{R}^m only when it is zero, so $a^T F = 0$ and hence $b \leq a^T g$. So there is $a \neq 0$ such that $F^T a = 0$ and $a^T x \leq a^T g$ for all $x \in C$.

Definition 2.28 Let C and D be two disjoint convex sets. If there exists $a \neq 0$ and b such that $a^T x < b$ for all $x \in C$ and $a^T x > b$ for all $x \in D$, the hyperplane $\{x \mid a^T x = b\}$ is called a strict separating hyperplane for the sets C and D .

Theorem 2.80 Separating hyperplanes need not be strict.

Example 2.26 Let C be a closed convex set and $x_0 \notin C$. Then there exists a hyperplane that strictly separates x_0 from C . A closed convex set is the intersection of all halfspaces containing it.

Theorem 2.81 Any two convex sets C and D , at least one of which is open, are disjoint if and only if there exists a separating hyperplane.

Example 2.27 The system of linear inequalities $Ax \prec b$ are infeasible if and only if the convex sets $C = \{b - Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^m\}$, $D = \mathbb{R}_{++}^n = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid y \succ 0\}$ are disjoint. D is open and C is affine. Hence C and D are disjoint if and only if there exists a separating hyperplane. Hence, the system of inequalities is infeasible if and only if there is $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $\lambda \neq 0$, $\lambda \succeq 0$, $A^T \lambda = 0$, $\lambda^T b \leq 0$.

Definition 2.29 Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x_0 \in \text{bd } C = \text{cl } C \setminus \text{int } C$. If $a \neq 0$ satisfies $a^T x \leq a^T x_0$ for all $x \in C$, then the hyperplane $\{x \mid a^T x = a^T x_0\}$ is called a supporting hyperplane to C at the point x_0 .

Theorem 2.82 An equivalent characterization to the above of a supporting hyperplane is that x_0 and C are separated by the hyperplane $\{x \mid a^T x = a^T x_0\}$. Such a hyperplane is tangent to C at x_0 and the halfspace $\{x \mid a^T x \leq a^T x_0\}$ contains C .

Theorem 2.83 For a nonempty convex set C and a point $x_0 \in \text{bd } C$, there is a supporting hyperplane to C at x_0 .

Theorem 2.84 If a set is closed, has nonempty interior, and has a supporting hyperplane at every point in its boundary, it is convex.

Definition 2.30 If K is a cone, the set $K^* = \{y \mid x^T y \geq 0 \ \forall x \in K\}$ is called the dual cone of K .

Theorem 2.85 The dual cone of a cone K is a cone, and always convex, even when K is not.

Theorem 2.86 $y \in K^*$ if and only if $-y$ is the normal of a hyperplane that supports K at the origin.

Example 2.28 The dual cone of a subspace $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ (which is a cone) is its orthogonal complement $V^\perp = \{y \mid y^T v = 0 \ \forall v \in V\}$.

Example 2.29 The cone \mathbb{R}_+^n is its own dual. Such a cone is called self-dual.

Example 2.30 Define the inner product $\text{tr}(XY) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n X_{ij}Y_{ij}$ on the set of symmetric $n \times n$ matrices. The positive semidefinite cone S_+^n is self-dual, i.e. for all $X, Y \in S^n$, $\text{tr}(XY) \geq 0 \ \forall X \succeq 0 \iff Y \succeq 0$.

Example 2.31 Let $\|\cdot\|$ be a norm on \mathbb{R}^n . The dual of the cone $K = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \|x\| \leq y\}$ is the cone defined by the dual norm, i.e. $K^* = \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \|u\|_* \leq v\}$, where the dual norm is given by $\|u\|_* = \sup\{u^T x \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$.

Theorem 2.87 Properties of dual cones:

1. If K^* is closed and convex.
2. $K_1 \subseteq K_2$ implies $K_1^* \subseteq K_2^*$.
3. If K has nonempty interior, K^* is pointed.
4. If the closure of K is pointed, then K^* has nonempty interior.
5. K^{**} is the closure of the convex hull of K . Hence if K is convex and closed, $K^{**} = K$.

Theorem 2.88 If K is a proper cone, so is K^* , and therefore a generalized inequality \preceq_{K^*} is induced.

Theorem 2.89 Properties relating a generalized inequality and its dual:

1. If $x \preceq_K y \iff \lambda^T x \leq \lambda^T y \ \forall \lambda \succeq_{K^*} 0$.
2. If $x \prec_K y \iff \lambda^T x < \lambda^T y \ \forall \lambda \succeq_{K^*} 0, \lambda \neq 0$.

Example 2.32 $\lambda \preceq_{K^*} \mu$ if and only if $\lambda^T x \leq \mu^T x$ for all $x \succeq_K 0$.

Theorem 2.90 Consider the system of strict inequalities $Ax \prec_K b$ where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. The system is infeasible if and only if there exists $\lambda \neq 0$ such that $\lambda \succeq_{K^*} 0, A^T \lambda = 0, \lambda^T b \leq 0$.

Theorem 2.91 x is the minimum element of S if and only if for all $\lambda \succ_{K^*} 0$, x is the unique minimizer of $\lambda^T z$ over $z \in S$. Geometrically, this means that for all $\lambda \succ_{K^*} 0$, the hyperplane $\{z \mid \lambda^T(z - x) = 0\}$ is a strict supporting hyperplane to S at x .

Theorem 2.92 If $\lambda \succ_{K^*} 0$ and x minimizes $\lambda^T z$ over $z \in S$, then x is minimal. The converse is not true in general.

Theorem 2.93 If S is convex, for any minimal element x there is a nonzero $\lambda \succeq_{K^*} 0$ such that x minimizes $\lambda^T z$ over $z \in S$. Note that this converse theorem cannot be strengthened to $\lambda \succ_{K^*} 0$. Nor is it true that any minimizer of $\lambda^T z$ over $z \in S$ with $\lambda \succeq_{K^*} 0$ is minimal.

Theorem 2.94 Chapter 2 exercises.

3 Convex functions

Definition 3.1 A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex if $\mathbf{dom}(f)$ is a convex set and if for all $x, y \in \mathbf{dom}(f)$ with $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we have $f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$.

Definition 3.2 A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is strictly convex if $\mathbf{dom}(f)$ is a convex set and if for all $x, y \in \mathbf{dom}(f)$ with $x \neq y$ and $\theta \in (0, 1)$, we have $f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) < \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$.

Definition 3.3 f is concave if $-f$ is convex and f is strictly concave if $-f$ is strictly convex.

Theorem 3.1 No function can be both strictly concave strictly convex, but both convexity and concavity is possible. In fact, any function is affine if and only if it is both convex and concave.

Theorem 3.2 A function is convex if and only if it is convex when restricted to any line that intersects its domain.

Definition 3.4 A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can be extended as $\tilde{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ by