# Notes on Convex Analysis and Nonlinear Optimization by Borwein and Lewis

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# 0.1 4.1 Continuity of Convex Functions

For a real  $L \geq 0$ , we say that a function  $f : \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  is Lipschitz (with constant L) on a subset C of dom f if  $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L||x - y||$  for any  $x, y \in C$ . If f is Lipschitz on a neighborhood of a point z then we say f is locally Lipschitz around z. If  $F : \mathbb{E} \to \mathbb{Y}$  then replace |f(x) - f(y)| with ||F(x) - F(y)||.

**Theorem 0.1** (4.1.1 (Local boundedness)). Let  $f : \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  be a convex function. Then f is locally Lipschitz around a point z in its domain if and only if it is bounded above on a neighborhood of z.

**Lemma 0.2** (4.1.2). Let  $\Delta$  be the **simplex**  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n_+ \mid \sum x_i \leq 1\}$ . If the function  $g : \Delta \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex then it is continuous on int  $\Delta$ .

**Theorem 0.3** (4.1.3 (Convexity and continuity)). Let  $f : \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  be a convex function. Then f is continuous (in fact locally Lipschitz) on the interior of its domain.

The gauge function  $\gamma_C : \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  associated with a nonempty set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  is defined as  $\gamma_C(x) = \inf\{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_+ \mid x \in \lambda C\}$  and is sublinear when C is convex.

**Theorem 0.4** (4.1.4 (Core and interior)). The core and interior of any convex set in  $\mathbb{E}$  are identical and convex.

The conjugate of the gauge function  $\gamma_C$  is the indicator function of a set  $C^{\circ} \subset \mathbb{E}$  defined by

$$C^{\circ} = \{ \phi \in \mathbb{E} \mid \langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1 \text{ for all } x \in C \}.$$

We call  $C^{\circ}$  the polar set for C. It is a closed convex set containing 0.

**Theorem 0.5** (4.1.5 (Bipolar set). The bipolar set of any subset C of  $\mathbb{E}$  is given by

$$C^{\circ\circ}=\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{conv}(C\cup\{0\})).$$

**Theorem 0.6** (4.1.6 (Supporting hyperplane)). Suppose that the convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  has nonempty interior and that the point  $\bar{x}$  lies on the boundary of C. Then there is a **supporting hyperplane** to C at  $\bar{x}$ : there is a nonzero element a of  $\mathbb{E}$  satisfying  $\langle a, x \rangle \geq \langle a, \bar{x} \rangle$  for all points x in C.

An extreme point of a convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  is a point x in C whose complement  $C \setminus \{x\}$  is convex. We denote the set of extreme points by ext C.

**Lemma 0.7** (4.1.7). Given a supporting hyperplane H of a convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$ , any extreme point of  $C \cap H$  is also an extreme point of C.

Define the dimension of a set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$ , dim C, as the dimension of Span(C - x) for any point  $x \in C$ .

**Theorem 0.8** (4.1.8 (Minkowski)). Any compact convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  is the convex hull of its extreme points.

Proof that if C is compact and convex, then conv(bd C) = C:

*Proof.*  $\operatorname{conv}(\operatorname{bd} C) \subset C$  because  $\operatorname{bd} C \subset C$  because C is closed and  $\operatorname{conv} C = C$  because C is convex.

To prove  $C \subset \text{conv}(\text{bd }C)$ : take  $x \in \text{int }C$ , and shift C by -x so x becomes 0. For every  $i \in [n]$  and  $\text{sgn} \in \{+, -\}$ , there exists  $c_{i,\text{sgn}} > 0$  such that  $c_{i,\text{sgn}}e_i \in \text{bd }C$  where  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  is the standard basis. We can express 0 as a convex combination of  $c_{i,+}e_i$  and  $-c_{i,-}e_i$  for any i.

#### 0.2 Exercises for 4.1

- 1 \* (Points of continuity) Suppose the function  $f : \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  is convex.
  - (a) Use the Local boundedness theorem (0.1) to prove that f is continuous and finite at x if and only if it minorizes a function  $g: \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  which is continuous and finite at x.

If f is continuous and finite at x, then an obvious function that is continuous and finite at x and minorized by f is itself.

- If f minorizes a function that is continuous and finite at x, then f is bounded above on a neighborhood of x, which by Theorem 4.1.1 (0.1) implies that f is continuous at x.
- (b) Suppose f is continuous at some point  $y \in \text{dom } f$ . Use part (a) to prove directly that f is continuous at any point z in core(dom f). (Hint: Pick a point  $u \in \text{dom } f$  such that  $z = \delta y + (1 \delta)u$  for some real  $\delta \in (0, 1)$ ; now observe that the function

$$x \in \mathbb{E} \mapsto \delta^{-1}(f(\delta x + (1 - \delta)u) - (1 - \delta)f(u))$$

minorizes f.)

Since  $z \in \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} f)$ ,  $u = z + (z - y)\epsilon \in \operatorname{dom} f$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . We have  $z = \delta y + (1 - \delta)u$  for  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{1 + \epsilon} \in (0, 1)$ . Now,

$$f(\delta x + (1 - \delta)u) \le \delta f(x) + (1 - \delta)f(u)$$

$$\implies g(x) := \frac{f(\delta x + (1 - \delta)u) - (1 - \delta)f(u)}{\delta} \le f(x).$$

Since f is finite and continuous at y, by part (a), g, being minorized by f, is finite and continuous at y. Because the product and addition of functions continuous at a point is continuous at that point,  $h(x) := \delta g(x) + (1 - \delta)f(u) = f(\delta x + (1 - \delta)u)$  is continuous at y. Notice that  $h(\frac{x-(1-\delta)u}{\delta}) = f(x)$ . Since h is continuous at y and  $\frac{-(1-\delta)u}{\delta}$  is continuous everywhere, in particular at z where it evaluates to y, f is continuous at z.

This is a really interesting technique; I think one can interpret g as a "flattening" of f centered at u, as g(u) = f(u). To help see the "flattening," notice that  $g'(x) = f'(\delta x + (1 - \delta)u)$ . That is, the derivative of g is the derivative of f, pulled towards u, which by convexity is smaller than the derivative of f. Intuitively, this makes g seem like a flattened version of f.

(c) Prove that f is continuous at a point x in dom f if and only if

$$(x, f(x) + \epsilon) \in \operatorname{int}(\operatorname{epi} f)$$

for some (all) real  $\epsilon > 0$ .

If f is continuous at x, then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\|y - x\| \le \delta \implies f(y) \le f(x) + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ . Thus,  $(x, f(x) + \epsilon) + \min\{\delta, \frac{\epsilon}{2}\}B \subset \operatorname{epi} f$ . Therefore,  $(x, f(x) + \epsilon) \in \operatorname{int}(\operatorname{epi} f)$ . Now suppose  $(x, f(x) + \epsilon) \in \operatorname{int}(\operatorname{epi} f)$ . Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $(x, f(x) + \epsilon) + \delta B \subset \operatorname{epi} f$ , i.e. for every  $(y, r) \in (x, f(x) + \epsilon) + \delta B$ , we have  $f(y) \le r$ . Note  $r \le f(x) + \epsilon + \delta$ . Thus, for every y where  $\|x - y\| \le \delta$ , we have  $f(y) \le f(x) + \epsilon + \delta$ . In other words, f is bounded on a neighborhood of x, which by Theorem 4.1.1 (0.1) implies f is continuous at x.

(d) Assuming  $0 \in \text{cont } f$ , prove  $f^*$  has bounded level sets. Deduce that the function  $X \in \mathbb{S}^n \mapsto \langle C, X \rangle + \text{ld}(X)$  has compact level sets for any matrix  $C \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$ . If  $0 \in \text{cont } f$ , then given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for all x with  $||x|| \leq \delta$ , we have  $f(x) \leq f(0) + \epsilon$ . Now if  $\phi \neq 0$ ,

$$f^*(\phi) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{E}} \langle \phi, x \rangle - f(x) \ge \left\langle \phi, \frac{\delta \phi}{\|\phi\|} \right\rangle - f\left(\frac{\delta \phi}{\|\phi\|}\right) \ge \delta \|\phi\| - f(0) - \epsilon.$$

Since the RHS goes to infinity as  $\|\phi\|$  does,  $f^*$  has bounded level sets.

Now recall that  $\operatorname{ld}(X) = -\log \det(X)$  if  $X \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$  and  $+\infty$  otherwise. Furthermore,  $\operatorname{ld}^*(X) = -n + \operatorname{ld}(-X)$ . Furthermore, for any f,  $(\langle c, x \rangle + f(x))^*(\phi) = f^*(\phi - c)$ . Thus,  $(\langle C, X \rangle + \operatorname{ld}(X))^*(D) = -n + \operatorname{ld}(C - D)$ . Since for a constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $(f + c)^* = f^* - c$ , and  $(f(ax))^*(\phi) = f^*(\frac{\phi}{a})$  for  $a \neq 0$ , and  $(f(x + b))^*(\phi) = f^*(\phi) - \langle \phi, b \rangle$ , we have

$$(-n + \operatorname{ld}(C - \cdot))^*(X) = n + (\operatorname{ld}(C - \cdot))^*(X)$$
$$= n + (\operatorname{ld}(-\cdot))^*(X) + \langle C, X \rangle = \langle C, X \rangle + \operatorname{ld}(X).$$

Since  $-n + \operatorname{ld}(C - \cdot)$  is continuous at 0 (as ld is continuous at any PD  $C \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$ ), the level sets of  $\langle C, X \rangle + \operatorname{ld}(X)$  are bounded and thus compact.

(e) Assuming  $x \in \text{cont } f$ , prove  $\partial f(x)$  is a nonempty compact convex set. By Section 3.1, Exercise 3,  $\partial f(x)$  is closed and convex. By Theorem 3.1.8 (Max formula), since cont  $f \subset \operatorname{int}(\operatorname{dom} f) \subset \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} f)$  (in fact we have equalities by Theorems 4.1.3 and 4.1.4),  $\partial f(x)$  is nonempty.  $x \in \operatorname{cont} f$  implies f is locally Lipschitz around x with some Lipschitz constant L. We see that by Proposition 3.1.6 (Subgradients and directional derivatives), for any  $\phi \in \partial f(x)$  and  $d \in \mathbb{E}$ ,

$$\langle \phi, d \rangle \le f'(x; d) = \lim_{t \downarrow 0} \frac{f(x + td) - f(x)}{t} \le L \|d\|.$$

This implies that  $\|\phi\| \leq L$ , i.e.  $\partial f(x)$  is compact.

**2** (Equivalent norms). A norm is a sublinear function  $|\|\cdot\|\| : \to \mathbb{R}_+$  that satisfies  $|\|x\|\| = \|\|-x\|\| > 0$  for all nonzero points x in  $\mathbb{E}$ . By considering the function  $|\|\cdot\|\|$  on the standard unit ball B, prove any norm  $|\|\cdot\|\|$  is equivalent to the Euclidean norm  $\|\cdot\|$ : that is, there are constants  $K \ge k > 0$  with  $k\|x\| \le \|\|x\|\| \le K\|x\|$  for all x.

*Proof.* Since  $|\|\cdot\|\|$  is finite and convex, by Theorem 4.1.1 (0.1), it is locally Lipschitz at 0 with some constant L. This implies that  $|\|x\|\| \le L\|x\|$  for all x in a neighborhood of 0, which by scaling implies the inequality for all  $x \in \mathbb{E}$ .

Now define  $k = \inf_{x:\|x\|=1} |\|x\|\|$ . By Theorem 4.1.3,  $\|\|\cdot\|\|$  is continuous, and therefore the inf is achieved and positive. For all  $x \in \mathbb{E}$  where  $\|x\| = 1$ , we have  $\frac{\|\|x\|\|}{k} \ge 1 = \|x\|$ . By scaling (more precisely, positive homogeneity),  $\frac{\|\|x\|\|}{k} \ge \|x\|$  holds for all  $x \in \mathbb{E}$ . Thus, for all  $x \in \mathbb{E}$ ,  $\|x\| \le \|x\| \le \|x\|$ .

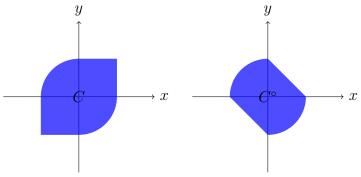
- **3.** (Examples of polars) Calculate the polars of the following sets:
  - (a)  $C = \operatorname{conv}(B \cup \{(1,1), (-1,-1)\}) \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . If  $\phi$  is in the second or fourth quadrant,  $x \in B$ , and  $\lambda_i \geq 0$   $(i \in [3])$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^3 \lambda_i = 1$ ,

$$\langle \phi_1, \lambda_1(1,1) + \lambda_2(-1,-1) + \lambda_3 x \rangle \le (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) |\phi_1 - \phi_2| + \lambda_3 \langle \phi, x \rangle \le ||\phi||.$$

Furthermore, there exists  $x \in B \subset C$  such that  $\langle \phi, x \rangle = ||\phi||$ . Thus, for  $\phi$  in the second or fourth quadrant,  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$  iff  $||\phi|| \leq 1$ . For  $\phi$  in the first quadrant,  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , and  $x \in B$ ,

$$\langle \phi, \lambda(1,1) + x \rangle = \lambda \|\phi\|_1 + (1-\lambda) \langle \phi, x \rangle \le \lambda \|\phi\|_1 + (1-\lambda) \|\phi\| \le \|\phi\|_1,$$

with equality when  $\lambda = 1$ . Thus, for  $\phi$  in the first quadrant,  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$  iff  $\|\phi\| = 1$ . By a similar argument, for  $\phi$  in the third quadrant,  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$  iff  $\|\phi\| = 1$ .



(b) 
$$C = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \,\middle|\, y \ge b + \frac{x^2}{2} \right\} \ (b \in \mathbb{R}).$$

Notice that  $C=\operatorname{epi} f$  where  $f=b+\frac{x^2}{2}$ . We have  $\bar{x}=\nabla f(\bar{x})$ . If c<0, then  $(d,c)=-c(-d/c,-1)=-c(\nabla f(-d/c),-1)\in N_{\operatorname{epi} f}(-d/c,f(-d/c))$  (see Section 3.2, Exercise 11). Thus, for all  $(x,r)\in\operatorname{epi} f$ ,

$$d(x + \frac{d}{c}) + c(r - f\left(-\frac{d}{c}\right)) \le 0.$$

In other words,

$$\max_{(x,r) \in \text{epi } f} (d,c)^{\top}(x,r) = -\frac{d^2}{c} + cf\left(-\frac{d}{c}\right) = c\left(b - \frac{d^2}{2c^2}\right).$$

Thus, when c < 0, we have

$$(d,c) \in C^{\circ} \iff c\left(b - \frac{d^2}{2c^2}\right) \le 1 \iff d^2 \le 2c(bc - 1).$$

When c>0, then we can take (x,r) with  $r\to\infty$  to get that  $(d,c)\notin C^\circ$ , as  $(d,c)^\top(x,r)>1$ . When c=0, if  $d\neq 0$ , then we can take  $x\to\infty$  with a suitable choice of r or likewise with  $x\to-\infty$  to make  $(d,c)^\top(x,r)=dx\to+\infty$ , so that  $(d,0)\notin C^\circ$ . On the other hand, if (d,c)=0, then  $(d,c)^\top(x,r)=0\leq 1$  for all (x,r), so  $0\in C^\circ$ . Thus,

$$C^{\circ} = \{0\} \cup \{(d,c) : c < 0, d^2 \le 2c(bc-1)\} = \{(d,c) : c \le 0, d^2 \le 2c(bc-1)\}.$$

**4 (Polar sets and cones).** Suppose the set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  is closed, convex, and contains 0. Prove the convex cones in  $\mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C \times \{1\})$$
 and  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\})$ 

are mutually polar.

*Proof.* Notice the above two sets are cones, which means we are verifying they are each others' polar cones. As  $S := \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C \times \{1\})$  is a closed convex cone, by Theorem 3.1.8 (Bipolar cone), the bipolar equals itself, so we just need to verify that  $T := \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\})$  equals  $S^{\circ} = S^{-}$ .

For any set A, it turns out  $A^{\circ} = (\operatorname{cl} A)^{\circ}$ . Clearly  $(\operatorname{cl} A)^{\circ} \subset A^{\circ}$ . Now take  $\phi \in A^{\circ}$ . If  $\tilde{a} \in \operatorname{cl} A$ , then there is a sequence  $a^{i} \to \tilde{a}$  in A, so  $\langle \phi, a^{i} \rangle \leq 1$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Taking the limit,  $\langle \phi, \tilde{a} \rangle \leq 1$ , and since  $\tilde{a}$  was arbitrary  $\phi \in (\operatorname{cl} A)^{\circ}$ . So  $A^{\circ} \subset (\operatorname{cl} A)^{\circ}$ , ergo  $A^{\circ} = (\operatorname{cl} A)^{\circ}$ .

Actually, here is a proof that polar cones of A, B with  $\operatorname{clconv} \mathbb{R}_+ A = \operatorname{clconv} \mathbb{R}_+ B$  equal.  $A^{--} = \operatorname{clconv} \mathbb{R}_+ A$ , and since  $A^-$  is a closed convex cone,  $A^- = A^{---} = (\operatorname{clconv} \mathbb{R}_+ A)^-$ . Thus, denoting an element of  $\mathbb{R}_+(C \times \{1\})$  as c(x,1), where  $c \geq 0$  and  $x \in C$ ,

$$(y,r) \in S^{\circ} \quad \iff \quad \forall c(x,1) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}(C \times \{1\}), \ c(\langle x,y \rangle + r) \leq 0 \ \iff \ \forall x \in C, \ \langle x,y \rangle + r \leq 0.$$

If  $r \neq 0$ , we get for all  $x \in C$ ,  $-r(\langle x, -y/r \rangle - 1) \leq 0$ . If r > 0, then we get  $\forall x \in C$ ,  $\langle x, -y/r \rangle \geq 1$ . But this gives a contradiction, since we can take x = 0 (Kind of amazing that this is the only place where the assumption  $0 \in C$  is used). If r < 0, then we have  $\forall x \in C$ ,  $\langle x, -y/r \rangle \leq 1$ , i.e.  $-y/r \in C^{\circ}$ . Moreover, if  $-y/r \in C^{\circ}$ ,  $\forall x \in C$ ,  $\langle x, y \rangle + r = -r(\langle x, -y/r \rangle - 1) \leq 0$ . Thus,

$$r \neq 0: (y, r) \in X^{\circ} \iff r < 0, -y/r \in C^{\circ} \iff (y, r) \in \mathbb{R}_{++}(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}).$$

On the other hand, if r=0, then we get  $\forall x\in C, \langle x,y\rangle\leq 0$ , i.e.  $y\in C^-$ . Thus,

$$S^{\circ} = \mathbb{R}_{++}(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}) \cup (C^{-}, 0).$$

Furthermore, by the inclusions

$$\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}) \subset \mathbb{R}_{++}(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}) \cup (C^{-}, 0) \subset \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}),$$

we have  $S^{\circ} = T$  as desired. To verify the left inclusion, note that  $\mathbb{R}_{+}(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}) = \mathbb{R}_{++}(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\}) \cup \{0\}$ , and  $0 \in (C^{-}, 0)$ . Furthermore,  $S^{\circ}$  is closed, which gives the left inclusion. For the right inclusion, note that  $\mathbb{R}_{+}C^{-} = C^{-} \subset C^{\circ}$ . Therefore, for  $x^{-} \in C^{-}$ , we can take  $c^{\circ}(\frac{x^{-}}{c^{\circ}}, -1) = (x^{-}, c^{\circ}) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}(C^{\circ} \times \{-1\})$  and take  $c^{\circ} \to 0$  to obtain  $(x^{-}, 0) \in (C^{-}, 0)$ . Shorter proof, more opaque but maybe more elegant (wait actually after writing it I think it's basically a more concise version of the above proof): By the statement  $\forall x \in C, \langle x, x^{\circ} \rangle - 1 \leq 0$  iff  $x^{\circ} \in C^{\circ}$ , we obtain

$$C^{\circ} \times \{-1\} = \{(y,-1): (y,-1) \in (C \times \{1\})^{-}\}.$$

Note that no element of the form (y,1) exists in  $(C \times \{1\})^-$ , since  $(0,1) \in C \times \{1\}$ . Furthermore, for every element of the form  $(y,0) \in (C \times \{1\})^-$ , we can use convex conity of  $(C \times \{1\})^-$  on (y,0) and (0,-1) and the fact that  $\mathbb{R}_+ y \subset C^- \subset C^\circ$  to obtain a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}_+(C^\circ \times \{-1\})$  converging to (y,0). Therefore,  $(C \times \{1\})^- = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C^\circ \times \{-1\})$ . By an earlier comment,  $(\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C \times \{1\}))^\circ = (C \times \{1\})^- = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C^\circ \times \{-1\})$ , and  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C \times \{1\})$  is self-bipolar, which finishes the proof.

## 5 \* (Polar sets). Suppose C is a nonempty subset of $\mathbb{E}$ .

(a) Prove  $\gamma_C^* = \delta_{C^{\circ}}$ .

Let  $y \notin C^{\circ}$ . Thus, there exists  $x \in C$  such that  $\langle y, x \rangle > 1$ . Now, for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{+}$ ,

$$(\gamma_C)^*(y) = \sup_{x' \in \mathbb{R}} \langle y, x' \rangle - \gamma_C(x') \ge \langle y, \lambda x \rangle - \gamma_C(\lambda x) = \lambda(\langle y, x \rangle - \gamma_C(x)).$$

By taking  $\lambda \to +\infty$ , we see  $(\gamma_C)^*(y) = +\infty$ . Now suppose  $y \in C^{\circ}$  and take  $x \in \mathbb{E}$ . If  $\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R}_+$  such that  $x \in \lambda C$ , then  $\langle y, x \rangle - \gamma_C(x) = -\infty$ . Otherwise, let  $\bar{\lambda} = \gamma_C(x)$ . If  $x = \bar{\lambda} x_C$  for some  $x_C \in C$ ,

$$\langle y, \bar{\lambda}x_C \rangle - \gamma_C(\bar{\lambda}x_C) = \bar{\lambda}(\langle y, x_C \rangle - \gamma_C(x_C)) \le 0,$$

because  $\langle y, x_C \rangle \leq 1$ , and if  $\gamma_C(x_C) < 1$ , then for some  $\lambda < 1$ ,  $x_C \in \lambda C \implies x \in \bar{\lambda}\lambda C$ , contradicting minimality of  $\bar{\lambda}$ . Now if  $x \neq \bar{\lambda}x_C$  for any  $x_C \in C$ , there is still a sequence

 $\lambda^i, x_C^i$  where  $\lambda^i > \bar{\lambda}$ ,  $\lambda^i \to \bar{\lambda}$ , and  $x = \lambda^i x_C^i$ . Now  $\gamma_C(x_C^i) \ge \frac{\bar{\lambda}}{\lambda^i}$ , because if  $\gamma_C(x_C^i) < \frac{\bar{\lambda}}{\lambda^i}$ , then  $x = \lambda^i x_C^i = \lambda x_C'$  for some  $\lambda < \bar{\lambda}$  and  $x_C' \in C$ , contradicting minimality of  $\bar{\lambda}$ . Thus,

$$\langle y, x \rangle - \gamma_C(x) = \lambda_i(\langle y, x^i \rangle - \gamma_C(x^i)) \le \lambda_i(1 - \frac{\bar{\lambda}}{\lambda^i}).$$

If  $\bar{\lambda} > 0$ , then since  $\lambda^i \to \bar{\lambda}$ , the RHS goes to 0. If  $\bar{\lambda} = 0$ , then the RHS still goes to 0 because of the factor  $\lambda_i \to 0$ . Thus,  $\langle y, x \rangle - \gamma_C(x) \le 0$ . Since x was arbitrary, we have shown

$$y \in C^{\circ} \implies (\gamma_C)^*(y) = 0.$$

This completes the proof that  $(\gamma_C)^* = \delta_{C^{\circ}}$ . God this question was annoying.

(b) Prove  $C^{\circ}$  is a closed convex set containing 0.  $C^{\circ}$  is closed because it is an intersection of closed sets (specifically, halfspaces):

$$C^{\circ} = \bigcap_{x \in \mathbb{E}} \{ \phi \in \mathbb{E} : \langle \phi, x \rangle \le 1 \}.$$

Finally, by the above, it is also an intersection of convex sets containing 0.

- (c) Prove  $C \subset C^{\circ \circ}$ . Take  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$  and  $x \in C$ . By definition,  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1$ . But,  $\phi$  was arbitrary, so in fact  $x \in C^{\circ \circ}$ .
- (d) If C is a cone, prove  $C^{\circ} = C^{-}$ . If  $\langle \phi, x \rangle > 0$  for some  $x \in C$ , by scaling we have  $\langle \phi, cx \rangle > 1$  for some  $cx \in C$ . Thus, if  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$ ,  $\phi \in C^{-}$ , so  $C^{\circ} \subset C^{-}$ . The reverse inclusion is clear.
- (e) For a subset D of  $\mathbb{E}$ , prove  $C \subset D$  implies  $D^{\circ} \subset C^{\circ}$ . Suppose  $\phi \in D^{\circ}$ . Then, if  $x \in C$ , since  $x \in D$ , we have  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1$ . Since  $x \in C$  was arbitrary,  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$ .
- (f) Prove C is bounded if and only if  $0 \in \operatorname{int} C^{\circ}$ . If C is bounded, then there exists M > 0 such that  $\|x\| \leq M$  for all  $x \in C$ . Then, if  $\|\phi\| \leq M^{-1}$ , we have  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \leq \|\phi\| \|x\| \leq 1$  for all  $x \in C$ , i.e.  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$ . Thus,  $M^{-1}B \in C^{\circ}$ , i.e.  $0 \in \operatorname{int} C^{\circ}$ . Now if C is unbounded, there exists a sequence  $x^{i}$  with unbounded norm. For any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\sup_{\phi \in \epsilon B} \langle \phi, x^{i} \rangle = \epsilon \|x^{i}\| \to +\infty$ . Therefore,  $0 \notin \operatorname{int} C^{\circ}$ .
- (g) For any closed halfspace  $H \subset \mathbb{E}$  containing 0, prove  $H^{\circ\circ} = H$ . H takes the form  $\{x: \langle a, x \rangle \leq b\}$  for some  $b \geq 0$ . If  $\phi \neq 0$  is not a multiple of a, then it has a component perpendicular to a, v. The point  $cv \in H$  for c > 0 large enough gives  $\langle \phi, cv \rangle > 1$ , meaning  $\phi \notin H^{\circ}$ . Now if  $\phi = ca$  for some  $c \geq 0$ , for any  $x \in H$  we have  $\langle ca, x \rangle \leq cb$ , with equality when  $x = \frac{ba}{\|a\|^2}$ . If c < 0 then we can take  $x = -la \in H$ ,  $l \to +\infty$  to get  $\langle ca, -la \rangle > 1$ . Thus,  $C^{\circ} = \{ca: 0 \leq c \leq b^{-1}\}$  If b = 0, then replace  $b^{-1}$  with  $+\infty$ .

Now take  $x \in \mathbb{E}$ .

$$\langle x, ca \rangle = c \langle x, a \rangle \le 1 \ \forall 0 \le c \le b^{-1} \iff \langle x, a \rangle \le b.$$

Thus,  $H^{\circ \circ} = H$ .

(h) Prove Theorem 4.1.5 (Bipolar set).

By parts (b) and (c),  $C^{\circ\circ}$  is closed, convex, and contains 0, and  $C \subset C^{\circ\circ}$ . Therefore,  $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(C \cup \{0\})) \subset C^{\circ\circ}$ .

Now take  $y \notin \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(C \cup \{0\}))$ . By Theorem 2.1.6 (Basic separation), there exist  $a \in \mathbb{E}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall x \in \text{cl}(\text{conv}(C \cup \{0\})), \ \langle a, x \rangle \leq b < \langle a, y \rangle.$$

Now if b < 0, then we get a contradiction since we can take x = 0. Thus,  $b \ge 0$ . If b = 0, then we can replace b with  $2^{-1}(b + \langle a, y \rangle)$ , allowing us to assume b > 0. Then,

$$\forall x \in \text{cl}(\text{conv}(C \cup \{0\})), \ \left\langle \frac{a}{b}, x \right\rangle \leq 1 < \left\langle \frac{a}{b}, y \right\rangle.$$

Since  $C \subset \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(C \cup \{0\}))$ , we have  $\frac{a}{b} \in C^{\circ}$ . Yet,  $\left\langle \frac{a}{b}, y \right\rangle > 1$ . Thus,  $y \notin C^{\circ \circ}$ . This completes the proof that  $C^{\circ \circ} = \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(C \cup \{0\}))$ .

- 6 \* (Polar sets and strict separation). Fix a nonempty set  $C \in \mathbb{E}$ .
  - (a) For points  $x \in \text{int } C$  and  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$ , prove  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1$ . Since  $x \in \text{int } C$ , for some  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $x + \epsilon B \subset C$ . Thus, if  $\phi = 0$ , the inequality is obviously true, and otherwise,

$$\left\langle x + \epsilon \frac{\phi}{\|\phi\|}, \phi \right\rangle \le 1 \implies \left\langle x, \phi \right\rangle \le 1 - \epsilon \|\phi\| < 1.$$

(b) Assume further that C is a convex set. Prove  $\gamma_C$  is sublinear.

First we prove that  $\gamma(\mu x) = \mu \gamma(x)$  for  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}_+$ . If  $\mu > 0$ , then for any  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_+$ ,

$$x \in \lambda C \iff \mu x \in \lambda \mu C \implies \gamma_C(\mu x) = \mu \gamma_C(x).$$

If  $\mu = 0$ , then  $\gamma(\mu x) = \gamma(0) = 0$ , since  $0 \in 0C$ . Note that as we just showed, positive homogeneity does not require convexity of C.

Now we show subadditivity, which goes on to imply sublinearity. For  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $\mathbb{E}$ , suppose  $x_1 \in \lambda_1 C$  and  $x_2 \in \lambda_2 C$  for  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \geq 0$ . If  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$ , then  $x_1 = x_2 = 0$  (since  $0C = \{0\}$ ), so  $x_1 + x_2 = 0 \in (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)C = 0C$ . Otherwise,

$$x_1 + x_2 \in \lambda_1 C + \lambda_2 C = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) \left( \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2} C + \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2} C \right) \subset (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) C,$$

by convexity of C. Therefore, if  $\gamma_C(x_1) < r_1$  and  $\gamma_C(x_2) < r_2$ , then for some  $0 \le \lambda_1 < r_1$ ,  $0 \le \lambda_2 < r_2$ ,  $x_1 \in \lambda_1 C$  and  $x_2 \in \lambda_2 C$ , so  $x_1 + x_2 \in (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) C$ . Thus,  $\gamma_C(x_1 + x_2) < r_1 + r_2$ . So, taking an infimum over  $r_1$  and then  $r_2$ ,

$$\forall r_2 > \gamma_C(x_2), \ \gamma_C(x_1 + x_2) \le \inf\{r_1 > \gamma_C(x_1)\} + r_2 \\ \Longrightarrow \ \gamma_C(x_1 + x_2) \le \inf\{r_1 > \gamma_C(x_1)\} + \inf\{r_2 > \gamma_C(x_2)\} = \gamma_C(x_1) + \gamma_C(x_2).$$

Surprisingly hard to justify that if  $x \leq r_1 + r_2$  for all  $r_1 \in R_1$  and  $r_2 \in R_2$ , then  $x \leq \inf R_1 + \inf R_2$  XD

(c) Assume in addition  $0 \in \operatorname{core} C$ . Deduce

$$\operatorname{cl} C = \{ x \mid \gamma_C(x) \le 1 \}.$$

Since  $0 \in \operatorname{core} C$ ,  $\gamma_C$  is everywhere finite and therefore continuous, by Theorem 4.1.3 (Convexity and continuity). Suppose  $x \in \operatorname{cl} C$ . Then, there exists a sequence  $x^i \to x$  in C. By continuity,  $\gamma_C(x^i) \to \gamma_C(x)$ . Since  $\gamma_C(x^i) \le 1$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\gamma_C(x) \le 1$ . Now suppose  $\gamma_C(x) \le 1$ . Then, there is a decreasing sequence  $\mu^i \to 1$  such that  $x \in \mu^i C$  for every  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , i.e.  $\frac{x}{\mu^i} \in C$ . Since  $\mu^i \to 1$ , we have  $\frac{x}{\mu^i} \to x$ , which proves  $x \in \operatorname{cl} C$ .

(d) Finally, suppose in addition that  $D \subset \mathbb{E}$  is a convex set disjoint from the interior of C. By considering the Fenchel program inf $\{\delta_D + \gamma_C\}$ , prove there is a closed halfspace containing D but disjoint from the interior of C.

Note that  $\inf\{\delta_D + \gamma_C\} \ge 1$ , since if  $x \in D$ ,  $\gamma_C(x) \ge 1$  (the proof of Theorem 4.1.4 (Core and interior) shows that  $\inf C = \{x \mid \gamma_C(x) < 1\}$ , which is disjoint from D by assumption).

Since dom  $\gamma_C = \mathbb{E}$ , the primal and dual Fenchel problems have equal value, with achievement for the dual (see Theorem 3.3.5, Fenchel duality):

$$1 \leq \inf_{x \in \mathbb{E}} \{ \gamma_C(x) + \delta_D(x) \} = \sup_{\phi \in \mathbb{E}} \{ -\gamma_C^*(\phi) - \delta_D^*(-\phi) \}$$
$$= \sup_{\phi \in \mathbb{E}} \{ -\delta_{C^{\circ}}(\phi) - \sup_{x \in D} \langle -\phi, x \rangle \}$$
$$= \sup_{\phi \in C^{\circ}} \inf_{x \in D} \langle \phi, x \rangle.$$

In the second line we used  $\gamma_C^* = \delta_{C^{\circ}}$ , from part (a) of Exercise 5. The sup is achieved, so there exists  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$  such that  $\forall x \in D, \langle \phi, x \rangle \geq 1$ . But since  $\phi \in C^{\circ}$ , for any  $x \in \text{int } C$ , we have  $\langle \phi, x \rangle < 1$ . We have found our closed halfspace:

$$H = \{x \in \mathbb{E} : \langle \phi, x \rangle \geq 1\} \text{ satisfies } D \subset H \text{ and } D \cap \operatorname{int} C = \emptyset.$$

Wow Fenchel duality is op.

7 \* (Polar calculus [23]). Suppose C and D are subsets of  $\mathbb{E}$ .

(a) Prove  $(C \cup D)^{\circ} = C^{\circ} \cap D^{\circ}$ .

$$\phi \in (C \cup D)^{\circ} \iff \forall x \in C, \ \langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1 \text{ and } \forall x \in D, \ \langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1$$
  
$$\iff \phi \in C^{\circ} \cap D^{\circ}.$$

(b) If C and D are convex, prove

$$\operatorname{conv}(C \cup D) = \bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} (\lambda C + (1 - \lambda)D).$$

The  $\supset$  inclusion holds almost by definition: for any  $\lambda \in [0,1]$  and  $c \in C$ ,  $d \in D$ ,  $\lambda c + (1-\lambda)d \in \text{conv}(C \cup D)$  because  $c \in \text{conv}(C \cup D)$  and  $d \in \text{conv}(C \cup D)$  and  $\text{conv}(C \cup D)$  is convex.

For  $\subset$ , we show that  $\bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} (\lambda C + (1-\lambda)D)$  is convex. Clearly, it contains  $C \cup D$ . Since  $\operatorname{conv}(C \cup D)$  is the smallest convex set containing  $C \cup D$ , the inclusion follows. To see convexity, first note the sets  $[0,1](C \times \{1\})$  and  $[0,1](D \times \{1\})$  are convex: for any nonnegative interval [a,b] and convex set  $\overline{C}$ , the set  $[a,b]\overline{C}$  is convex, since  $a \leq \alpha, \beta \leq b$  and  $x_1, x_2 \in \overline{C}, \lambda \in [0,1]$  implies

$$\lambda \alpha x_1 + (1 - \lambda)\beta x_2 = (\lambda \alpha + (1 - \lambda)\beta) \left( \frac{\lambda \alpha}{\lambda \alpha + (1 - \lambda)\beta} x_1 + \frac{(1 - \lambda)\beta}{\lambda \alpha + (1 - \lambda)\beta} x_2 \right) \in [a, b]\bar{C}.$$

If  $\lambda \alpha + (1 - \lambda)\beta = 0$ , then  $\lambda \alpha = (1 - \lambda)\beta = 0$  and either  $\alpha$  or  $\beta = 0$ , so  $\lambda \alpha x_1 + (1 - \lambda)\beta x_2 = 0 \in [a, b]\bar{C} = [0, b]\bar{C}$ .

Now, notice that  $g := \delta_{[0,1](C \times \{1\})} \odot \delta_{[0,1](D \times \{1\})}$  is convex (3.3 Exercise 12(a)) and

$$g(y,1) = \inf_{(x,\lambda) \in \mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{R}} \delta_{[0,1](C \times \{1\})}(x,\lambda) + \delta_{[0,1](D \times \{1\})}(y-x,1-\lambda)$$
$$= \delta_{\bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]}(\lambda C + (1-\lambda)D)}(y).$$

In other words,  $\bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} \lambda C + (1-\lambda)D$  is the  $\mathbb{E}$  part of dom  $g(\cdot,1)$ , which is convex. Thus,  $\bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} \lambda C + (1-\lambda)D$  is convex.

(c) If C is a convex cone and the convex set D contains 0, prove

$$C + D \subset \operatorname{cl}\operatorname{conv}(C \cup D).$$

Consider  $c+d \in C+D$ . Take a sequence  $\lambda^i \to 0$ . We have  $\lambda^i \frac{c}{\lambda^i} + (1-\lambda^i)d \to c+d$ . Notice the LHS is in  $\bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} (\lambda C + (1-\lambda)D) = \operatorname{conv}(C \cup D)$ . Therefore,  $c+d \in \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(C \cup D))$ .

Now suppose the closed convex sets K and H of  $\mathbb{E}$  both contain 0.

(d) Prove  $(K \cap H)^{\circ} = \operatorname{clconv}(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ})$ . By part (a),  $(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ})^{\circ} = K^{\circ \circ} \cap D^{\circ \circ} = K \cap H$ . The second equality is by Theorem 4.1.5 (Bipolar set) (0.5) Since K and H already are closed, convex, and contain 0, they are self bipolar. Now we take another polar and apply Theorem 4.1.5 again:

$$(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ})^{\circ \circ} = \operatorname{cl}\operatorname{conv}(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ}) = (K \cap H)^{\circ}.$$

(e) If furthermore K is a cone, prove  $(K \cap H)^{\circ} = \operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + H^{\circ})$ . Note  $\operatorname{conv}(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ}) \subset K^{\circ} + H^{\circ}$ . This is because by part (b), an element of  $\operatorname{conv}(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ})$  is  $\lambda k + (1 - \lambda)h$  for some  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,  $k \in K^{\circ}$ ,  $h \in H^{\circ}$ , which is in  $K^{\circ} + H^{\circ}$  because both sets contain 0. Thus,  $\operatorname{cl} \operatorname{conv}(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ}) \subset \operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + H^{\circ})$ . Part (c) shows the reverse inclusion. Thus, by the previous part,

$$(K \cap H)^{\circ} = \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(K^{\circ} \cup H^{\circ})) = \operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + H^{\circ}).$$

- **8** \*\* (Polar calculus [23]). Suppose P is a cone in  $\mathbb{E}$  and C is a nonempty subset of a Euclidean space  $\mathbb{Y}$ .
  - (a) Prove  $(P \times C)^{\circ} = P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ}$ .  $P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ} \subset (P \times C)^{\circ}$ , since if  $\langle p^{\circ}, p \rangle \leq 1$  for all  $p \in P$  and  $\langle c^{\circ}, c \rangle \leq 1$  for all  $c \in C$ , then since P is a cone (cones are nonempty, see page 1 of the textbook),  $\langle p^{\circ}, p \rangle \leq 0$  for all  $p \in P$ , and

$$\forall p, c \in P \times C, \ \langle (p^{\circ}, c^{\circ}), (p, c) \rangle = \langle p^{\circ}, p \rangle + \langle c^{\circ}, c \rangle \leq 1.$$

 $(P \times C)^{\circ} \subset P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ}$  because if  $(a,b) \in (P \times C)^{\circ}$ , then since  $0 \in P$ ,

$$\forall c \in C, \langle (a,b), (0,c) \rangle = \langle b, c \rangle \le 1,$$

so  $b \in C^{\circ}$ . Furthermore,

$$\forall p \in P, \langle (a,b), (p,c) \rangle = \langle a, p \rangle + \langle b, c \rangle \le 1.$$

If P contains a nonzero element p, then, we must have  $\langle a, p \rangle \leq 0$ . Thus,  $(a, b) \in P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ}$ .

(b) If furthermore C is compact and convex (possibly not containing 0), and K is a cone in  $\mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{Y}$ , prove

$$(K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ} = (K \cap (P \times C^{\circ \circ}))^{\circ}.$$

 $K \cap (P \times C) \subset K \cap (P \times C^{\circ \circ})$ , so  $(K \cap (P \times C^{\circ \circ}))^{\circ} \subset (K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ}$  (See Exercise 5 (e)).

Now take  $(\phi, \psi) \in (K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ}$ . Consider an element  $(a, b) \in K \cap (P \times C^{\circ \circ})$ . By compactness of C and Section 2.2 Exercise 5 (d) which says that the convex hull of a compact set is compact,

$$C^{\circ\circ} = \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv}(C \cup \{0\})) = \operatorname{conv}(C \cup \{0\}) = \bigcup_{\lambda \in [0,1]} \lambda C.$$

The last equality follows from Exercise 7, part (b). Therefore,  $(a, b) = (p, \lambda c)$  for some  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  and  $c \in C$ . If  $\lambda > 0$ , then  $(\frac{p}{\lambda}, c) \in K \cap (P \times C)$ . Thus,

$$\langle (\phi, \psi), (p, \lambda c) \rangle = \lambda \left\langle (\phi, \psi), (\frac{p}{\lambda}, c) \right\rangle \le \lambda \le 1.$$

If  $\lambda = 0$ , we can take a sequence  $\lambda^i \to \lambda$  such that  $\langle (\phi, \psi), (p, \lambda^i c) \rangle \leq 1$ , which proves that  $\langle (\phi, \psi), (p, 0) \rangle \leq 1$ . Therefore,  $(\phi, \psi) \in (K \cap (P \times C^{\circ \circ}))^{\circ}$ .

(c) If furthermore K and P are closed and convex, use Exercise 7 to prove

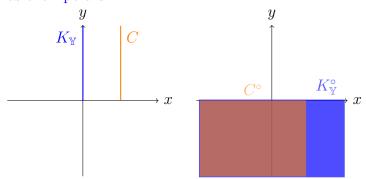
$$(K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ} = \operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + (P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ})).$$

By Exercise 7(e), since  $(P \times C^{\circ \circ})$  is now closed and convex and contains 0, and K is a closed convex cone,

$$(K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ} = (K \cap (P \times C^{\circ \circ})) = \operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + (P \times C^{\circ \circ})^{\circ}) = \operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + (P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ})),$$

using parts (a) and (b).

(d) Find a counterexample to part (c) when C is unbounded. Let  $P = \{0\}, C = \{(1, r) : r \ge 0\}$ , and  $K = \{0\} \times \{(0, r) : r \ge 0\}$ . P and K are closed, convex cones, and C is a closed, convex set. Since basically only the  $\mathbb{Y}$  space is relevant here, let's plot C and  $K_{\mathbb{Y}}$ , the projection of K onto its  $\mathbb{Y}$  component, as well as their polars.



As shown,  $C^{\circ} = \{(1,y) : y \geq 0\}^{\circ} = \{(x,y) : x \leq 1, \ y \leq 0\}$ . If  $y \geq 0$  and  $x \leq 1, \ y' \leq 0$ , then  $\langle (1,y), (x,y') \rangle = x + yy' \leq x \leq 1$ . Conversely, if x > 1, then  $\langle (1,0), (x,y) \rangle = x > 1$  and if y' > 0, then by choosing y large enough,  $\langle (1,y), (x,y') \rangle = x + yy' > 1$ . Now notice  $(K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ} = (\emptyset)^{\circ} = \mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{Y}$ . On the other hand,

$$\operatorname{cl}(K^{\circ} + (P^{\circ} \times C^{\circ})) = \operatorname{cl}((\mathbb{E} \times \{(x, y) : y \leq 0\}) + (\mathbb{E} \times \{(x, y) : x \leq 1, y \leq 0\}))$$
$$\subset \mathbb{E} \times \{(x, y) : y \leq 0\} \neq \mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{Y} = (K \cap (P \times C))^{\circ}.$$

- 9 \* (Open mapping theorem). Suppose the linear map  $A: \mathbb{E} \to \mathbb{Y}$  is surjective.
  - (a) Prove any set  $C \in \mathbb{E}$  satisfies  $A \operatorname{core} C \subset \operatorname{core} AC$ . Take  $x \in \operatorname{core} C$ . Since A is surjective, for any  $d \in \mathbb{Y}$ , there exists  $y \in \mathbb{E}$  such that Ay = d. For some  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $x + \epsilon y \in C$ . Thus,  $A(x + \epsilon y) = Ax + \epsilon d \in AC$ . Since d was arbitrary,  $Ax \in \operatorname{core} AC$ . Thus,  $A \operatorname{core} C \subset \operatorname{core} AC$ .
  - (b) Deduce A is an open map: that is, the image of any open set is open. Linear maps map convex sets to convex sets: if  $z_1 = Ax_1$  and  $z_2 = Ax_2$ , then  $\lambda z_1 + (1-\lambda)z_2 = A(\lambda x_1 + (1-\lambda)x_2)$ . Now if C is an arbitrary open set, take a point  $x \in \text{int } C$ . For some  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\tilde{B} := x + \epsilon B \subset C$ .  $\tilde{B}$  is convex, and so  $A\tilde{B} \subset AC$  is convex. Since  $x \in \text{core } \tilde{B}$ ,  $Ax \in \text{core } A\tilde{B} = \text{int } A\tilde{B}$  by Theorem 4.4 (Core and interior). There is a ball around Ax in  $A\tilde{B}$ , and thus AC. Thus, AC is open.
  - (c) Prove another condition ensuring condition (3.3.8) in the Fenchel theorem is that there is a point x̂ in int(dom f) with Ax̂ in dom g and A is surjective. Prove similarly that a sufficient condition for Fenchel duality with linear constraints (Corollary 3.3.11) to hold is A surjective and b ∈ A(int(dom f)).
    The condition (3.3.8) is 0 ∈ core(dom g A dom f). Since by part (a), A core(dom f) = core(A dom f), Ax̂ ∈ core(A dom f) ∩ dom g. Thus, we can take this to be our point in dom g, and for any direction find a point in A dom f which is strictly in that direction relative to Ax̂, proving 0 ∈ core(dom g A dom f).

Now the sufficient condition of Corollary 3.3.11 is  $b \in \operatorname{core}(A \operatorname{dom} f)$ . But by part (a), this is the same as  $b \in A \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} f)$ . By Theorem 4.4 (Core and interior) and convexity of  $\operatorname{dom} f$ , this is the same as  $b \in A \operatorname{int}(\operatorname{dom} f)$ .

(d) Deduce that any cones  $H \subset \mathbb{Y}$  and  $K \subset \mathbb{E}$ , and any surjective linear map  $A : \mathbb{E} \to \mathbb{Y}$  satisfy  $(K \cap A^{-1}H)^- = A^*H^- + K^-$ , providing  $H \cap A(\operatorname{int} K) \neq \emptyset$ .

I think this should really have the hypothesis that H and K are convex, or else you can make  $(K \cap H)^- = \{(x,y) : y \leq 0\}$  and  $H^- + K^- = \{(x,y) : |x| \leq -y\}$ , by making K a convex cone centered on the positive y axis of angle less than 90, and H a cone which has a ray along the positive y axis and the two rays whose union is  $\{(x,y) : |x| = y\}$ .  $H \cap K$  here would just be the positive y axis.

Anyways, a sufficient condition for Theorem 3.3.13 (Krein-Rutman polar cone calculus) is  $H - AK = \mathbb{Y}$ . If  $H \cap A(\text{int }K) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $H \cap \text{int}(AK) \neq \emptyset$ . By choosing an element of AK which differs from the interior element in an arbitrary direction and scaling, we get  $H - AK = \mathbb{Y}$ .

### 10 \* (Conical absorption)

(a) If the set  $A \subset \mathbb{E}$  is convex, the set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  is bounded, and  $\mathbb{R}_+ A = \mathbb{E}$ , prove there exists a real  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\delta C \subset A$ .

If  $\mathbb{R}_+ A = \mathbb{E}$ , then the gauge function  $\gamma_A$  is finite everywhere and continuous. Because C is bounded, it is contained in some closed ball MB, on which  $\gamma_A$  obtains a maximum. Note that if  $\gamma_A(x) \leq \mu$ , then  $x \in \mu A$ , since there exists  $\lambda \leq \mu$  where  $x \in \lambda A$ , and by  $\mathbb{R}_+ A = \mathbb{E}$  and A convex, A must contain 0, so  $\lambda A \subset \mu A$ . Thus,  $C \subset MB \subset (\max_{x \in MB} \gamma_A(x))A$ . If  $(\max_{x \in MB} \gamma_A(x)) = 0$  we can set  $\delta$  to anything, otherwise take  $\delta = (\max_{x \in MB} \gamma_A(x))^{-1}$ .

Now define two sets in  $\mathbb{S}^2_+$  by

$$A = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} y & x \\ x & z \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{S}_+^2 \,\middle|\, |x| \le y^{2/3} \right\}, \text{ and }$$

$$C = \left\{ X \in \mathbb{S}_+^2 \,\middle|\, \operatorname{Tr} X \le 1 \right\}.$$

(b) Prove that both A and C are closed, convex, and contain 0, and that C is bounded. A is convex: note  $y \geq 0$ , because the corresponding matrix is PSD. Take two matrices in A, differentiating their entries by indexing those of one by 1 and those of the other by 2.  $\mathbb{S}^2_+$  is convex, so any convex combination of them is still PSD. Also, for  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ , by convexity of  $x \mapsto |x|^{3/2}$ ,

$$|\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2|^{3/2} \le \lambda |x_1|^{3/2} + (1 - \lambda)|x_2|^{3/2} = \lambda y_1 + (1 - \lambda)y_2.$$

Thus, raising both sides to the power 2/3, we get that the convex combination is in A. Thus, A is convex. It contains 0 as  $|0| \le 0^{2/3}$  and  $0 \in \mathbb{S}^2_+$ . It is closed because  $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} y & x \\ x & z \end{bmatrix}\right) = |x| - y^{2/3}$  is continuous, and so  $\{X: f(X) \le 0\}$  is closed.

Tr is a linear functional, so C is the intersection of  $\mathbb{S}^2_+$  with the closed halfspace

 $\{X \in \mathbb{S}^2 | \operatorname{Tr} X \leq 1\}$ , which makes it closed and convex. It contains 0 because  $0 \in \mathbb{S}^2_+$  and  $\operatorname{Tr} 0 = 0 \leq 1$ . C is bounded because

$$X \in C \implies ||X|| = ||\lambda(X)|| \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\lambda_i(X)| = \operatorname{Tr} X \le 1.$$

(c) Prove  $\mathbb{R}_+ A = \mathbb{S}_+^2 = \mathbb{R}_+ C$ .

For any nonzero  $X \in \mathbb{S}_+^2$ ,  $X/\operatorname{Tr} X \in C$ . Further, any positive scaling of C is in  $\mathbb{S}_+^2$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{S}_+^2 = \mathbb{R}_+ C$ . Likewise, any positive scaling of A is in  $\mathbb{S}_+^2$  (this follows from the fact that  $\mathbb{S}_+^2$  is a cone).

Now given  $X = \begin{bmatrix} y & x \\ x & z \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{S}_+^2$ , for any c > 0,

$$|cx| \le (cy)^{2/3} \iff c^{1/3}x \le y^{2/3}.$$

We can clearly take a c small enough so that  $c^{1/3}x \leq y^{2/3}$ . Thus,  $cX \in A$ . Thus,  $X \in c^{-1}A$ . This proves that  $\mathbb{S}^2_+ = \mathbb{R}_+ A$ .

(d) Prove there is no real  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\delta C \subset A$ . Let  $\delta > 0$  be arbitrary and consider the following matrix in  $\delta C$  for some  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ :

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \delta \lambda & \delta \sqrt{\lambda (1 - \lambda)} \\ \delta \sqrt{\lambda (1 - \lambda)} & \delta (1 - \lambda). \end{bmatrix}$$

Its determinant is 0 and has trace  $\delta$ , so it belongs to  $\delta C$ . Let us compute when X is not in A:

$$\delta\sqrt{\lambda(1-\lambda)} > (\delta\lambda)^{2/3} \iff \delta^6(\lambda(1-\lambda))^3 > \delta^4\lambda^4 \iff \delta^2 > \frac{\lambda}{(1-\lambda)^3}.$$

If we take  $\lambda \to 0$ , then  $\frac{\lambda}{(1-\lambda)^3} \to 0 < \delta$ . Therefore, there exists a setting of  $\lambda$  for which  $X \in \delta C$  yet  $X \notin A$ , proving  $\delta C \not\subset A$ .

- 11 \* (Hölder's inequality). This question develops an alternative approach to the theory of the p-norm  $\|\cdot\|_p$  defined in Section 2.3, Exercise 6.
  - (a) Prove  $p^{-1}||x||_p^p$  is a convex function, and deduce the set

$$B_p = \{x \mid ||x||_p \le 1\}$$

is convex.

Since the function  $x \mapsto |x|^p$  is convex with derivative  $x|x|^{p-2}$  (see Section 3.1 Exercise 14), the function

$$\frac{\|x\|_p^p}{p} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p$$

is a sum of convex function and is thus convex, and has gradient  $x|x|^{p-2}$  (where the multiplication and absolute value are element-wise). Then,  $B_p$  is a level set of a convex function, which makes it convex.

(b) Prove the gauge function  $\gamma_{B_p}(\cdot)$  is exactly  $\|\cdot\|_p$ , and deduce  $\|\cdot\|_p$  is convex.

$$\|\lambda x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} = \left(|\lambda|^p \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} = |\lambda| \|x\|_p,$$

which proves positive homogeneity of  $\|\cdot\|_p$ . In particular,  $\lambda B_p = \{x \mid \|x\|_p \leq \lambda\}$ . Therefore,  $\gamma_{B_p}(x) = \inf\{\lambda \geq 0 \mid \|x\|_p \leq \lambda\} = \|x\|_p$ . By convexity of the gauge function,  $\|x\|_p$  is convex. Since it is convex and positive homogeneous, it is in fact sublinear.

(c) Use the Fenchel-Young inequality (3.3.4) to prove that any vectors x and  $\phi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy the inequality

$$p^{-1}||x||_p^p + q^{-1}||\phi||_q^q \ge \langle \phi, x \rangle$$
.

By Section 3.3, Exercise 1, the convex conjugate of  $p^{-1}|x|^p$  is  $q^{-1}|y|^q$ , where  $p^{-1}+q^{-1}=1$ . We have

$$(\|\cdot\|_p^p)^*(y) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \langle y, x \rangle - \frac{\|x\|_p^p}{p} = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i - \frac{|x_i|^p}{p}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \sup_{x_i \in \mathbb{R}} x_i y_i - \frac{|x_i|^p}{p} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|y_i|^q}{q} = \frac{\|y\|_q^q}{q}.$$

Then, by the Fenchel-Young inequality (Theorem 3.3.4), for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{E}$ ,

$$\frac{\|x\|_p^p}{p} + \frac{\|y\|_q^q}{q} \ge \langle x, y \rangle.$$

(d) Assuming  $||u||_p = ||v||_q = 1$ , deduce  $\langle u, v \rangle \leq 1$ , and hence prove that any vectors x and  $\phi \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy the inequality

$$\langle \phi, x \rangle \le \|\phi\|_q \|x\|_p.$$

By part (c),  $\langle u, v \rangle \leq p^{-1} \|u\|_p^p + q^{-1} \|v\|_q^q = p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$ . Now if  $\phi = 0$  or x = 0, the inequality holds because both sides are 0. Otherwise,  $\phi \neq 0$  and  $x \neq 0$ . Then, by the above,  $\langle \|x\|_p^{-1}x, \|\phi\|_q^{-1}\phi \rangle \leq 1$ , which by multiplying both sides by  $\|x\|_p \|\phi\|_q$  implies  $\langle x, \phi \rangle \leq \|x\|_p \|\phi\|_q$ .

(e) Calculate  $B_p^{\circ}$ .

 $B_p^{\circ} = \{ \phi \in \mathbb{E} : \forall x \text{ s.t. } ||x||_p \leq 1, \ \langle \phi, x \rangle \leq 1 \}.$  By part (d),  $B_q \subset B_p^{\circ}$ , as if  $||\phi||_q \leq 1$ , then  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \leq ||\phi||_q ||x||_p \leq ||x||_p \leq 1$  assuming  $x \in B_p$  for the last step.

To show the reverse inclusion, we have to show that for any  $\phi$ , equality is obtained in  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \leq \|\phi\|_q \|x\|_p$  by some x for any fixed p-norm. Suppose  $\|x\|_p = \lambda$ . Set

$$x = \lambda \frac{\phi |\phi|^{q-2}}{\|\phi\|_q^{q-1}}.$$

We'll verify that  $||x||_p = \lambda$ . To this end, we use the facts that (p-1)(q-1) = 1 and q/p = q-1.

$$||x||_{p} = \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_{q}^{q/p}} \|\phi|\phi|^{q-2}\|_{p}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_{q}^{q-1}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\phi|^{p(q-1)} \right)^{1/p}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_{q}^{q-1}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\phi|^{q} \right)^{1/p}$$

$$= \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_{q}^{q-1}} \|\phi\|_{q}^{q/p} = \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_{q}^{q-1}} \|\phi\|_{q}^{q-1} = \lambda.$$

Now we have

$$\langle \phi, x \rangle = \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_q^{q-1}} \left\langle \phi, \phi |\phi|^{q-2} \right\rangle = \frac{\lambda}{\|\phi\|_q^{q-1}} \|\phi\|_q^q = \lambda \|\phi\|_q.$$

Now for  $\phi \notin B_q$ , there exists  $x \in B_p$  such that  $\langle x, \phi \rangle = \|\phi\|_q > 1$ . Thus,  $\phi \notin B_p^{\circ}$ . Thus,  $B_p^{\circ} \subset B_q$ . We have completed the proof that  $B_p^{\circ} = B_q$ .

12 \* (Pareto minimization). We use the notation of Section 3.3, Exercise 18 (Order convexity), and we assume the cone S is pointed and has nonempty interior. Given a set  $D \subset \mathbb{Y}$ , we say a point y in D is a Pareto minimum of D (with respect to S) if

$$(y-D)\cap S=\{0\},$$

and a weak minimum if

$$(y-D) \cap \operatorname{int} S = \emptyset.$$

- (a) Prove y is a Pareto (respectively weak) minimum of D if and only if it is a Pareto (respectively weak) minimum of D+S. Suppose that y is a Pareto minimum of D. Let  $d \in D$  and  $x \in S$ . If  $y-d-x \in S$ , then  $y-d \in x+S \subset S$  because S is a cone. Then y-d=0. Then  $-x \in S$ . Then x=0, because S is pointed  $(S\cap -S=\{0\})$ . If y is a (weak) Pareto minimum of D+S, then since  $D \subset D+S$ , we have  $(y-D)\cap S \subset (y-(D+S))\cap S$ . This implies y is a (weak) Pareto minimum of D. If y is a weak Pareto minimum of D, suppose  $y-d-x \in \text{int } S$ . Note that if  $z \in \text{int } S$  and  $x \in S$ , then  $z+x \in \text{int } S$ . This holds because  $z+\epsilon B \in S \implies z+x+\epsilon B \in S$  by convex conity of S. Then,  $y-d \in \text{int } S$ . But this is a contradiction; therefore,  $(y-(D+S))\cap \text{int } S=\emptyset$ .
- (b) The map  $X \in \mathbb{S}^n_+ \to X^{1/2}$  is  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$ -order-preserving (Section 1.2, Exercise 5). Use this fact to prove, for any matrix  $Z \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$ , the unique Pareto minimum of the set

$$\{X \in \mathbb{S}^n \mid X^2 \succeq Z^2\}$$

with respect to  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$  is Z.

I think inside the set notation it should be  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$ , not  $\mathbb{S}^n$ , because if you take  $X = -\epsilon I$  with  $\epsilon > 0$  large enough, you'd have  $\epsilon^2 I \succeq Z^2$  and  $Z - (-\epsilon I) = Z + \epsilon I \in \operatorname{int} \mathbb{S}^n_+$ .

Assuming  $X \in \{X \in \mathbb{S}^n_+ \mid X^2 \succeq Z^2\}$ , by order-preservingness of  $X \mapsto X^{1/2}$ , we have  $X \succeq Z$ . Thus,  $Z - X \in -\mathbb{S}^n_+$ . If  $Z - X \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$  as well, Z - X = 0. This proves that Z is a Pareto minimum of the set with respect to  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$ .

Now if X is any Pareto minimum, we have  $X - Z \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$  by  $X \succeq Z$  and by definition of Pareto minimum, X - Z = 0. Thus, X = Z.

For a convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  and an S-convex function  $F: C \to \mathbb{Y}$ , we say a point  $\bar{x} \in C$  is a Pareto (respectively, weak) minimum of the vector optimization problem

$$\inf\{F(x) \mid x \in C\} \tag{0.2.1}$$

if  $F(\bar{x})$  is a Pareto (respectively weak) minimum of F(C).

(c) Prove F(C) + S is convex. Since F is S-convex, for any  $x_1, x_2 \in C$ ,

$$\lambda F(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)F(x_2) - F(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) \in S$$
  
 $\implies \lambda F(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)F(x_2) = F(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) + s$ , for some  $s \in S$ .

Thus, given  $F(x_1) + s_1 \in F(C) + S$  and  $F(x_2) + s_2 \in F(C) + S$ , we have

$$\lambda(F(x_1) + s_1) + (1 - \lambda)(F(x_2) + s_2) = \lambda F(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)F(x_2) + \lambda s_1 + (1 - \lambda)s_2$$
$$= F(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) + s + \lambda s_1 + (1 - \lambda)s_2 \in F(C) + S.$$

Thus, F(C) + S is convex.

(d) (Scalarization). Suppose  $\bar{x}$  is a weak minimum of the problem (0.2.1). By separating  $F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S$  and int S (using Exercise 6), prove there is a nonzero element  $\phi$  of  $-S^-$  such that  $\bar{x}$  solves the *scalarized* convex optimization problem

$$\inf\{\langle \phi, F(x)\rangle \mid x \in C\}.$$

Conversely, show any solution of this problem is a weak minimum of (0.2.1). By part (a),  $F(\bar{x})$  is a weak minimum of F(C) iff  $F(\bar{x})$  is a weak minimum of F(C) + S. Also, by part (c), F(C) + S is convex. Therefore,  $F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S$  is a convex set disjoint from int S. Thus, by Exercise 6, there exists a closed hyperplane containing  $F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S$  but not int S, i.e.  $\phi \in \mathbb{E}, b \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall z \in F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S, \ y \in \text{int } S, \quad \langle \phi, z \rangle \ge b > \langle \phi, y \rangle.$$

Since we can take z=0 and  $y/\lambda \in \operatorname{int} S$  for any  $\lambda > 0$ , we have b=0. Further note that  $\phi \in S^-$ . We have clint S=S by Section 1.1, Exercise 11 (e), and  $\langle \phi, y^i \rangle < 0$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  implies  $\langle \phi, \lim_i y^i \rangle \leq 0$ . So,  $-\phi \in -S^-$  and satisfies

$$\forall z \in F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S, \ \langle -\phi, z \rangle \leq 0,$$
i.e.  $\forall x \in C, \ s \in S, \ \langle -\phi, \bar{x} \rangle \leq \langle -\phi, x + s \rangle = \langle -\phi, x \rangle \ \text{for} \ s = 0.$ 

This proves that  $\bar{x}$  is also a solution to problem scalarized by  $-\phi \in -S^-$ . We can see that any solution  $\bar{x}$  to the scalarized problem satisfies  $\langle -\phi, z \rangle \leq 0$  for all  $z \in F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S$ , and since  $-\phi \in -S^-$  is nonzero,  $\langle -\phi, y \rangle > 0$  for all  $y \in \text{int } S$ . So,  $F(\bar{x}) - F(C) - S$  is disjoint from int S. In other words,  $F(\bar{x})$  is a weak minimum of F(C).

13 (Existence of extreme points). Prove any nonempty compact convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  has an extreme point, without using Minkowski's theorem, by considering the furthest point in C from the origin.

*Proof.* By the strict convexity of  $x \mapsto ||x||^2$  and compactness of C, the infimum  $\inf_{x \in C} ||x||^2$  is uniquely obtained at some  $\bar{x} \in C$ . For any  $x, y \in C$  both not equal to  $\bar{x}$  and  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\|\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y\|^2 \le \lambda \|x\|^2 + (1 - \lambda)\|y\|^2 < \|\bar{x}\|^2.$$

Thus,  $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \neq \bar{x}$ . This proves  $C - \bar{x}$  is convex. So,  $\bar{x}$  is an extreme point.

#### **14.** Prove Lemma 4.1.7.

Proof. Suppose  $\bar{x}$  is an extreme point of  $C \cap H$ ; that is,  $(C \cap H) \setminus \{\bar{x}\}$  is convex. Let us show that  $C - \{\bar{x}\}$  is convex. If it is not, then  $\bar{x} = \lambda z + (1 - \lambda)y$  for  $z, y \in C$  and  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ . H has the form  $H = \{\langle \phi, x \rangle = b : x \in \mathbb{E}\}$  for some  $\phi \in \mathbb{E}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus,  $\langle \phi, \bar{x} \rangle = b$ , and  $\langle \phi, x \rangle \geq b$  for all  $x \in C$ . If  $\langle \phi, z \rangle > b$  or  $\langle \phi, y \rangle > b$ , then  $\langle \phi, \lambda z + (1 - \lambda)y \rangle > b$ , contradicting the vact that  $\bar{x} = \lambda z + (1 - \lambda)y$ . Thus,  $z \in C \cap H$  and  $y \in C \cap H$ . But this contradicts the fact  $(C \cap H) \setminus \{\bar{x}\}$  is convex.

**15.** For any compact convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$ , prove  $C = \operatorname{conv}(\operatorname{bd} C)$ .

*Proof.* conv(bd C)  $\subset C$  because C is convex and bd  $C \subset C$ . For the other direction, take  $x \in \text{int } C$ . For an arbitrary  $d \in C$ , consider

$$c^+ = \sup\{\epsilon > 0 : x + \epsilon d \in C\}, \quad c^- = \sup\{\epsilon > 0 : x - \epsilon d \in C\}.$$

Since  $x \in \text{int } C$ ,  $c^+ > 0$  and  $c^- > 0$ , and since C is bounded,  $c^+ < \infty$  and  $c^- < \infty$ . We'll prove that  $x + c^+ d \in \text{bd } C$ . There exist  $c^i \to c^+$  such that  $x + c^i d \in C$ . Thus, since C is closed,  $x + c^+ d \in \text{bd } C$ . Furthermore, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $x + (c^+ + \epsilon)d \notin C$ . Thus,  $x + c^+ d \in \text{bd } C$ . Similarly,  $x - c^- d \in \text{bd } C$ . We can write

$$x = \frac{c^{-}}{c^{+} + c^{-}}(x + c^{+}d) + \frac{c^{+}}{c^{+} + c^{-}}(x - c^{-}d).$$

Therefore,  $x \in \text{conv}(\text{bd } C)$ . Since  $x \in \text{int } C$  was arbitrary, int  $C \subset \text{conv}(\text{bd } C)$ . Thus,  $C = (\text{int } C) \cup \text{bd } C \subset \text{conv}(\text{bd } C)$ .

16 \* (A converse of Minkowski's theorem). Suppose D is a subset of a compact convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  satisfying  $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv} D) = C$ . Prove ext  $C \subset \operatorname{cl} D$ .

Proof. Suppose  $x \in \operatorname{ext} C$  but  $x \notin \operatorname{cl} D$ . Note  $\operatorname{conv}(\operatorname{cl} D) = \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv} D)$ . This holds because  $\operatorname{cl} D$  is compact (C is compact, so  $D \subset C$  must be bounded), and the convex hull of a compact set is compact (Section 2.2, Exercise 5 (d)). Thus,  $\operatorname{cl} D \subset \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv} D)$  implies  $\operatorname{conv}(\operatorname{cl} D) \subset \operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv} D)$ , and  $\operatorname{cl} \operatorname{conv} \operatorname{cl} D = \operatorname{conv} \operatorname{cl} D$  implies  $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{conv} D) \subset \operatorname{conv} \operatorname{cl} D$ . Then, we get  $C = \operatorname{conv}(\operatorname{cl} D) \subset \operatorname{conv}(C \setminus \{x\}) = C \setminus \{x\}$ , a contradiction. Therefore,  $x \in \operatorname{ext} C \Longrightarrow x \in \operatorname{cl} D$ , i.e.  $\operatorname{ext} C \subset \operatorname{cl} D$ .

#### 17 \* (Extreme points). Consider a compact convex set $C \subset \mathbb{E}$ .

(a) If dim  $\mathbb{E} \leq 2$ , prove the set ext C is closed.

If dim  $\mathbb{E} = 0$ , then ext  $C = \{0\}$  or  $\emptyset$ , both of which are closed. If dim  $\mathbb{E} = 1$ , then C is empty, a point, or a line segment, in which ext C is empty, a point, or two isolated points, which are all closed. Now let dim  $\mathbb{E} = 2$ . Suppose  $x^i$  is a sequence in ext C converging to  $\bar{x}$ . Note ext  $C \subset \operatorname{bd} C$ , because if  $x \in \operatorname{int} C$ , then  $C \setminus \{x\}$  is clearly nonconvex. Furthermore, by Section 1.1 Exercise 11 (c) (Accessibility lemma), if  $\lambda \in (0,1)$  and  $x \in \operatorname{int} C$  and  $y \in C$ , then  $\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y \in \operatorname{int} C$ .

 $\bar{x} \in \operatorname{bd} C$  because  $\operatorname{bd} C$  is closed:  $\operatorname{bd} C = \bar{C} \cup \operatorname{int} C$ , which is a union of open sets and is thus open.

We assume  $\bar{x} \notin \operatorname{ext} C$  and derive a contradiction. By this assumtion, there exist  $x,y \in C$  and  $\lambda \in (0,1)$  such that  $\bar{x} = \lambda x + (1-\lambda)y$ , which means  $x,y \in \operatorname{bd} C$  by an above comment. If  $x^i$  is in the line segment  $L = \{\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y : \lambda \in (0,1)\}$  we have a contradiction, because  $x^i \in \operatorname{ext} C$ . Thus, the sequence  $(x^i)$  is outside of the above line segment. Now by Theorem 4.1.6, there exists  $\phi \in \mathbb{E}$  and  $q \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $L \subset H = \{x \in \mathbb{E} : \langle \phi, x \rangle \leq q\}$ , and for all  $x \in C \setminus H$ ,  $\langle \phi, x \rangle > q$ . Because H is one-dimensional,  $H = \operatorname{aff} L$ . For i large enough,  $||x - x^i||$  is small enough to where  $x^i \in H$  implies  $x^i \in L$ . Therefore, for all i large enough,  $x^i \notin H$ , that is  $x^i \in L$ . Therefore, for all  $x^i \in H$  implies  $x^i \in L$ .

By the fundamental theorem of linear algebra,  $x^i - \bar{x} = c_1 \hat{\phi} + c_2 \hat{\phi}_{\perp}$  where  $\hat{\phi} = \frac{\phi}{\|\phi\|}$  and  $\phi_{\perp} = \frac{y - \bar{x}}{\|y - \bar{x}\|} = -\frac{x - \bar{x}}{\|x - \bar{x}\|}$  is orthogonal to  $\hat{\phi}$ . We must have  $c_1 > 0$  for  $\langle \phi, x^i - \bar{x} \rangle > 0$ . Note  $-c_2 \hat{\phi}_{\perp} = -\frac{c_2}{\|y - \bar{x}\|} (y - \bar{x}) = \frac{c_2}{\|x - \bar{x}\|} (x - \bar{x})$ . If  $c_2 < 0$ , set  $c = \frac{-c_2}{\|y - \bar{x}\|}$  and  $v = y - \bar{x}$ , otherwise set  $c = \frac{c_2}{\|x - \bar{x}\|}$  and  $v = x - \bar{x}$ . We have  $c \ge 0$ ,  $v + \bar{x} \in \{x, y\}$ ,  $c_2 \hat{\phi}_{\perp} + cv = 0$ .

$$C \ni \frac{1}{1+c}x^{i} + \frac{c}{1+c}(v+\bar{x}) = \frac{1}{1+c}\left(\bar{x} + c_{1}\hat{\phi} + c_{2}\hat{\phi}_{\perp}\right) + \frac{c}{1+c}(v+\bar{x})$$
$$= \bar{x} + \frac{c_{1}}{1+c}\hat{\phi} + \frac{1}{1+c}(c_{2}\hat{\phi}_{\perp} + cv) = \bar{x} + \frac{c_{1}}{1+c}\hat{\phi}.$$

Therefore,  $\mu\hat{\phi}\in C-\bar{x}$  for some  $\mu>0$ . Furthermore, for some  $\nu>0$  small enough,  $\nu\hat{\phi}_{\perp}$  and  $-\nu\hat{\phi}_{\perp}$  are both in  $C-\bar{x}$ . For i large enough,  $x^i-\bar{x}=c_1\hat{\phi}+c_2\hat{\phi}_{\perp}$  satisfies  $\frac{c_1}{\mu}+\frac{|c_2|}{\nu}<1$ . That is,  $x^i-\bar{x}=\left(1-\frac{c_1}{\mu}-\frac{|c_2|}{\nu}\right)0+\frac{c_1}{\mu}\mu\hat{\phi}+\frac{|c_2|}{\nu}\operatorname{sgn}(c_2)\nu\hat{\phi}_{\perp}\in C-\bar{x}$ . In fact, for any  $z=c_1'\hat{\phi}+c_2'\hat{\phi}_{\perp}$  where  $c_1'\geq 0$  and  $\frac{c_1'}{\mu}+\frac{|c_2'|}{\nu}\leq 1$ , the previous representation of  $x^i-\bar{x}$  implies  $z\in C=\bar{x}$ . Therefore,  $x^i-\bar{x}\in\operatorname{int}(C-\bar{x})$ , i.e.  $x^i\in\operatorname{int}C$ . But this contradicts  $x^i\in\operatorname{ext}C\subset\operatorname{bd}C$ . Thus,  $\bar{x}\in\operatorname{ext}C$ , i.e.  $\operatorname{ext}C$  is closed. I absolutely HATED proving this.

(b) If  $\mathbb{E}$  is  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and C is the convex hull of the set

$$\{(x, y, 0) \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\} \cup \{(1, 0, 1), (1, 0, -1)\},\$$

prove  $\operatorname{ext} C$  is not closed.

The point  $(1,0,0) \notin \text{ext } C$ , because it is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}(1,0,-1) + \frac{1}{2}(1,0,1)$ . Now we prove that any other  $(x,y,0) \in \text{ext } C$  where  $(x,y) \in B$ .

Suppose that  $(x, y, 0) = \lambda_1(1, 0, 1) + \lambda_2(1, 0, -1) + (1 - \lambda_1 - \lambda_2)(x', y', 0)$  where  $0 \le \lambda_i$ ,  $i \in [3]$  and ||(x', y')|| = 1. We must have  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$  because the third component is 0. Thus, we get

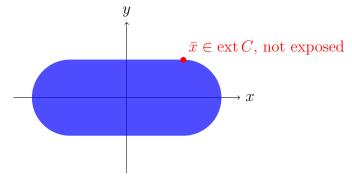
$$(x,y) = \lambda(1,0) + (1-\lambda)(x',y')$$

where  $\lambda \in (0,1)$ . However, by strict convexity of  $\|\cdot\|^2$ ,

$$\|\lambda(1,0) + (1-\lambda)(x',y')\|^2 < \lambda \|(1,0)\|^2 + (1-\lambda)\|(x',y')\|^2 = 1 = \|(x,y)\|^2,$$

unless (x', y') = (1, 0). But then (x, y) = (1, 0), a contradiction. Thus, (x, y, 0) is not writable as a strict convex combination of other points in C, which means it is in ext C. Now, we see  $(1, 0, 0) \in \text{cl} \times C \setminus \text{ext } C$ . Thus, ext C is not closed.

- 18 \* (Exposed points). A point x in a convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  is called *exposed* if there is an element  $\phi$  of  $\mathbb{E}$  such that  $\langle \phi, x \rangle > \langle \phi, z \rangle$  for all points  $z \neq x$  in C.
  - (a) Prove any exposed point is an extreme point. Let  $x \in C$  be exposed. Take  $y, z \in C$ . For any  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,  $\langle \phi, \lambda y + (1 - \lambda)z \rangle < \langle \phi, x \rangle$ . Thus,  $\lambda y + (1 - \lambda)z \neq x$ . Therefore,  $x \in \text{ext } C$ .
  - (b) Find a set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with an extreme point which is not exposed.



- 19 \*\* (Tangency conditions). Let  $\mathbb{Y}$  be a Euclidean space. Fix a convex set C in  $\mathbb{E}$  and a point x in C.
  - (a) Show  $x \in \operatorname{core} C$  if and only if  $T_C(x) = \mathbb{E}$ . (You may use Exercise 20(a).)  $x \in \operatorname{core} C \iff \mathbb{R}_+(C-x)\mathbb{E} \iff \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C-x) = T_C(x) = \mathbb{E}$ .
  - (b) For a linear map  $A: \mathbb{E} \to \mathbb{Y}$ , prove  $AT_C(x) \subset T_{AC}(Ax)$ .

$$AT_C(x) = A \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C - x) \subset \operatorname{cl} A\mathbb{R}_+(C - x)$$
$$= \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+A(C - x) = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(AC - Ax) = T_{AC}(Ax).$$

For any set S,  $A \operatorname{cl} S \subset \operatorname{cl} AS$  because  $s^i \to s \implies As^i \to As$ .

(c) For another convex set D in  $\mathbb{Y}$  and a point  $y \in D$ , prove

$$N_{C\times D}(x,y) = N_C(x) \times N_D(y)$$
 and  $T_{C\times D}(x,y) = T_C(x) \times T_D(y)$ .

Suppose  $(a, b) \in N_{C \times D}(x, y)$ . Then, since  $x \in C$ , for any  $y' \in D$ ,  $\langle (a, b), (x, y') - (x, y) \rangle = \langle b, y' - y \rangle \leq 0$ . Similarly because  $y \in D$ ,  $\langle a, x - x' \rangle \leq 0$  for any  $x' \in C$ . Thus,  $(a, b) \in N_C(x) \times N_D(y)$ . If  $a \in N_C(x)$  and  $b \in N_D(y)$ , then

$$\forall (x', y') \in C \times D, \quad \langle (a, b), (x', y') - (x, y) \rangle = \langle a, x' - x \rangle + \langle b, y' - y \rangle \le 0.$$

Therefore,  $N_{C\times D}(x,y) = N_C(x) \times N_D(y)$ .

$$T_{C\times D}(x,y) = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C\times D - (x,y)) = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+((C-x)\times (D-y))$$
$$= \operatorname{cl}(\mathbb{R}_+(C-x)\times \mathbb{R}_+(D-y)) = (\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C-x))\times (\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(D-y)) = T_C(x)\times T_D(y).$$

For the third equality, clearly  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C-x) \times (D-y) \subset \operatorname{cl}(\mathbb{R}_+(C-x) \times \mathbb{R}_+(D-y))$ . For the other direction, if  $\mu u \in \mathbb{R}_+(C-x)$  and  $\nu v \in \mathbb{R}_+(D-y)$ , then if  $\mu = \nu = 0$  clearly  $(0,0) \in \mathbb{R}_+(C-x) \times (D-y)$ . Otherwise,  $\frac{\mu}{\mu+\nu}u \in C-x$  because  $0, u \in C-x$  and  $\frac{\nu}{\mu+\nu}v \in D-y$  because  $0, v \in D-y$ . Thus,  $(\mu u, \nu v) \in \mathbb{R}_+(C-x) \times (D-y)$ , multiplying the previous items by  $\mu + \nu \in \mathbb{R}_+$ .

Alternatively, by Theorem 3.3.14 (Bipolar cone),  $T_C(x) = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C-x) = (C-x)^{--} = N_C(x)^-$ . By Exercise 8 (a),  $N_{C\times D}(x,y)^- = N_C(x)^- \times N_D(y)^-$ . Therefore,  $T_{C\times D}(x,y) = T_C(x) \times T_D(y)$ .

(d) Suppose the point x also lies in the convex set  $G \subset \mathbb{E}$ . Prove  $T_C(x) - T_G(x) \subset T_{C-G}(0)$ , and deduce

$$0 \in \operatorname{core}(C - G) \iff T_C(x) - T_G(x) = \mathbb{E}.$$

For any sets S, T,  $\operatorname{cl} S - \operatorname{cl} T \subset \operatorname{cl} (S - T)$ . This is because if  $s \in \operatorname{cl} S$  and  $t \in \operatorname{cl} T$ , there are sequences  $s^i \in S$  and  $t^i \in T$  such that  $s^i - t^i \to s - t$ , i.e.  $s - t \in \operatorname{cl} (S - T)$ . Thus,  $T_C(x) - T_G(x) = \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C - x) - \operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(G - x) \subset \operatorname{cl} (\mathbb{R}_+(C - x) - \mathbb{R}_+(G - x))$ . For any convex set S containing S0, S0, S1, S2, S3, S3, S4, S5, S5, S5, S5, S5, S6, S7, S8, S8, S9, S9,

$$\mu u - \nu v = (\mu + \nu) \left( \frac{\mu}{\mu + \nu} u - \frac{\nu}{\mu + \nu} v \right) \in \mathbb{R}_+ (C - x - (G - x)) = \mathbb{R}_+ (C - G).$$

Therefore,  $T_C(x) - T_G(x) \subset \operatorname{cl}(\mathbb{R}_+(C-x) - \mathbb{R}_+(G-x)) = \operatorname{cl}\mathbb{R}_+(C-G) = T_{C-G}(0)$ . Alternatively, using parts (b) and (c), define the map  $A : \mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{E}$ ,  $(x,y) \mapsto x - y$ .

$$T_C(x) - T_G(x) = A(T_C(x) \times T_G(x)) = A(T_{C \times G}(x, x)) \subset T_{A(C \times G)}(x - x) = T_{C - G}(0).$$

Now if  $T_C(x) - T_G(x) = \mathbb{E}$ , then  $T_{C-G}(0) = \mathbb{E}$ , so  $0 \in \operatorname{core}(C - G)$ . If the latter, then  $T_{C-G}(0) = \mathbb{E}$ . Inspecting (b),  $\operatorname{cl} AT_C(x) = T_{AC}(Ax)$  for linear A and  $\operatorname{convex} C$ ,  $x \in C$ , so  $\operatorname{cl}(T_C(x) - T_G(x)) = T_{C-G}(0) = \mathbb{E}$ , so  $T_C(x) - T_G(x) = \mathbb{E}$  by (a).

(e) Show that the condition (3.3.8) in the Fenchel theorem can be replaced by the condition

$$T_{\operatorname{dom} q}(Ax) - AT_{\operatorname{dom} f}(x) = \mathbb{Y}$$

for an arbitrary point x in dom  $f \cap A^{-1}$  dom g. Since by part (b),  $AT_{\text{dom }f}(x) \subset T_{A \text{ dom }f}(Ax)$ , we have

$$\mathbb{Y} = T_{\operatorname{dom} g}(Ax) - AT_{\operatorname{dom} f}(x) \subset T_{\operatorname{dom} g}(Ax) - T_{A\operatorname{dom} f}(Ax) \implies T_{\operatorname{dom} g}(Ax) - T_{A\operatorname{dom} f}(Ax) = \mathbb{Y}.$$

By part (d), this implies  $0 \in \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} g - A \operatorname{dom} f)$ .

20 \*\* (Properties of the relative interior). (We use Exercise 9 (Open mapping theorem), as well as Section 1.1, Exercise 13.)

(a) Let D be a nonempty convex set in  $\mathbb{E}$ . Prove D is a linear subspace if and only if  $\operatorname{cl} D$  is a linear subspace. (Hint:  $\operatorname{ri} D \neq \emptyset$ .)

If D is a linear subspace, then since linear subspaces are closed, cl D is a linear subspace. Now suppose cl D is a linear subspace, and suppose  $v \in \operatorname{cl} D$ . If  $v \notin \operatorname{aff} D$ , then since aff D is closed and convex, v has a positive distance to aff D. But,  $D \subset \operatorname{aff} D$ , and there is a sequence in D converging to v, contradiction. Thus,  $v \in \operatorname{aff} D$ . In particular,  $0 \in \operatorname{aff} D$ , so aff  $D = \operatorname{Span} D$ .

By section 1.1 Exercise 13 (b), ri D is nonempty. Let  $x \in \operatorname{ri} D$ . There exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that for any  $v \in \operatorname{aff}(D) - x = \operatorname{aff}(D) - 0 = \operatorname{Span}(D)$  where  $||v|| \le \varepsilon$ ,  $x + v \in D$ . Now let  $y \in \operatorname{cl} D$  be arbitrary. Since  $x \in \operatorname{cl} D$  and  $\operatorname{cl} D$  is linear,  $x + y \in \operatorname{cl} D$ . Then, there is an element  $u \in D$   $\varepsilon$  close to x + y. Define  $\eta = u - (x + y)$ . Since  $||\eta|| \le \varepsilon$ , we have  $x - \eta \in D$ . By convexity of D,

$$\frac{1}{2}u + \frac{1}{2}(x - \eta) = \frac{1}{2}(x + y + \eta) + \frac{1}{2}(x - \eta) = x + \frac{1}{2}y \in D.$$

Since  $y \in \operatorname{cl} D$ , a linear space containing x, was arbitrary, y = 2(z - x) for arbitrary  $z \in \operatorname{cl} D$  shows that  $\operatorname{cl} D \subset D$ . I.e., D is a linear subspace. This finishes the proof.

- (b) For a point x in a convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$ , prove the following properties are equivalent:
  - (i)  $x \in \operatorname{ri} C$ . (i)  $\Longrightarrow$  (ii): By Section 1.1 Exercise 13 (d),  $x \in \operatorname{ri} C$  implies  $\mathbb{R}_+(C-x)$  is a linear subspace. Since linear subspaces are closed  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C-x) = \mathbb{R}_+(C-x)$  is a linear subspace.
  - (ii) The tangent cone cl  $\mathbb{R}_+(C-x)$  is a linear subspace. (ii)  $\Longrightarrow$  (iii): Since  $N_C(x) = (\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{R}_+(C-x))^- = (T_C(x))^-$ ,  $N_C(x) = \{\phi : \langle \phi, z \rangle \leq 0 \text{ for all } z \in T_C(x) \}$ . If  $\langle \phi, z \rangle < 0$ , then  $\langle \phi, -z \rangle > 0$  and  $-z \in T_C(x)$  since  $T_C(x)$  is a linear subspace, i.e.  $\phi \notin N_C(x)$ . Thus,  $N_C(x) = \{\phi : \langle \phi, z \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } z \in T_C(x)\} = T_C(x)^\perp$ , the orthogonal complement of  $T_C(x)$ , which is a linear subspace.
  - (iii) The normal cone  $N_C(x)$  is a linear subspace. (iii)  $\Longrightarrow$  (iv): Being a convex cone closed under negation implies being a linear subspace, since convex cones are closed under addition of nonnegative multiples.

- (iv)  $y \in N_C(x) \Rightarrow -y \in N_C(x)$ . (iv)  $\Longrightarrow$  (i): (iv) implies that  $N_C(x) = \{\phi \in \mathbb{E} : \langle \phi, z \rangle = 0 \ \forall z \in C - x\}$ . Since the condition  $\langle \cdot, z \rangle = 0$  is closed under linear combinations,  $N_C(x)$  is linear. Thus,  $\operatorname{cl}(\mathbb{R}_+(C-x)) = N_C(x)^- = N_C(x)^\perp$  is linear. Thus, by part (a)  $\mathbb{R}_+(C-x)$  is linear. Thus, by Section 1.1 Exercise 13 (d),  $x \in \operatorname{ri} C$ .
- (c) For a convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$  and a linear map  $A : \mathbb{E} \to \mathbb{Y}$ , prove  $A \text{ ri } C \supset \text{ri } AC$ , and deduce

$$A \operatorname{ri} C = \operatorname{ri} AC$$
.

I found this question difficult...

Suppose  $y \in \text{ri } AC$ . Denote  $C \cap A^{-1}y = \{x \in C : Ax = y\}$  and take  $\bar{x} \in \text{ri}(C \cap A^{-1}y)$ . We will show that  $\bar{x} \in \text{ri } C$ , which would imply  $y \in A \text{ ri } C$  since  $A\bar{x} = y$  by definition of  $C \cap A^{-1}y$ . We will do so by showing condition (iv) from the previous part. Using the fundamental theorem of linear algebra, we can express an arbitrary element of  $N_C(\bar{x})$  as  $A^*\phi + w$ , where  $w \in \text{null}(A)$ . For any  $x' \in C$ , we have

$$\langle \phi, Ax' - y \rangle + \langle w, x' - \bar{x} \rangle = \langle A^* \phi + w, x' - \bar{x} \rangle \le 0. \tag{0.2.2}$$

For any  $x' \in C \cap A^{-1}y$ , this says  $\langle w, x' - \bar{x} \rangle \leq 0$ , i.e.  $w \in N_{C \cap A^{-1}y}(\bar{x})$ . Since  $\bar{x} \in \mathrm{ri}(C \cap A^{-1})$ ,  $-w \in N_{C \cap A^{-1}y}(\bar{x})$ , i.e.  $\langle w, x' - \bar{x} \rangle = 0$  for every  $x' \in C \cap A^{-1}y$ . Now since  $y \in \mathrm{ri}\,AC$ , for any  $z \in AC$ , there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $y + \epsilon(y - z) \in AC$  (See Section 1.1 Exercise 13 (d)). So there exist  $x', \tilde{x} \in C$  where Ax' = z and  $A\tilde{x} = y + \epsilon(y - z)$ . Now observe that

$$A\left(\frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}x'+\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\tilde{x}\right)=\frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}z+\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}(y+\epsilon(y-z))=y\implies\frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}x'+\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\tilde{x}\in C\cap A^{-1}y.$$

Furthermore, applying (0.2.2) to x' and  $\tilde{x}$ , we get

$$Q_1 := \langle \phi, z - y \rangle + \langle w, x' - \bar{x} \rangle \le 0, \qquad Q_2 := \epsilon \langle \phi, y - z \rangle + \langle w, \tilde{x} - \bar{x} \rangle \le 0.$$

But in fact, if we add the left hand sides, scaled by  $\epsilon/(1+\epsilon)$  and  $1/(1+\epsilon)$ ,

$$\frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}Q_1 + \frac{1}{1+\epsilon}Q_2 = \left\langle w, \frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}x' + \frac{1}{1+\epsilon}\tilde{x} \right\rangle = 0$$

because  $\epsilon x'/(1+\epsilon) + \bar{x}/(1+\epsilon) \in C \cap A^{-1}y$ . We added together two nonpositive things and produced zero; therefore, they must both equal 0. Since x' was essentially arbitrary (we took arbitrary  $z \in AC$ , and arbitrary  $x' \in C$  where Ax' = z), we have  $\langle A^*\phi + w, x' - \bar{x} \rangle = 0$  for all  $x' \in C$ . Thus,  $-(A^*\phi + w) \in N_C(\bar{x})$ . Thus, by part (b),  $\bar{x} \in \mathrm{ri}\,C$ . Since part (e) of Section 1.1, Exercise 13 shows  $A\,\mathrm{ri}\,C \subset \mathrm{ri}\,AC$ ,  $A\,\mathrm{ri}\,C = \mathrm{ri}\,AC$ .

(d) Suppose U and V are convex sets in  $\mathbb{E}$ . Deduce

$$ri(U - V) = ri U - ri V.$$

Use part (c) with the linear map  $A : \mathbb{E} \times \mathbb{E}$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto x - y$  and convex set  $U \times V$ .

(e) Apply Section 3.1, Exercise 29 (Relativizing the Max formula) to conclude that the condition (3.3.8) in the Fenchel theorem (3.3.5) can be replaced by

$$\operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} g) \cap A \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} f) \neq \emptyset.$$

The proof of the Fenchel theorem hinges on the existence of a subgradient of  $h(u) = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{E}} \{f(x) + g(Ax + u)\}$  at 0, which holds if  $0 \in \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} h) = \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} g - A \operatorname{dom} f)$ . Section 3.1, Exercise 29 shows that a subgradient exists if  $0 \in \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} h) = \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} g - A \operatorname{dom} f)$ . By part (d) and (c), this equals  $0 \in \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} g) - \operatorname{ri}(A \operatorname{dom} f) = \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} g) - A \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} f)$ . I.e.,  $\operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} g) \cap A \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} f) \neq \emptyset$ .

(f) Suppose the function  $f: \mathbb{E} \to (-\infty, +\infty]$  is bounded below on the convex set  $C \subset \mathbb{E}$ , and  $\operatorname{ri} C \cap \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} f) \neq \emptyset$ . Prove there is an affine function  $\alpha \leq f$  with  $\operatorname{inf}_C f = \operatorname{inf}_C \alpha$ . By  $\operatorname{ri} C \cap \operatorname{ri}(\operatorname{dom} f) \neq \emptyset$  and f being bounded below on C, the following problems equal and have finite value:

$$\inf_{x \in C} \{ f(x) \} = \sup_{\phi \in \mathbb{E}} \{ -f^*(\phi) - \delta_C^*(-\phi) \}$$

$$= \sup_{\phi \in \mathbb{E}} \{ -\sup_{x' \in \mathbb{E}} \{ \langle \phi, x' \rangle - f(x') \} - \sup_{x \in C} \langle -\phi, x \rangle \}$$

$$= \sup_{\phi \in \mathbb{E}} \{ \inf_{x' \in \mathbb{E}} \{ f(x') - \langle \phi, x' \rangle \} + \inf_{x \in C} \langle \phi, x \rangle \}.$$

Moreover, the sup is obtained by some  $\phi \in \mathbb{E}$ , so that

$$\inf_{x \in C} f(x) = \inf_{x' \in \mathbb{R}} \{ f(x') - \langle \phi, x' \rangle \} + \inf_{x \in C} \langle \phi, x \rangle.$$

In other words,  $\inf_C f = \inf_C \alpha$  for the affine  $\alpha = \inf_{x' \in \mathbb{E}} \{ f(x') - \langle \phi, x' \rangle \} + \langle \phi, \cdot \rangle$ . Moreover, by definition

$$\alpha(x) = \langle \phi, x \rangle + \inf_{x' \in \mathbb{R}} \{ f(x') - \langle \phi, x' \rangle \} \le \langle \phi, x \rangle + f(x) - \langle \phi, x \rangle = f(x).$$

**21** \*\* (Essential smoothness). For any convex f and any point  $x \in \operatorname{bd}(\operatorname{dom} f)$ , prove  $\partial f(x)$  is either empty or unbounded. Deduce that a function is essentially smooth if and only if its subdifferential is always singleton or empty.

*Proof.* If  $\phi \in \partial f(x)$ , then for any  $d \in N_{\text{dom } f}(x)$  and  $x' \in \text{dom } f$ ,

$$\langle \phi + d, x' - x \rangle \le \langle \phi, x' - x \rangle \le f(x') - f(x),$$

proving that  $\phi + d \in \partial f(x)$ . If  $x \in \operatorname{bd}(\operatorname{dom} f)$ , then  $x \notin \operatorname{int}(\operatorname{dom} f) = \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} f)$  by Theorem 4.1.4 (Core and interior). Thus,  $\mathbb{R}_+(\operatorname{dom} f - x) \neq \mathbb{E}$ . Thus,  $T_{\operatorname{dom} f}(x) \neq \mathbb{E}$ . Thus,  $N_{\operatorname{dom} f}(x) \neq \{0\}$ . Thus,  $N_{\operatorname{dom} f}$  is unbounded, which implies  $\partial f(x)$  is unbounded if nonempty. Since  $\operatorname{dom} \partial f \subset \operatorname{core}(\operatorname{dom} f)$  for essentially smooth f, (see proof of Section 3.1 Exercise 24), we can apply the max formula (Theorem 3.1.8) to any point  $\bar{x} \in \operatorname{dom} \partial f$  to show that  $\partial f(\bar{x})$  is a singleton. Did I overkill the convex analysis? XD

# 22 \*\* (Birkhoff's theorem [15]) We use the notation of Section 1.2.

(a) Prove  $\mathbb{P}^n = \{(z_{ij}) \in \Gamma^n \mid z_{ij} = 0 \text{ or } 1 \text{ for all } i, j\}.$ 

The provided definition of  $\mathbb{P}^n$  is that each entry is 0 or 1 and each row and each column contains one 1. If  $X \in \mathbb{P}^n$ , clearly it is doubly stochastic and 0-1, showing  $\subset$ . If on the other hand, X is 0-1 and doubly stochastic, each row and column contains exactly one 1, since if some row/column contains 0 ones, the sum is 0 < 1, and if it contains more than one 1, the sum is strictly greater than 1. This proves  $\supset$ .

(b) Prove  $\mathbb{P}^n \subset \operatorname{ext}(\Gamma^n)$ .

If  $\lambda \in (0,1)$  and  $X_1 \neq X_2 \in \Gamma^n$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{P}^n$ ,  $\lambda X_1 + (1-\lambda)X_2 \neq X$  because  $\lambda X_1 + (1-\lambda)X_2 \notin \mathbb{P}^n$ : if  $\lambda X_1 + (1-\lambda)X_2$  is 0-1, then  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are both 0-1 (or else some entry is in (0,1)), and have ones in the same places for the same reason. In other words,  $X_1 = X_2$ , a contradiction. Thus,  $X \in \text{ext}(\Gamma^n)$ .

(c) Suppose  $(z_{ij}) \in \Gamma^n \setminus \mathbb{P}^n$ . Prove there exist sequences of distinct indices  $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_m$  and  $j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_m$  such that

$$0 < z_{i_r, j_r}, z_{i_{r+1}, j_r} < 1 \quad (r = 1, 2, \dots, m)$$

(where  $i_{m+1} = i_1$ ). For these sequences, show the matrix  $(z'_{i,j})$  defined by

$$z'_{ij} - z_{ij} = \begin{cases} \epsilon & \text{if } (i,j) = (i_r, j_r) \text{ for some } r \\ -\epsilon & \text{if } (i,j) = (i_{r+1}, j_r) \text{ for some } r \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is doubly stochastic for all small real  $\epsilon$ . Deduce  $(z_{ij}) \notin \text{ext}(\Gamma^n)$ .

Since  $(z_{ij}) \notin \mathbb{P}^n$ , we can find  $(i_1, j_1)$  such that  $z_{i_1, j_1} \in (0, 1)$ . Since  $(z_{ij}) \in \Gamma^n$ , there must be  $(i_2, j_1)$  with  $z_{i_2, j_1} \in (0, 1)$  (the  $j_1$  column sums to 1). Since the  $i_2$  row sums to 1, there must be  $(i_2, j_2)$  with  $z_{i_2, j_2} \in (0, 1)$ . Since the  $j_2$  column sums to 1, we can find  $(i_3, j_2), \ldots$  This gives a sequence

$$S = (i_1, j_1), (i_2, j_1), (i_2, j_2), (i_3, j_2), (i_3, j_3), \dots \qquad (i, j) \in S \implies z_{ij} \in (0, 1).$$

Suppose that  $(i_n)$  repeats at or before  $(j_n)$  repeats. That is, there exist k < l with  $i_k = i_l$  and  $j_n \neq j_m$  for all n, m < l. Consider the subsequence

$$(i_k, j_k), (i_{k+1}, j_k), \dots, (i_{l-1}, j_{l-1}), (i_k = i_l, j_{l-1}).$$

By construction,  $i_{k+1} \neq i_k$ , so l > k+1 and  $i_k, \ldots, i_{l-1}$  and  $j_k, \ldots, j_{l-1}$  are sequences of distinct elements of length at least 2. The exhibited subsequence demonstrates that these sequences fit the desired requirements.

Now suppose that  $(j_n)$  repeats before  $(i_n)$  does. Then for some k < l,  $j_k = j_l$  and  $i_1, \ldots, i_l$  are distinct. Similarly by construction  $j_k \neq j_{k+1}$  so l > k+1. Consider

$$(i_{k+1}, j_k = j_l), (i_{k+1}, j_{k+1}), \dots, (i_l, j_l = j_k).$$

This subsequence shows that  $i_{k+1}, \ldots, i_l$  and  $j_{k+1}, \ldots, j_l$  are sequences of distinct elements of length at least 2 satisfying the desired properties.

Now since each row and column of  $z'_{ij} - z_{ij}$  sums to 0 (they are either 0 or have an  $\epsilon$  and a  $-\epsilon$ ), for  $|\epsilon|$  small enough  $z'_{ij}$  is doubly stochastic. Thus,  $(z_{ij}) \notin \text{ext}(\Gamma^n)$ .

- (d) Deduce  $\operatorname{ext}(\Gamma^n) = \mathbb{P}^n$ . Deduce Birkhoff's theorem (1.2.5). By part (b),  $\mathbb{P}^n \subset \operatorname{ext}(\Gamma^n)$  and by part (c),  $\operatorname{ext}(\Gamma^n) \subset \mathbb{P}^n$ . Thus  $\operatorname{ext}(\Gamma^n) = \mathbb{P}^n$ . By Theorem 4.1.8 (Minkowski) and compact convexity of  $\Gamma^n$ ,  $\Gamma^n = \operatorname{conv}(\mathbb{P}^n)$ , which is Birkhoff's theorem.
- (e) Use Caratheodory's theorem (Section 2.2, Exercise 5) to bound the number of permutation matrices needed to represent a doubly stochastic matrix in Birkhoff's theorem. Caratheodory's theorem states that any element in the convex hull of  $\langle a^i \mid i \in I \rangle$  can be expressed as a convex combination of elements in some  $J \subset I$  where  $|J| \leq 1 + \dim \mathbb{E}$ . The dimension of  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \supset \mathbb{P}^n$  is  $n^2$  and  $\operatorname{conv}(\mathbb{P}^n) = \Gamma^n$ , so any doubly stochastic matrix can be represented by  $n^2 + 1$  permutation matrices. (Actually  $\dim \operatorname{Span}(\mathbb{P}^2) = 2$ , and any linear combination of permutation matrices have row and column sums identical, i.e.  $X\mathbf{1} = X^{\top}\mathbf{1} = c\mathbf{1}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , so it's smaller XD).