# 1 Convex Sets and Functions

## 1.1 Convex Sets

**Definition:**(Convex sets) A subset C of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called *convex* if

 $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in C, \ \forall \ x, y \in C, \ \forall \lambda \in [0, 1].$ 

Geometrically, it just means that the line segment joining any two points in a convex set C lies in C.



Figure 1: Convex and non-convex set

**Definition:**(Convex combination) Given  $x_1, ..., x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , an element in the form  $x = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ , where  $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1$  and  $\lambda_i \ge 0$  is called a convex combination of  $x_1, ..., x_m$ .

**Proposition:** A subset C of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if and only if contains all convex combination of its element.

*Proof.* Suppose C is convex. We will show by induction that it contains all convex combination  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i x_i$  of its elements.

The case m = 1, 2 is trivial, so suppose all convex combination of k elements lies in C, where  $k \leq m$ . Consider

$$x := \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} \lambda_i x_i, \text{ where } \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} \lambda_i = 1$$

If  $\lambda_{m+1} = 1$ , then  $\lambda_1 = \cdot = \lambda_m = 0$ . Then  $x \in C$ . So assume  $\lambda_{m+1} < 1$ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i = 1 - \lambda_{m+1} \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\lambda_i}{1 - \lambda_{m+1}} = 1$$

Then  $y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\lambda_i}{1-\lambda_{m+1}} x_i \in C$ . Hence

$$x = (1 - \lambda_{m+1})y + \lambda_{m+1}x_{m+1} \in C$$

The other direction is trivial.

**Proposition:** Let  $C_1$  be a convex set of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $C_2$  be a convex set pf  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . Then the Cartesian product  $C_1 \times C_2$  is a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$ .

#### 1.1.1 Examples of Convex Sets

- (a) Open and closed balls in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- (b) Hyperplanes:  $\{x : \langle a, x \rangle = b, a \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$
- (c) Halfspaces:  $\{x : \langle a, x \rangle \leq b, a \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$
- (d) Non-Negative Orthant:  $\mathbb{R}^n_+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \ge 0\}.$
- (e) Convex cones: C is called a *cone* if  $\alpha x \in C, \forall \alpha > 0, x \in C$ . A cone which is convex is called a *convex cone*.



Figure 2: Examples of convex sets

**Proposition:** Let  $\{C_i \mid i \in I\}$  be a collection of convex sets. Then:

- (a)  $\cap_{i \in I} C_i$  is convex, where each  $C_i$  is convex.
- (b)  $C_1 + C_2 = \{x + y \mid x \in C_1, y \in C_2\}$  is convex.
- (c)  $\lambda C$  is convex for any convex sets C and scalar  $\lambda$ . Furthermore,  $(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)C = \lambda_1 C + \lambda_2 C$  for positive  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ .
- (d)  $C^{o}, \overline{C}$  are convex, i.e. the interior and closure of a convex set are convex.
- (e)  $T(C), T^{-1}(C)$  are convex, where T is a linear map.

*Proof.* Parts (a)-(c), (e) follows from the definition (Exercise!). Let's prove (d). Interior Let  $x, y \in C^{\circ}$ . Then there exists r such that balls with radius r centred at x and y are both inside C.

Suppose  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  and ||z|| < r. By convexity of C, we have,

$$\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y + z = \lambda(x + z) + (1 - \lambda)(y + z) \in C$$

Therefore,  $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in C^{\circ}$ . Hence  $C^{\circ}$  is convex. <u>Closure</u> Let  $x, y \in \overline{C}$ . Then there exists sequences  $\{x_k\} \subset C, \{y_k\} \subset C$  such

that  $x_k \to x, y_k \to y$ . Suppose  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ . Then for each k,

 $\lambda x_k + (1 - \lambda) y_k \in C$ 

But  $\lambda x_k + (1 - \lambda)y_k \rightarrow \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in \overline{C}$ . Hence,  $\overline{C}$  is convex.

## 1.2 Convex and Affine Hulls

#### 1.2.1 Convex Hull

#### **Definition:**(Convex Hull)

Let X be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The convex hull of X is defined by

$$\operatorname{conv}(X) := \bigcap \{ C | C \text{ is convex and } X \subseteq C \}$$

In other words, conv(X) is the smallest convex set containing X. The next proposition provides a good representation for elements in the convex hull.

**Proposition:** For any subset X of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\operatorname{conv}(X) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i x_i | \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i = 1, \ \lambda_i \ge 0, \ x_i \in X \right\}$$

*Proof.* Let  $C = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i x_i | \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i = 1, \lambda_i \ge 0, x_i \in X \right\}$ . Clearly,  $X \subseteq C$ . Next, we check that C is convex.

Let  $a = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i a_i, b = \sum_{j=1}^{q} \beta_j b_j$  be elements of C, where  $a_i, b_i \in C$  with  $\alpha_i, \beta_j \ge 0$  and  $\sum \alpha_i = \sum \beta_j = 1$ . Suppose  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , then

$$\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda \alpha_i a_i + \sum_{j=1}^{q} (1 - \lambda)\beta_j b_j.$$

Since

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda \alpha_i + \sum_{j=1}^{q} (1-\lambda)\beta_j = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i + (1-\lambda) \sum_{j=1}^{q} \beta_j = 1$$

we have  $\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b \in C$ . Hence, C is convex. Also,  $\operatorname{conv}(X) \subseteq C$  by the definition of  $\operatorname{conv}(X)$ .

Suppose  $a = \sum \lambda_i a_i \in C$ . Then since each  $a_i \in X \subseteq \text{conv}(X)$  and conv(X) is convex, we have  $a \in \text{conv}(X)$ . Therefore, conv(X) = C.



Figure 3: Examples of convex hull

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , define the interval

$$[a,b) := \{\lambda a + (1-\lambda)b \mid \lambda \in (0,1]\}$$

The intervals (a, b], (a, b) are defined similarly.

**Lemma:** For a convex set  $C \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with nonempty interior, take  $a \in C^{\circ}$  and  $b \in \overline{C}$ . Then  $[a, b) \subset C^{\circ}$ .

*Proof.* Since  $b \in \overline{C}$ , for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we have  $b \in C + \epsilon \mathbf{B}$ , where **B** denotes the closed unit ball centered at 0.

Take  $\lambda \in (0,1]$  and let  $x_{\lambda} := \lambda a + (1-\lambda)b$ . Let  $\epsilon$  be such that  $a + \epsilon \frac{2-\lambda}{\lambda} \mathbf{B} \subset C$ .

$$x_{\lambda} + \epsilon \mathbf{B} = \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b + \epsilon \mathbf{B}$$
  

$$\subset \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)[C + \epsilon \mathbf{B}] + \epsilon \mathbf{B}$$
  

$$= \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)C + (2 - \lambda)\epsilon \mathbf{B}$$
  

$$\subset \lambda [a + \epsilon \frac{2 - \lambda}{\lambda} \mathbf{B}] + (1 - \lambda)C$$
  

$$\subset \lambda C + (1 - \lambda)C \subset C$$

Hence  $x_{\lambda} \in C^{\circ}$  and  $[a, b) \subset C^{\circ}$ .

## 1.2.2 Affine Sets and Affine Hull

Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the line connecting them is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}[a,b] := \{\lambda a + (1-\lambda)b | \ \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Note that there is no restriction on  $\lambda$ .

**Definition:**(Affine Set) A subset S of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is affine if for any  $a, b \in S$ , we have  $\mathcal{L}[a, b] \subseteq S$ .

## **Definition:**(Affine Combination)

Given  $x_1, ..., x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , an element in the form  $x = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i x_i$ , where  $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i = 1$  is called an affine combination of  $x_1, ..., x_m$ .

**Proposition:** A set S is affine if and only if it contains all affine combination of its elements.

**Definition:**(Affine Hull) The *affine hull* of a set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is

 $\operatorname{aff}(X):=\bigcap\{S|\ S \text{ is affine and } X\subseteq S\}$ 

**Proposition:** For any subset X of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\operatorname{aff}(X) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i x_i | \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i = 1, \ x_i \in X \right\}$$

In fact, an affine set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is of the form x + V, where  $x \in S$  and V is a vector space called the subspace parallel to S.



Figure 4: Affine hull and the parallel subspace

**Lemma:** Let S be nonempty. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. S is affine
- 2. S is of the form x + V for some subspace  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x \in S$ .

Also, V is unique and equals to S - S.

*Proof.* Suppose S is affine. We first assume  $0 \in S$ . Let  $x \in S$  and  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $0 \in S$ , we have  $\gamma x + (1 - \gamma)0 = \gamma x \in S$ . Now, suppose  $x, y \in S$ . Then  $x + y = 2(\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}y) \in S$ . Hence, S is closed under addition and scalar multiplication. Therefore, S = 0 + S is a linear subspace. If  $0 \notin S$ , then  $0 \in S - x$  for any  $x \in S$ . So S - x is a linear subspace. Therefore, S = x + V.

The other direction is simple, just use the fact that V is a linear subspace.

Now suppose  $S = x_1 + V_1 = x_2 + V_2$ , where  $x_1, x_2 \in S$ ,  $V_1, V_2$  are linear subspaces. Then  $x_1 - x_2 + V_1 = V_2$ . Since  $V_2$  is a subspace,  $x_1 - x_2 \in V_1$ . So  $V_2 = x_1 - x_2 + V_1 \subseteq V_1$ . Similarly,  $V_1 \subseteq V_2$ . Therefore V is unique.

Since S = x + V, so  $V = S - x \subseteq S - S$ . Let  $u, v \in S$  and z = u - v. Then S - v = V by the uniqueness of V. So  $z \in S - v = V$  and hence  $S - S \subseteq V$ .  $\Box$ 

**Definition:**(Dimension of affine and convex sets) The dimension of aff(X) is defined to be the dimension of the subspace parallel to X. The dimension of a convex set C is defined to be the dimension of aff(C).