# Convexity Statistics 710 September 19, 2006 

Prologue. There are interesting statistical problems in which an unknown function $f$, say, is to be estimated, subject to certain shape restrictions. For example, consider a regression problem

$$
y_{i}=f\left(t_{i}\right)+\epsilon_{i}, i=1, \cdots, n,
$$

where $\epsilon_{1}, \cdots, \epsilon_{n}$ are random errors with means 0 and finite variances and $f$ is known (only) to be non-decreasing, or convex, or to satisfy some other shape restriction. For example, an average response may well be increasing with time, even though individual measures may not. Global warming provides a specific example. Assuming that the error are i.i.d. for simplicity, and letting $\theta_{i}=f\left(t_{i}\right)$, least squares estimation of $\theta$ requires minimizing a function of the form

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left[y_{i}-\theta_{i}\right]^{2}
$$

with respect to $\theta=\left[\theta_{1}, \cdots, \theta_{n}\right]^{\prime}$. Let $\mathcal{F}$ denote the class of allowable $f$. Then $\theta \in \Omega:=$ $\left\{\left[f\left(t_{1}\right), \cdots, f\left(t_{n}\right): f \in \mathcal{F}\right\}\right.$, and the latter set is often convex. For example, if $f$ is known to be non-dreasing, then

$$
\Omega=\left\{\theta:-\infty<\theta_{1} \leq \cdots \leq \theta_{n}<\infty\right\}
$$

a convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.
Hilbert Spaces. Let $\mathcal{H}$ denote a (real) Hilbert space. Thus, $\mathcal{H}$ is a linear space to together with a function $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle \rightarrow R$ for which

$$
\begin{gathered}
\langle x, y\rangle=\langle y, x\rangle \\
\langle x, \alpha y+\beta z\rangle=\alpha\langle x, y\rangle+\beta\langle x, z\rangle
\end{gathered}
$$

for all $x, y, z \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, and

$$
\langle x, x\rangle>0
$$

for all $x \neq 0$; and the norm in $\mathcal{H}$ is defined by

$$
\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x, x\rangle} ;
$$

and $\mathcal{H}$ is complete in the metric $d(x, y)=\|x-y\|$.

Example 1 a) Euclidean Space. $\mathcal{H}=\mathbb{R}^{m}$ with $\langle x, y\rangle=x^{\prime} y=x_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+x_{m} y_{m}$ or, more generally, $\langle x, y\rangle=x^{\prime} A y$, where $A$ is a symmetric, positive definite matrix.
b) More on Euclidean Space. $\mathcal{H}$ be the set of $m \times m$ matrices with $\langle x, y\rangle=\operatorname{tr}\left(x y^{\prime}\right)$.
c) $L^{2}$. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ is a measure space; and let $L^{2}(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ be the set of (equivalence classes) of square integrable functions with

$$
\langle f, g\rangle=\int f g d \mu
$$

d) Sobelov space. Let $\mathcal{S}_{2}$ be the set of twice differentiable functions $f:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for which $\int_{0}^{1} f^{\prime \prime}(x)^{2} d x<\infty$, and let

$$
\langle f, g\rangle=f(0) g(0)+f^{\prime}(0) g^{\prime}(0)+\int_{0}^{1} f(x) g(x) d x
$$

Remarks. The primary uses of convexity will be with $\mathcal{H}=R^{m}$, and little is lost by focussing on this case. On the other hand many of the definitions extend to (even) more general linear spaces.

Some Properties. Let $\mathcal{H}$ is a Hilbert space. Then Schwarz' Inequality asserts

$$
\langle x, y\rangle \leq\|x\| \times\|y\|
$$

for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$; and the Parallelogram Laws assert:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\|x+y\|^{2}+\|x-y\|^{2}=2\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2} \\
\|x+y\|^{2}-\|x-y\|^{2}=4\langle x, y\rangle
\end{gathered}
$$

for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$.
Linear Functional. A function $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be a linear functional if $f[\alpha x+\beta y]=$ $\alpha f(x)+\beta f(y)$ whenever $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. For example, if $y \in \mathcal{H}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\langle x, y\rangle, x \in \mathcal{H} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

defines a continuous linear functional, a linear functional that is continuous in the metric. It is a theorem that any continuous linear functional can be represented in the form (1) for some $y \in \mathcal{H}$ depending on the linear functional.

Convex Sets. Recall that a subset $\mathcal{H}_{0} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is called a linear subspace if it is closed under addition and scalar multiplication: that is $\alpha x+\beta y \in \mathcal{H}_{0}$ whenever $x, y \in \mathcal{H}_{0}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Similarly, a subset $C \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ is said to convex if it contains the line joining any two of its elements; that is $\alpha x+(1-\alpha) y \in C$ whenever $x, y \in C$ and $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$. A convex set $C$ is said to be a cone if $\alpha x \in C$ whenever $x \in C$ and $\alpha \geq 0$ in which case $\alpha x+\beta y \in C$ whenever $x, y \in C$ and $0 \leq \alpha, \beta<\infty$. Any linear subspace is a convex cone. Any ball, $B=\{x \in \mathcal{H}:\|x\| \leq c\}$ is a convex set (since $\|\alpha x+(1-\alpha) y\| \leq \alpha\|x\|+(1-\alpha)\|y\| \leq c$ whenever $\|x\|,\|y\| \leq c$, but not a convex cone.

Example 2 If $f_{i}, i \in I$ are continuous linear functionals, then

$$
C=\left\{x \in \mathcal{H}: f_{i}(x) \geq 0, \text { for all } i \in I\right\}
$$

is a convex cone.
Projections. If $C$ is a closed convex set and $z \in \mathcal{H}$, then there is a $x \in C$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|x-z\|=\inf _{y \in C}\|y-z\| ; \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $x$ is the unique point in $C$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle y-x, x-z\rangle \geq 0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $y \in C$. For the existence, let $i$ denote the infimum and let $y_{n} \in C$ be a sequence for which $\left\|y_{n}-z\right\| \rightarrow i$. Then

$$
\left\|y_{n}-y_{m}\right\|^{2}=\left\|y_{n}-z\right\|^{2}+\left\|y_{m}-z\right\|^{2}-2\left\langle y_{n}-z, y_{m}-z\right\rangle
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
2\left\langle y_{n}-z, y_{m}-z\right\rangle & =\frac{\left\|y_{n}+y_{m}-2 z\right\|^{2}-\left\|y_{n}-y_{m}\right\|^{2}}{2} \\
& =2\left\|\frac{y_{n}+y_{m}}{2}-z\right\|^{2}-\frac{\left\|y_{n}-y_{m}\right\|^{2}}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

by the parallelogram law. So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{2}\left\|y_{n}-y_{m}\right\|^{2} & =\left\|y_{n}-z\right\|^{2}+\left\|y_{m}-z\right\|^{2}-2\left\|\frac{y_{n}+y_{m}}{2}-z\right\|^{2} \\
& \leq\left\|y_{n}-z\right\|^{2}+\left\|y_{m}-z\right\|^{2}-21^{2} \\
& \rightarrow 0
\end{aligned}
$$

as $m, n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus, $y_{n}$ is a Cauchy sequence and, therefore, a convergent sequence. Let $x=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} y_{n}$. Then $x \in C$, since $C$ is closed, and $\|x-z\|=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left\|y_{n}-z\right\|=i$. For (3): If $y \in C$ and $0<t<1$, then $x+t(y-x)=(1-t) x+t y \in C$, so that

$$
0 \leq\|[x+t(y-x)]-z\|^{2}-\|x-z\|^{2}=2 t\langle y-x, x-z\rangle+t^{2}\|y-x\|^{2}
$$

and, therefore,

$$
\langle y-x, x-z\rangle \geq-t\|y-x\|^{2} / 2
$$

The inequality (3) then follows by letting $t \rightarrow 0$. Finally, it must be shown that only one $x \in C$ can satisfy (3). If $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ both satisfy (3), then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle x_{2}-x_{1}, x_{1}-z\right\rangle \geq 0 \\
& \left\langle x_{1}-x_{2}, x_{2}-z\right\rangle \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

by setting $y=x_{2}$ and $y=x_{1}$. Adding these two inequalities then gives

$$
-\left\|x_{1}-x_{2}\right\|^{2}=\left\langle x_{1}-x_{2}, x_{2}-x_{1}\right\rangle \geq 0
$$

and, therefore, $x_{1}=x_{2}$. The element $x \in \mathcal{C}$ is called the projection of $z$ onto $\mathcal{C}$ and denoted by $\Pi_{C}(z)$.

If $C$ is a convex cone, then setting $y=x / 2$ and $y=2 x$ in (3) shows that $\langle x, x-z\rangle=0$. So, $x$ is the unique element of $C$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
x \in C \quad \text { and } \quad\langle y, z-x\rangle=0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $y \in C$; and if $C$ is a linear subspace, then $\pm y \in C$ whenever $y \in C$, so that (4) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle x, z-x\rangle=0 \quad \text { and } \quad\langle y, z-x\rangle \leq 0 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Separation Theorems. For these suppose that $\mathcal{H}$ is a finite dimensional linear space-for example, $\mathcal{H}=R^{m}$.

Te Supporting Hyerplane Theorem: If $C$ is a convex set and $z \notin C^{o}$, the interior of $C$, then there is an $0 \neq w \in \mathcal{H}$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle w, y\rangle \geq\langle w, z\rangle \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $y \in C$. Suppose first the $z \notin \bar{C}$, the closure of $C$, and let $x=\Pi_{C}(z)$ and $w=x-z$. Then, $w \neq 0$, and

$$
\langle w, z\rangle-\langle w, y\rangle=\langle x-z, z-y\rangle=\langle x-z, z-x\rangle+\langle x-z, x-y\rangle \leq 0,
$$

for all $y \in C$ by (3). If $z \in \bar{C}-C^{o}$, then there are $z_{n} \in \bar{C}^{\prime}$ for which $\left\|z_{n}-z\right\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $w_{n} \in \mathcal{H}$ for which $\left\|w_{n}\right\|=1$ for all $n$ and $\left\langle w_{n}, y\right\rangle \geq\left\langle w_{n}, z\right\rangle$ for all $y \in C$. The sequence $w_{n}$ is precompact, since it is bounded; and if $w$ denotes any limit point, then $\|w\|=1$ and (6) holds.

The Separating Hyperplane Theorem: $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are disjoint convex sets, then there is an $0 \neq w \in \mathcal{H}$ for which

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle w, y_{1}\right\rangle \geq\left\langle w, y_{2}\right\rangle \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $y_{1} \in C_{1}$ and $y_{2} \in C_{2}$. To see this let $C=\left\{y_{1}-y_{2}: y_{1} \in C_{1}, y_{2} \in C_{2}\right\}$. Then $C$ is a convex set for which $0 \notin C$. So, by the Supporting Hyperplane Theorem, there is an $w \neq 0$ for which $\langle w, y\rangle \geq\langle w, 0\rangle=0$, and (7) follows by writing $y=y_{1}-y_{2}$.

Problem 1 In the Supporting Hyperplane Theorem, show that if $z \notin \bar{C}$, then $w$ may be chosen so that $\inf y \in C\langle w, y\rangle>\langle w, z\rangle$.

Convex Functions. If $C$ is a convex subset of $\mathcal{H}$ a functon $f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be convex if $f[\alpha x+(1-\alpha) y] \leq \alpha f(x)+(1-\alpha) f(y)$ whenever $x, y \in C$ and $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$; and $f$ is said to be strictly convex if there is strict inequality whenever $x \neq y$ and $0<\alpha<1$.

Clearly if $f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is (strictly) convex and $C_{0} \subseteq C$ is a convex subset of $C$, then the restriction of $f$ to $C_{0}$ is convex. Conversely, if $C$ is convex, $f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and the restriction of $f$ to every line $L(x, y)=\{\alpha x+(1-\alpha) y: 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1\}$ is strictly convex, then $f$ is (strictly) convex. For if $x, y \in C$ and $g(t)=f[t x+(1-t) y]$ is convex in $0 \leq t \leq 1$, then

$$
f[t x+(1-t) y]=g(t) \leq t g(1)+(1-g)(0)=t f(y)+(1-t) f(x)
$$

Derivatives of Convex Functions. If $-\infty \leq a<b \leq \infty$ and $f:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex, then

$$
-\infty<f_{\ell}^{\prime}(y)=\lim _{x \uparrow y} \frac{f(x)-f(y)}{x-y}<\infty
$$

and

$$
-\infty \leq f_{r}^{\prime}(z)=\lim _{w \downarrow z} \frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z}<\infty
$$

exist for $a<y \leq b$ and $a \leq z<b . f_{\ell}^{\prime}$ and $f_{r}^{\prime}$ are both non-decreasing, and

$$
-\infty<f_{\ell}^{\prime}(x) \leq f_{r}^{\prime}(x)<\infty
$$

for $a<x<b$. If $-\infty<a<b<\infty$ and $f$ is convex on $[a, b]$, then $-\infty \leq f_{r}^{\prime}(a)<\infty$ and $-\infty<f_{\ell}^{\prime}(b) \leq \infty$ exist, possibly infinite. To see this, let $a \leq x<y<z \leq b$. Then

$$
y=\frac{(z-y) x+(y-x) z}{z-x}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(y) \leq\left(\frac{z-y}{z-x}\right) f(x)+\left(\frac{y-x}{z-x}\right) f(z) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Subtracting $f(x)$ from both sides of (8) leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x} \leq \frac{f(z)-f(x)}{z-x} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the difference quotients $[f(y)-f(x)] /(y-x)$ are increasing in $y$, and

$$
-\infty \leq f_{r}^{\prime}(x)=\inf _{y>0} \frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x}<\infty
$$

exists. The existence of $f_{\ell}^{\prime}$ can be established similarly.
Next, subtracting $f(y)$ from both sides of (8) leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x} \leq \frac{f(z)-f(y)}{z-y} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and iterating (10),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{f(x)-f(t)}{x-t} \leq \frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x} \leq \frac{f(z)-f(y)}{z-y} \leq \frac{f(w)-f(z)}{w-z} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $a \leq t<x<y<z<w \leq b$. That $-\infty<f_{\ell}^{\prime}(y) \leq f_{r}^{\prime}(y)<\infty$ for $a<y<b$ follows, as does the monotonicity of $f_{\ell}^{\prime}$ and $f_{r}^{\prime}$.

As a consequence: If $a<x<y$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(y)-f(x)=\int_{x}^{y} f_{r}^{\prime}(w) d w \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $-\infty<a<b<\infty$ and $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then (12) holds also when $x=a$ or $y=b$.

Gateaux Derivatives. If $G \subseteq \mathcal{H}$, then an $x \in G$ is called an inner point iff: for every $y \in G,(1-\alpha) x+\alpha y \in G$ for sufficently small $\alpha$. Any interior point is an inner point. If $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $x$ is an inner point, then $f$ is said to have a Gateaux derivative at $x$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
d f_{x}(y):=\lim _{t \downarrow 0} \frac{f[(1-t) x+t y]-f(x)}{t} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists (finite) for each $y \in G$. Then the function $d f_{x}$ is called the (extended) Gateaux derivative of $f$ and $x$. If $d f_{x}$ is a continuous linear functional, then there is an element of $\mathcal{H}$, also denoted by $d f_{x}$ for which

$$
d f_{x}(y)=\left\langle d f_{x}, y\right\rangle
$$

for all $y \in \mathcal{H}$. For example, if $G$ is an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ and $f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable, then

$$
d f(x ; y)=\nabla f(x)^{\prime} y
$$

where $\nabla f(x)$ denotes the gradient,

$$
\nabla f(x)=\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{1}}, \cdots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{m}}\right]^{\prime}
$$

If $f$ has a Gateaux derivative at every $x \in C$, then $f$ is said to be Gateaux differentiable on $C$.

Problem 2 Suppose that $C$ is an convex, open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ and the $f$ is twice continuously differentiable on $C$. Then $f$ is convex iff

$$
\nabla^{2} f(x)=\left[\frac{\partial^{2} f(x)}{\partial x_{j} \partial x_{j}}: i, j=1, \cdots, m\right]
$$

is non-negative definite for all $x \in C$.
If $C \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ and $f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ convex, then $f$ has an extended Gateaux derivative $d f_{x}^{e}: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ at every $x \in C$ in the following sense: the limit in (13) exists for all $y$ of the form $y=z-x$, where $z \in C$. For if $z \in C$, then $g(t)=f([x+t(z-x)]=f[(1-t) x+t z]$ is convex on $[0,1]$ and, therefore, $g_{r}^{\prime}(0)$ exists (possibly $-\infty$ ). Write

$$
\begin{equation*}
d f_{x}^{e}(y)=\lim _{t \downarrow 0} \frac{f[x+t y]-f(x)}{t} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $y \in C-x$. It is clear the $d f_{x}^{e}(y)$ agrees with $d f_{x}(y)$ when the latter exists.
Convex Optimization. Let $C$ be a convex set. Then a necessary and sufficient condition for $x^{*} \in C$ to minimize $f$ is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d f_{x^{*}}^{e}\left(y-x^{*}\right) \geq 0 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $y \in C$. To proof is easy. First if $x^{*}$ minimizes $f$ on $C$ and $y \in C$, then $f\left[(1-t) x^{*}+t y\right] \geq$ $f\left(x^{*}\right)$, so that

$$
0 \leq \frac{f\left[x^{*}+t\left(y-x^{*}\right)\right]-f\left(x^{*}\right)}{t} \rightarrow d f_{x}^{e}\left(y-x^{*}\right)
$$

as $t \downarrow 0$. Conversely, if (15) is satisfied and $y \in C$, then $g(t)=f\left[(1-t) x^{*}+t y\right]$ defines a convex function on $[0,1]$ for which

$$
g_{r}^{\prime}(0)=d f_{x^{*}}^{e}\left(x ; y-x^{*}\right) \geq 0
$$

and, therefore, $g_{r}(t) \geq 0$ for all $0 \leq t \leq 1$. It then follows that

$$
f(y)-f\left(x^{*}\right)=g(1)-g(0)=\int_{0}^{1} g_{r}^{\prime}(t) d t \geq 0
$$

as required.
The result does not assert that the minimum is attained.

Rockafellar [2] provides a more more comprehensive account of convexity. Edwards [1] has a nice chapter on calculus in linear spaces.

## References

[1] Edwards, C.H. (1973). Advanced Calculus of Several Variables. Academic Press.
[2] Rockafellar, R. (1970). Convex Analsis. Princeton.

