

Convex sets		Comments
Convex hull: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> conv $C = \{\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i \mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i \in C, \mathbf{0} \leq \boldsymbol{\theta} \leq \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1}^\top \boldsymbol{\theta} = 1\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> conv C will be the smallest convex set that contains C. conv C will be a finite set as long as C is also finite.
Affine hull: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> aff $C = \{\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i \mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i \in C \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, k, \mathbf{1}^\top \boldsymbol{\theta} = 1\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A will be the smallest affine set that contains C. Different from the convex set, θ_i is not restricted between 0 and 1 aff C will always be an infinite set. If aff C contains the origin, it is also a subspace.
Conic hull: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $A = \{\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i \mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i \in C, \theta_i > 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, k\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A will be the smallest convex conic that contains C. Different from the convex and affine sets, θ_i does not need to sum up 1.
Ray: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathcal{R} = \{\mathbf{x}_0 + \theta \mathbf{v} \mid \theta \geq 0\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ray is an infinite set that begins in \mathbf{x}_0 and extends infinitely in direction of \mathbf{v}. In other words, it has a beginning, but it has no end.
Hyperplane: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x} = b\}$ $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^\top (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{0}\}$ $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{x}_0 + a^\perp$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is an infinite set $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ that divides the space into two halfspaces. $a^\perp = \{\mathbf{v} \mid \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{v} = 0\}$ is the set of vectors perpendicular to \mathbf{a}. It passes through the origin. a^\perp is offset from the origin by \mathbf{x}_0, which is any vector in \mathcal{H}.
Halfspaces: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathcal{H}_- = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$ $\mathcal{H}_+ = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^\top \mathbf{x} \geq b\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> They are infinite sets of the parts divided by \mathcal{H}.
Euclidean ball: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \ \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c\ _2 \leq r\}$ $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c)^\top (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c) \leq r^2\}$ $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = \{\mathbf{x}_c + r \ \mathbf{u}\ \mid \ \mathbf{u}\ \leq 1\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r)$ is a finite set as long as $r < \infty$. \mathbf{x}_c is the center of the ball. r is its radius.
Ellipsoid: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c)^\top \mathbf{P}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c) \leq 1\}$ $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{x}_c + \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u} \mid \ \mathbf{u}\ \leq 1\}$, where $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}^{1/2}$. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> \mathcal{E} is a finite set as long as \mathbf{P} is a finite matrix. \mathbf{P} is symmetric and positive definite, that is, $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}^\top > \mathbf{0}$. \mathbf{x}_c is the center of the ellipsoid. The lengths of the semi-axes are given by $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$. \mathbf{A} is invertible. When it is not, we say that \mathcal{E} is a degenerated ellipsoid (degenerated ellipsoids are also convex).
Norm cone: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $C = \{[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, t]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \ \mathbf{x}\ _p \leq t\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Although it is named "Norm cone", it is a set, not a scalar. The cone norm increases the dimension of \mathbf{x} in 1. For $p = 2$, it is called the second-order cone, quadratic cone, Lorentz cone or ice-cream cone.
Proper cone: $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a proper cone when it has the following properties <ul style="list-style-type: none"> K is a convex cone, i.e., $\alpha K \equiv K, \alpha > 0$. K is closed. K is solid. K is pointed, i.e., $-K \cap K = \{\mathbf{0}\}$. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The proper cone K is used to define the <i>generalized inequality</i> (or <i>partial ordering</i>) in some set S. For the generalized inequality, one must define both the proper cone K and the set S. $\mathbf{x} \preceq \mathbf{y} \iff \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \in K$ for $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$ (generalized inequality) $\mathbf{x} < \mathbf{y} \iff \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \in \text{int } K$ for $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$ (strict generalized inequality). There are two cases where K and S are understood from context and the subscript K is dropped out: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When $S = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $K = \mathbb{R}_+^n$ (the nonnegative orthant). In this case, $\mathbf{x} \preceq \mathbf{y}$ means that $x_i \leq y_i$. When $S = \mathcal{S}^n$ and $K = \mathcal{S}_+^n$ or $K = \mathcal{S}_{++}^n$, where \mathcal{S}^n denotes the set of symmetric $n \times n$ matrices, \mathcal{S}_+^n is the space of the positive semidefinite matrices, and \mathcal{S}_{++}^n is the space of the positive definite matrices. \mathcal{S}_+^n is a proper cone in \mathcal{S}^n (?). In this case, the generalized inequality $\mathbf{Y} \succeq \mathbf{X}$ means that $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}$ is a positive semidefinite matrix belonging to the positive semidefinite cone \mathcal{S}_+^n in the subspace of symmetric matrices \mathcal{S}^n. It is usual to denote $\mathbf{X} > \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{X} \succeq \mathbf{0}$ to mean that \mathbf{X} is a positive definite and semidefinite matrix, respectively, where $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a zero matrix. Another common usage is when $S = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $K = \{c \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid c_1 + c_2 t + \dots + c_n t^{n-1} \geq 0, \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq 1\}$. In this case, $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ means that $x_1 + x_2 t + \dots + x_n t^{n-1} \leq y_1 + y_2 t + \dots + y_n t^{n-1}$. The generalized inequality has the following properties: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{u} \preceq_K \mathbf{v}$, then $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{u} \leq_t \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{v}$ (preserve under addition). If $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{y} \preceq_K \mathbf{z}$, then $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{z}$ (transitivity). If $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$, then $\alpha \mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ for $\alpha \geq 0$ (preserve under nonnegative scaling). $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{x}$ (reflexivity). If $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{y} \preceq_K \mathbf{x}$, then $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ (antisymmetric). If $\mathbf{x}_i \preceq_K \mathbf{y}_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots$, and $\mathbf{x}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{y}$ as $i \rightarrow \infty$, then $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$. It is called partial ordering because $\mathbf{x} \not\preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{y} \not\preceq_K \mathbf{x}$ for many $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$. When it happens, we say that \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are not comparable (this case does not happen in ordinary inequality, $<$ and $>$). $\mathbf{x} \in S$ is the <i>minimum</i> element of S if $\mathbf{x} \preceq_K \mathbf{y}$ for every $\mathbf{y} \in S$. The set does not necessarily have a minimum, but the minimum is unique if it does. The same is true for <i>maximum</i>. The mathematical notation for that is $S \subseteq \mathbf{x} + K$, where $\mathbf{x} + K$ denotes all points that are comparable to \mathbf{x} and greater than or equal to \mathbf{x} (for the maximum, we have $S \subseteq \mathbf{x} - K$). $\mathbf{x} \in S$ is the <i>minimal</i> element of S if $\mathbf{y} \preceq_K \mathbf{x}$ only when $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$. The same is true for <i>maximal</i>. We can have many different minimal (maximal) elements. The mathematical notation for that is $(\mathbf{x} - K) \cap S = \{\mathbf{x}\}$, where $\mathbf{x} - K$ denotes all points that are comparable to \mathbf{x} and less than or equal to \mathbf{x} (for the maximal, we have $(\mathbf{x} + K) \cap S = \{\mathbf{x}\}$). When $K = \mathbb{R}_+$ and $S = \mathbb{R}$ (ordinary inequality), the minimal is equal to the minimum and the maximal is equal to the maximum.
Dual cone: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $K^* = \{\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} \geq 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in K\}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> K^* is a cone, and it is convex even when the original cone K is nonconvex. K^* has the following properties: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> K^* is closed and convex. $K_1 \subseteq K_2$ implies $K_1^* \supseteq K_2^*$. If K has a nonempty interior, then K^* is pointed. If the closure of K is pointed then K^* has a nonempty interior. K^{**} is the closure of the convex hull of K. Hence, if K is convex and closed, $K^{**} = K$.
Polyhedra: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} \leq b_j, j = 1, \dots, m, \mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} = d_j, j = 1, \dots, p\}$ $\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{d}\}$, where $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_m]^\top$ and $\mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{c}_1 \quad \mathbf{c}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{c}_m]^\top$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The polyhedron may or may not be an infinite set. Polyhedron is the result of the intersection of m halfspaces and p hyperplanes. Subspaces, hyperplanes, lines, rays line segments, and halfspaces are all polyhedra. The <i>nonnegative orthant</i>, $\mathbb{R}_+^n = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x_i \geq 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n\} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{I} \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}\}$, is a special polyhedron.
Simplex: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $S = \text{conv} \{ \mathbf{v}_m \}_{m=0}^k = \{\sum_{i=0}^k \theta_i \mathbf{v}_i \mid \mathbf{0} \leq \boldsymbol{\theta} \leq \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1}^\top \boldsymbol{\theta} = 1\}$ $S = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{V} \boldsymbol{\theta}\}$, where $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_0 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{v}_n - \mathbf{v}_0] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ $S = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x} \leq 1 + \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{v}_0}_{\text{Linear inequalities in } \mathbf{x}}, \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{v}_0}_{\text{Linear equalities in } \mathbf{x}}\}$ (Polyhedra form), where $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_1 \\ \mathbf{A}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{k \times k} \\ \mathbf{0}_{n-k \times n-k} \end{bmatrix}$ 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simplexes are a subfamily of the polyhedra set. Also called k-dimensional Simplex in \mathbb{R}^n. The set $\{\mathbf{v}_m\}_{m=0}^k$ is a affinely independent, which means $\{\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_0, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k - \mathbf{v}_0\}$ are linearly independent. $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ is a full-rank tall matrix, i.e., $\text{rank}(\mathbf{V}) = k$. All its column vectors are independent. The matrix \mathbf{A} is its left pseudoinverse.
Functions (or operators) and their implications regarding convexity		
Function	Convex?	Comments
Union: $C = A \cup B$ Intersection: $C = A \cap B$ Convex function: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\theta \mathbf{x} + (1 - \theta) \mathbf{y}) \leq \theta f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \theta) f(\mathbf{y})$, where $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$. dom $f \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ shall be a convex set to f be a convex function. 	Yes. Yes, if A and B are convex sets. Yes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Graphically, the line segment between $(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x}))$ and $(\mathbf{y}, f(\mathbf{y}))$ lies always above the graph f. In terms of sets, a function is convex iff a line segment within dom f, which is a convex set, gives an image set that is also convex. dom f is convex iff all points for any line segment within dom f belong to it. <i>First-order condition</i>: f is convex iff dom f is convex and $f(\mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}), \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \text{dom } f, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$, being $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ the gradient vector. This inequation says that the first-order Taylor approximation is a <i>underestimator</i> for convex functions. The first-order condition requires that f is differentiable. If $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$, then $f(\mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}), \forall \mathbf{y} \in \text{dom } f$ and \mathbf{x} is a global minimum. <i>Second-order condition</i>: f is convex iff dom f is convex and $\mathbf{H} \succeq \mathbf{0}$, that is, the Hessian matrix \mathbf{H} is a positive semidefinite matrix. It means that the graphic of the curvature has a positive (upward) curvature at \mathbf{x}. It is important to note that, if $\mathbf{H} > \mathbf{0}, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \text{dom } f$, then f is strictly convex. But is f strictly convex, not necessarily that $\mathbf{H} > \mathbf{0}, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \text{dom } f$. Therefore, strict convexity can only be partially characterized.
Affine function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$, where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 	Yes, if the domain $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a convex set, then its image $f(S) = \{f(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{x} \in S\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is also convex.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The affine function, $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$, is a broader category that encompasses the linear function, $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$. The linear function has its origin fixed at $\mathbf{0}$ after the transformation, whereas the affine function does not necessarily have it (when not, this makes the affine function nonlinear). Graphically, we can think of an affine function as a linear transformation plus a shift from the origin of \mathbf{b}. Similarly, the inverse image of $C, f^{-1}(C) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid f(\mathbf{x}) \in C\}$, is also convex. The <i>linear matrix inequality</i> (LMI), $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 \mathbf{A}_1 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{A}_n \leq \mathbf{B}$, is a special case of affine function. In other words, $f(S) = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}) \leq \mathbf{B}\}$ is a convex set if S is convex. Many optimization problems can be formulated as LMI problems and solved optimally.
Exponential function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(x) = e^{ax} \in \mathbb{R}$, where $a \in \mathbb{R}$ 	Yes.	
Quadratic function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = a \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{p}^\top \mathbf{x} + r \in \mathbb{R}$, where $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 	It depends on the matrix \mathbf{P} : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> f is convex iff $\mathbf{P} \succeq \mathbf{0}$. f is strictly convex iff $\mathbf{P} > \mathbf{0}$. f is concave iff $\mathbf{P} \preceq \mathbf{0}$. f is strictly concave iff $\mathbf{P} < \mathbf{0}$. 	
Power function $f : \mathbb{R}_{++} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(x) = x^a$ 	It depends on a <ul style="list-style-type: none"> f is convex iff $a \geq 1$ or $a \leq 0$. f is concave iff $0 \leq a \leq 1$. 	
Power of absolute value: $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(x) = x ^p$, where $p \geq 1$. 	Yes.	
Logarithm function: $f : \mathbb{R}_{++} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(x) = \log x$ 	Yes.	
Negative entropy function: $f : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(x) = x \log x$ 	Yes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When if is defined $f(x) \mid_{x=0}$
Minkowski distance, p -norm function, or l_p norm function: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = \ \mathbf{x}\ _p$, where $p \in \mathbb{N}_{++}$. 	Yes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It can be proved by triangular inequality.
Maximum element: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = \max \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. 	Yes.	
Maximum function: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = \max \{f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_n(\mathbf{x})\}$. 	Yes, if f_1, \dots, f_n are convex function.	
Minimum function: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = \min \{f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_n(\mathbf{x})\}$. 	Not in most of the cases.	
Log-sum-exp function: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = \log(e^{x_1} + \dots + e^{x_n})$ 	Yes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This function is interpreted as the maximum element function, since $\max \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \leq f(\mathbf{x}) \leq \max \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} + \log n$
Geometric mean function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}) = (\prod_{i=1}^n x_i)^{1/n}$ 	Yes	
Log-determinant function $f : \mathcal{S}_{++}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{X}) = \log \mathbf{X}$ 	Yes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{S}_{++}^n$, that is, \mathbf{X} is positive semidefinite ($\mathbf{X} > \mathbf{0}$).
Perspective function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}_{++} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{x}/t$, where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \in \mathbb{R}$. 	Yes, if $S \subseteq \text{dom } f$ is a convex set, then its image, $f(S) = \{f(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{x} \in S\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, is also convex.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The perspective function decreases the dimension of the function domain since $\text{dim}(\text{dom } f) = n + 1$. Its effect is similar to the camera zoom. The inverse image is also convex, that is, if $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex, then $f^{-1}(C) = \{(\mathbf{x}, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \mathbf{x}/t \in C, t > 0\}$ is also convex. A special case is when $n = 1$, which is called <i>quadratic-over-linear function</i>.
Projective (or linear-fractional) function, $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $f = p \circ g$, i.e., $f(\mathbf{x}) = (p \circ g)(\mathbf{x}) = p(g(\mathbf{x}))$, where <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$ is an affine function given by $g(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{c}^\top \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ d \end{bmatrix}$, being $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $d \in \mathbb{R}$. $p : \mathbb{R}^{m+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is the perspective function. $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(\mathbf{Q} \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}))$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}) = \{(t \mathbf{x}, t) \mid t \geq 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ $\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{c}^\top & d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+1) \times (n+1)}$ 	Yes, if $S \subseteq \text{dom } f$ is a convex set, then its image, $f(S) = \{f(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{x} \in S\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, is also convex.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The linear and affine functions are special cases of the linear-fractional function. dom $f = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} + d > 0\}$ $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ is a ray set that begins at the origin and its last component takes only positive values. For each $\mathbf{x} \in \text{dom } f$, it is associated a ray set in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} in this form. This (projective) correspondence between all points in dom f and their respective sets \mathcal{P} is a biunivocal mapping. The linear transformation \mathbf{Q} acts on these rays, forming another set of rays. Finally we take the inverse projective transformation to recover $f(\mathbf{x})$.