

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

