Set Convex hull:		ex sets  • conv $C$ will be the small convergence $C$			
• conv $C = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i \in C, 0 \leq 0 \leq 1, 1^{T} 0 = 1 \right\}$ Affine hull:		<ul> <li>conv C will be a finite set as long as C is also finite.</li> <li>A will be the smallest affine set that contains C.</li> </ul>			
• aff $C = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \mathbf{x}_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i \in C \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, k, 1^{T} \mathbf{\theta} = 1 \right\}$		• Different from the convex set, $\theta_i$ 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:  • $A = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mid \mathbf{x}_{i} \in C, \theta_{i} > 0 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, k \right\}$ Ray:  • $\mathcal{R} = \left\{ \mathbf{x}_{0} + \theta \mathbf{v} \mid \theta \geq 0 \right\}$		<ul> <li>A will be the smallest convex conic that contains C.</li> <li>Different from the convex and affine sets, θ<sub>i</sub> does not need to sum up 1.</li> <li>The ray is an infinite set that begins in x<sub>0</sub> and extends infinitely in direction of v. In other words, it has a beginning, but it has no end.</li> </ul>			
Hyperplane:  • $\mathcal{H} = \{ \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^{T} \mathbf{x} = b \}$ • $\mathcal{H} = \{ \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^{T} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) = 0 \}$ • $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{x}_0 + a^{\perp}$		<ul> <li>It is an infinite set R<sup>n-1</sup> ⊂ R<sup>n</sup> that divides the space into two halfspaces.</li> <li>a<sup>⊥</sup> = {v   a<sup>T</sup>v = 0} is the set of vectors perpendicular to a. It passes through the origin.</li> <li>a<sup>⊥</sup> is offset from the origin by x<sub>0</sub>, which is any vector in H.</li> </ul>			
• $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{x}_0 + a^{\perp}$ Halfspaces:  • $\mathcal{H} = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^{T} \mathbf{x} \le b\}$ • $\mathcal{H}_+ = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}^{T} \mathbf{x} \ge b\}$		$ullet$ They are infinite sets of the parts divided by ${\cal H}.$			
Euclidean ball:  • $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = {\mathbf{x} \mid   \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c  _2 \le r}$ • $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = {\mathbf{x} \mid (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c)^{T} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c) \le r}$ • $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = {\mathbf{x} \mid (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c)^{T} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c) \le r}$ • $B(\mathbf{x}_c, r) = {\mathbf{x}_c + r   \mathbf{u}   \mid   \mathbf{u}   \le 1}$		<ul> <li>B(x<sub>c</sub>, r) is a finite set as long as r &lt; ∞.</li> <li>x<sub>c</sub> is the center of the ball.</li> <li>r is its radius.</li> </ul>			
Ellipsoid:  • $\mathcal{E} = \{ \mathbf{x} \mid (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c)^T \mathbf{P}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_c) \le 1 \}$ • $\mathcal{E} = \{ \mathbf{x}_c + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} \mid   \mathbf{u}   \le 1 \}$ , where $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}^{1/2}$ .		<ul> <li> \mathcal{E} is a finite set as long as \mathbb{P} is a finite matrix.</li> <li> \mathbb{P} is symmetric and positive definite, that is, \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{P}^\tau &gt; 0.</li> <li> \mathbb{x}_c is the center of the ellipsoid.</li> </ul>			
Norm cone:		<ul> <li>The lengths of the semi-axes are given by √λ<sub>i</sub>.</li> <li>A is invertible. When it is not, we say that ℰ is a degenerated ellipsoid (degenerated ellipsoids are also convex).</li> </ul>			
Norm cone: • $C = \{[x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n, t]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,   \mathbf{x}  _p \le t\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$		<ul> <li>Although it is named "Norm cone", it is a set, not a scalar.</li> <li>The cone norm increases the dimension of x in 1.</li> <li>For p = 2, it is called the second-order cone, quadratic cone, Lorentz cone or ice-cream cone.</li> </ul>			
<ul> <li>Proper cone: K ⊂ ℝ<sup>n</sup> is a proper cone when it has the following properties</li> <li>K is a convex cone, i.e., αK ≡ K, α &gt; 0.</li> <li>K is closed.</li> <li>K is solid</li> </ul>		<ul> <li>The proper cone K is used to define the generalized inequality (or partial ordering) in some set S. For the generalized inequality, one must define both the proper cone K and the set S.</li> <li>x ≤ y ⇔ y - x ∈ K for x, y ∈ S (generalized inequality)</li> </ul>			
• $K$ is solid. • $K$ is pointed, i.e., $-K \cap K = \{0\}$ .		<ul> <li>• x &lt; y ⇔ y - x ∈ int K for x, y ∈ S (strict generalized inequality).</li> <li>• There are two cases where K and S are understood from context and the subscript K is dropped out:</li> <li>• When S = ℝ<sup>n</sup> and K = ℝ<sup>n</sup><sub>+</sub> (the nonnegative orthant). In this case, x ≤ y means that x<sub>i</sub> ≤ y<sub>i</sub>.</li> </ul>			
		When $S = S^n$ and $K = S^n_+$ or $K = S^n_{++}$ , where $S^n$ denotes the set of symmetric $n \times n$ matrices, $S^n_+$ is the space of the positive semidefinite matrices, and $S^n_{++}$ is the space of the positive definite matrices. $S^n_+$ is a proper cone in $S^n$ (??). In this case, the generalized inequality $Y \succeq X$ means that $Y - X$ is a positive semidefinite matrix belonging to the positive semidefinite cone $S^n_+$ in the subspace of symmetric matrices $S^n$ . It is usual to denote $X \succ 0$ and $X \succeq 0$ to mean than $X$ is a positive definite and semidefinite matrix, respectively, where $0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a zero matrix.			
Dual cone: $ \bullet \ K^* = \left\{ \mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} \ge 0, \ \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in K \right\} $		<ul> <li>Another common usage is when S = R<sup>n</sup> and K = {c∈R<sup>n</sup>   c<sub>1</sub> + c<sub>2</sub>t + ···· + c<sub>n</sub>t<sup>n-1</sup> ≥ 0, for 0 ≤ t ≤ 1}. In this case, x ≤<sub>K</sub> y means that x<sub>1</sub> + x<sub>2</sub>t + ···· + x<sub>n</sub>t<sup>n-1</sup> ≤ y<sub>1</sub> + y<sub>2</sub>t + ···· + y<sub>n</sub>t<sup>n-1</sup>.</li> <li>The generalized inequality has the following properties:</li> <li>If x ≤<sub>K</sub> y and u ≤<sub>K</sub> v, then x + u ≤<sub>K</sub> y + v (preserve under addition).</li> <li>If x ≤<sub>K</sub> y and y ≤<sub>K</sub> z, then x ≤<sub>K</sub> z (transitivity).</li> <li>If x ≤<sub>K</sub> y, then αx ≤<sub>K</sub> y for α ≥ 0 (preserve under nonnegative scaling).</li> <li>x ≤<sub>K</sub> x (reflexivity).</li> <li>If x ≤<sub>K</sub> y and y ≤<sub>K</sub> x, then x = y (antisymmetric).</li> <li>If x i ≤<sub>K</sub> y i, for i = 1, 2,, and x<sub>i</sub> → x and y<sub>i</sub> → y as i → ∞, then x ≤<sub>K</sub> y.</li> <li>It is called partial ordering because x ≠<sub>K</sub> y and y ≠<sub>K</sub> x for many x, y ∈ S. When it happens, we say that x and y are not comparable (this case does not happen in ordinary inequality, &lt; and &gt;).</li> <li>x ∈ S is the minimum element of S if x ≤<sub>K</sub> y for every y ∈ S. The set does not necessarily have a minimum, but the minimum is unique if it does. The same is true for maximum. The mathematical notation for that is S ⊆ x + K, where x + K denotes all points that are comparable to x and greater than or equal to x (for the maximum, we have S ⊆ x - K).</li> </ul>			
				<ul> <li>x ∈ S is the minimal element of S if y ≤<sub>K</sub> x only when y = x. The same is true for maximal. We can have many different minimal (maximal) elements. The mathematical notation for that is (x - K) ∩ S = {x}, where x - K denotes all points that are comparable to x and less than or equal to x (for the maximal, we have (x + K) ∩ S = {x}).</li> <li>When K = R<sub>+</sub> and S = R (ordinary inequality), the minimal is equal to the minimum and the maximal is equal to the maximum.</li> </ul>	
				<ul> <li>K* is a cone, and it is convex even when the original cone K is nonconvex.</li> <li>K* has the following properties:</li> <li>K* is closed and convex.</li> </ul>	
				<ul> <li>▶ K* is closed and convex.</li> <li>▶ K<sub>1</sub> ⊆ K<sub>2</sub> implies K<sub>1</sub>* ⊆ K<sub>2</sub>*.</li> <li>▶ If K has a nonempty interior, then K* is pointed.</li> <li>▶ If the closure of K is pointed then K* has a nonempty interior.</li> <li>▶ K** is the closure of the convex hull of K. Hence, if K is convex and closed, K** = K.</li> </ul>	
		Polyhedra: • $\mathcal{P} = \left\{ \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{a}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{x} \leq b_{j}, j = 1, \dots, m, \mathbf{a}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{x} = d_{j}, j = 1, \dots, p \right\}$ • $\mathcal{P} = \left\{ \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{d} \right\}, \text{ where } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1} & \mathbf{a}_{2} & \dots & \mathbf{a}_{m} \end{bmatrix}^{T} \text{ and } \mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_{1} & \mathbf{c}_{2} & \dots & \mathbf{c}_{m} \end{bmatrix}^{T}$		<ul> <li>The polyhedron may or may not be an infinite set.</li> <li>Polyhedron is the result of the intersection of m halfspaces and p hyperplanes.</li> <li>Subspaces, hyperplanes, lines, rays line segments, and halfspaces are all polyhedra.</li> <li>The nonnegative orthant, R<sup>n</sup><sub>+</sub> = {x ∈ R<sup>n</sup>   x<sub>i</sub> ≤ 0 for i = 1,n} = {x ∈ R<sup>n</sup>   Ix ≥ 0}, is a specific orthant.</li> </ul>	
		Simplex:  • $S = \text{conv } \{\mathbf{v}_m\}_{m=0}^k = \{\sum_{i=0}^k \theta_i \mathbf{v}_i \mid 0 \le \mathbf{\theta} \le 1, 1^T \mathbf{\theta} = 1\}$ • $S = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\theta}\}$ , where $\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_0 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_n - \mathbf{v}_0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$		<ul> <li>The nonnegative orthant, R<sup>n</sup><sub>+</sub> = {x ∈ R<sup>n</sup>   x<sub>i</sub> ≤ 0 for i = 1,n} = {x ∈ R<sup>n</sup>   1x ≥ 0}, is a special polyhedron.</li> <li>Simplexes are a subfamily of the polyhedra set.</li> <li>Also called k-dimensional Simplex in R<sup>n</sup>.</li> <li>The set {v<sub>m</sub>}<sup>k</sup><sub>m=0</sub> is a affinely independent, which means {v<sub>1</sub> - v<sub>0</sub>,, v<sub>k</sub> - v<sub>0</sub>} are linearly</li> </ul>	
		• $S = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{v}_0, 1^T \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x} \leq 1 + 1^T \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{v}_0}_{\text{Linear inequalities in } x}, \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{v}_0}_{\text{Linear equalities}} \}$ (Polyhedra form), where $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_1 \\ \mathbf{A}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{V} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{k \times k} \\ 0_{n-k \times n-k} \end{bmatrix}$		<ul> <li>The set {v<sub>m</sub>}<sub>m=0</sub><sup>k</sup> is a affinely independent, which means {v<sub>1</sub> - v<sub>0</sub>,, v<sub>k</sub> - v<sub>0</sub>} are linearly independent.</li> <li>V ∈ ℝ<sup>n×k</sup> is a full-rank tall matrix, i.e., rank(V) = k. All its column vectors are independent. The matrix A is its left pseudoinverse.</li> </ul>	
[ - ] [	unctions (or operators) and their Conversion Not in most of the cases.  Yes, if A and B are convex set	x?	Onvexity Comments		
Intersection: $C = A \cap B$ Convex function: $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ • $f(\theta \mathbf{x} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{y}) \le \theta f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{y})$ , where $0 \le \theta \le 1$ .  • dom $f \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ shall be a convex set to $f$ be a convex function.	Yes, if A and B are convex set Yes.	•	<ul> <li>Graphically, the line segment between (x, f(x)) and (y, f(y)) lies always above the graph f.</li> <li>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.</li> </ul>		
			<ul> <li>dom f is convex iff all points for any line segment within dom f belong to it.</li> <li>First-order condition: f is convex iff dom f is convex and f(y) ≥ f(x) + ∇f(x)<sup>T</sup>(y - x), ∀ x, y ∈ dom f, x ≠ y, being ∇f(x) the gradient vector. This inequation says that the first-order Taylor approximation is a underestimator for convex functions. The first-order condition requires that f is differentiable.</li> </ul>		
			<ul> <li>If ∇f(x) = 0, then f(y) ≥ f(x), ∀ y ∈ dom f and x is a global minimum.</li> <li>Second-order condition: f is convex iff dom f is convex and H ≥ 0, that is, the Hessian matrix H is a positive semidefinite matrix. It means that the graphic of the curvature has a positive (upward) curvature at x. It is important to note that, if H &gt; 0, ∀ x ∈ dom f,</li> </ul>		
Affine function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ $\mathbf{a} \cdot f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \text{ where } \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$	Yes, if the domain $S\subseteq\mathbb{R}^n$ is a convex set, then its image $f(S)=\{f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{x}\in S\}\subseteq\mathbb{R}^m$ is also convex.		<ul> <li>then f is strictly convex. But is f is strictly convex, not necessarily that H &gt; 0, ∀ x ∈ dom f. Therefore, strict convexity can only be partially characterized.</li> <li>The affine function, f(x) = Ax + b, is a broader category that encompasses the linear function, f(x) = Ax. The linear function</li> </ul>		
• $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$ , where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$			<ul> <li>has its origin fixed at 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 b.</li> <li>Similarly, the inverse image of C, f<sup>-1</sup>(C) = {x   f(x) ∈ C}, is also</li> </ul>		
			convex.  • The linear matrix inequality (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 opti-		
Exponential function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ • $f(x) = e^{ax} \in \mathbb{R}$ , where $a \in \mathbb{R}$	Yes.		mally.		
Quadratic function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ • $f(\mathbf{x}) = a\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{p}^T\mathbf{x} + r \in \mathbb{R}$ , 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 $P$ :  • $f$ is convex iff $P \ge 0$ .  • $f$ is strictly convex iff $P > 0$ .  • $f$ is concave iff $P \le 0$ .  • $f$ is strictly concave iff $P < 0$ .				
Power function $f: \mathbb{R}_{++} \to \mathbb{R}$ • $f(x) = x^a$	It depends on $a$ • $f$ is convex iff $a \ge 1$ or $a \le 0$ .				
Power of absolute value: $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ • $f(x) =  x ^p$ , where $p \le 1$ .	• $f$ is concave iff $0 \le a \le 1$ .  Yes.				
Logarithm function: $f: \mathbb{R}_{++} \to \mathbb{R}$ • $f(x) = \log x$ Perspective function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}_{++} \to \mathbb{R}^n$	Yes. $ \text{Yes, if } S \subseteq \text{dom } f \text{ is a convex set, then its image, } f(S) = \\ \{f(\mathbf{x})   \mathbf{x} \in S\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \text{, is also convex.} $		• The perspective function decreases the dimension of the function		
• $f(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{x}/t$ , where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \in \mathbb{R}$ .	$(J_{1}, J_{2}, J_{3}, J_{3},$		<ul> <li>domain since dim(dom f) = n + 1.</li> <li>Its effect is similar to the camera zoom.</li> <li>The inverse image is also convex, that is, if C ⊆ ℝ<sup>n</sup> is convex, then f<sup>-1</sup>(C) = {(x,t) ∈ ℝ<sup>n+1</sup>   x/t ∈ C, t &gt; 0} is also convex.</li> </ul>		
Projective (or linear-fractional) function, $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ • $f = p \circ g$ , i.e., $f(\mathbf{x}) = (p \circ g)(\mathbf{x}) = p(g(\mathbf{x}))$ , where  • $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^{m+1}$ is an affine function given by $g(\mathbf{x}) = [\mathbf{A}]$	Yes, if $S \subseteq \text{dom } f$ is a convex s $\{f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{x} \in S\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , is also convex		<ul> <li>The linear and affine functions are special cases of the linear-fractional function.</li> <li>dom f = {x ∈ R<sup>n</sup>   c<sup>T</sup>x + d &gt; 0}</li> </ul>		
$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} \\ \mathbf{c}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} \\ d \end{bmatrix}, \text{ being } \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \text{ and } d \in \mathbb{R}.$			• $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ 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.		
• $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(\mathbf{Q}\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}))$ • $\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}) = \{(t\mathbf{x}, t) \mid t \ge 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ • $\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{c}^{T} & d \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m+1)\times(n+1)}$			<ul> <li>The linear transformation Q acts on these rays, forming another set of rays.</li> <li>Finally we take the inverse projective transformation to recover f(x).</li> </ul>		