# Semidefinite Extreme Points in a Polynomial Space* 

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#### Abstract

Let $\Delta$ be the standard simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Denote by $\pi_{2}$ the set of all real bivariate algebraic polynomials of total degree at most two. Let $B_{\Delta}$ be the unit ball of the space $\pi_{2}$ endowed with the supremum norm on $\Delta$.

We present with short proofs two results from [13] which describe the semidefinite extreme points of $B_{\Delta}$. This completes the description of the set $E_{\Delta}$ of all extreme points of $B_{\Delta}$, initiated in [11] and [12].

In addition, we give graphical illustrations of some typical semidefinite polynomials from $E_{\Delta}$.


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## 1. Introduction

Denote by $\pi_{n}^{d}$ the set of all real algebraic polynomials of $d$ variables and of total degree not exceeding $n$. Let $K$ be a compact set in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ and $\|f\|_{C(K)}:=$ $\max _{X \in K}|f(X)|$ be the uniform norm on $K$.

We use the notation $B_{n}(K)$ for the unit ball of $\pi_{n}^{d}$ with respect to $\|\cdot\|_{C(K)}$, i.e., $B_{n}(K)=\left\{p \in \pi_{n}^{d}:\|p\|_{C(K)} \leq 1\right\}$. The set of all extreme points of $B_{n}(K)$ will be denoted by $E_{n}(K)$. Recall that a point $p$ of a convex set $B$ is said to be extreme if the equality $p=\lambda p_{1}+(1-\lambda) p_{2}$ for some $p_{1}, p_{2} \in B$ and $\lambda \in(0,1)$ implies $p=p_{1}=p_{2}$.

According to the Krein-Milman theorem, $B_{n}(K)$ is the convex hull of $E_{n}(K)$. This result motivates the study of the extreme points of the unit ball of various polynomial spaces. We refer to papers $[8,3,5,1,6,18]$, where also related problems in the geometry of polynomials are studied. An important consequence

[^0]of Krein-Milman's theorem is the fact that
$$
\max _{p \in B_{n}(K)} F(p)=\max _{p \in E_{n}(K)} F(p)
$$
provided $F$ is a convex function defined on $B_{n}(K)$. Therefore, the description of the extreme points of $B_{n}(K)$ can be useful in deriving the exact constants in certain inequalities for polynomials.

Recently several authors studied generalizations of the inequality of Bernstein for multivariate polynomials on convex bodies (see $[20,9,10,14,16,15$, $2,19,4]$ ). If the convex body is non-symmetric, the problem of finding the sharp Bernstein's inequality is still open. In this connection, the description of the extreme points when $K$ is the standard simplex is of special interest.

Let $\Delta$ be the standard simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, i.e.,

$$
\Delta:=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x \geq 0, y \geq 0, x+y \leq 1\right\} .
$$

The strictly definite and the indefinite extreme points of $B_{2}(\Delta)$ were described in $[11,12]$. In [13] we completed the description of $E_{2}(\Delta)$, finding its semidefinite elements.

In what follows, we denote the vertices of $\Delta$ by $O(0,0), A(1,0)$ and $B(0,1)$. We shall use the abbreviated notations $\pi_{2}:=\pi_{2}^{2},\|\cdot\|:=\|\cdot\|_{C(\Delta)}, B_{\Delta}:=B_{2}(\Delta)$, and $E_{\Delta}:=E_{2}(\Delta)$.

Recall that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(x, y)=a+b x+c y+d x^{2}+2 e x y+f y^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a semidefinite quadratic polynomial if and only if

$$
\operatorname{det}(M)=0, \quad \text { where } M:=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
d & e \\
e & f
\end{array}\right)
$$

Note that a polynomial $p$ of degree at most one is an extreme point of $B_{\Delta}$ if and only if $p \equiv 1$ or $p \equiv-1$ (see Section 2 ). Therefore, we shall consider only semidefinite polynomials of degree exactly two. For definiteness we shall suppose that the polynomials are negative semidefinite. In other words, we shall describe the elements of $E_{\Delta} \cap \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$, where $\mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}:=\left\{p \in \pi_{2}: \lambda_{1}<0, \lambda_{2}=0\right\}$, and $\left\{\lambda_{i}\right\}_{1}^{2}$ are the eigenvalues of $M$. It is known ([7]) that a polynomial of the form (1) belongs to $\mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$if and only if $\operatorname{det}(M)=0$ and $(d<0$ or $f<0)$.

The coordinates of every point of a local extremum $X_{0}=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ of a polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$satisfy the system

$$
2 M(x, y)^{\top}=-(b, c)^{\top}
$$

Since the rank of $M$ is equal to 1 , the above system either has no solutions or has a one-dimensional set of solutions. In the first case $p$ has no local extrema in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. In the second case every solution is a global maximum of $p$ on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, which follows from the representation

$$
p(X)=p\left(X_{0}\right)+\left(X-X_{0}\right) M\left(X-X_{0}\right)^{\top}
$$

where $X=(x, y)$, and the negative semidefiniteness of $M$.
Given a polynomial $p$, we denote by $\mathcal{M}(p)$ the set of all points $X \in \Delta$ such that $|p(X)|=\|p\|$.

The aim of this paper is to present the following results from [13], which give a full description of the semidefinite elements of $E_{\Delta}$.

Theorem 1. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$and there exists a point $X_{0}=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in$ int $\Delta$ such that $p\left(X_{0}\right)=1$. Then $p$ is an extreme point of $B_{\Delta}$ if and only if the following conditions hold:
(i) $p(x, y)=1-\left[\alpha\left(x-x_{0}\right)+\beta\left(y-y_{0}\right)\right]^{2},(\alpha, \beta) \neq(0,0)$;
(ii) $\min \{p(O), p(A), p(B)\}=-1$.

Theorem 2. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$and $p(X) \neq 1$ for every $X \in \operatorname{int} \Delta$. Then $p$ is an extreme point of $B_{\Delta}$ if and only if $p \in\left\{p_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{6}$, where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
p_{1}(x, y)=1-2(x+y)^{2}, & p_{4}(x, y)=1-2(x+y-1)^{2} \\
p_{2}(x, y)=1-2(x-1)^{2}, & p_{5}(x, y)=1-2 x^{2} \\
p_{3}(x, y)=1-2(y-1)^{2}, & p_{6}(x, y)=1-2 y^{2}
\end{array}
$$

Note that all positive semidefinite elements of $E_{\Delta}$ have the form $q=-p$, where $p \in E_{\Delta} \cap \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$.

Concise proofs of Theorems 1 and 2 are given in Section 2. Section 3 contains graphical illustrations of some typical semidefinite polynomials from $E_{\Delta}$.

## 2. Proofs

We shall use a lemma which is proved in [11].
Lemma A. Suppose that $n, d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $K$ is a convex body in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Let $p \in B_{n}(K)$ satisfy $\|p\|_{C(K)}=1$. Suppose that $q \equiv 0$ is the only polynomial from $\pi_{n}^{d}$, which satisfies the conditions:
(a) $q(X)=0$ for every $X \in \mathcal{M}(p)$;
(b) $\frac{\partial q}{\partial \overrightarrow{X M}}(X)=0$ if $X \in \mathcal{M}(p), M \in K$, and $\frac{\partial p}{\partial \overrightarrow{X M}}(X)=0$.

Then $p$ is an extreme point of $B_{n}(K)$.

Proof of Theorem 1. Necessity. Since $p \in E_{\Delta}$ we have $\|p\|=1$. The assumption $p\left(X_{0}\right)=1$ implies that $X_{0}$ is a local (and global) extremum of $p$. Therefore $p$ has a straight line of global maxima, including $X_{0}$. Let us denote it by $m$. We have $p(x, y) \equiv 1$ on $m$ which gives

$$
p(x, y)-1=m(x, y) l(x, y)
$$

where $m(x, y)=0$ is the equation of $m$ and $l \in \pi_{1}^{2}$. For every $X=(x, y) \in m$ we have

$$
\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}(X)=\frac{\partial m}{\partial x}(X) l(X)+m(X) \frac{\partial l}{\partial x}(X)=\frac{\partial m}{\partial x}(X) l(X)=0
$$

Similarly,

$$
\frac{\partial m}{\partial y}(X) l(X)=0
$$

But $\left(\frac{\partial m}{\partial x}(X), \frac{\partial m}{\partial y}(X)\right) \neq(0,0)$ which implies $l(X)=0$ for every $X \in m$, i.e., $l=c m$. Thus $p(x, y)=1+c m^{2}(x, y)$ and the coefficient $c$ has to be negative. The last formula proves the representation (i).

To prove (ii) we note that every concave function on $\Delta$ attains its minimum at some vertex of $\Delta$ and every non-constant polynomial $p \in E_{\Delta}$ takes the values $\pm 1$ in $\Delta$ (see [11, Lemma 1]).

Sufficiency. Suppose that a polynomial $p$ has the form (i) and satisfies (ii). Since $X_{0} \in \Delta$, conditions (i) and (ii) imply $\|p\|=1$. It remains to show that $p \in E_{\Delta}$.

We shall apply Lemma A. Let us denote by $m$ the straight line with equation $\alpha\left(x-x_{0}\right)+\beta\left(y-y_{0}\right)=0$. The set $m \cap \Delta$ is a subset of $\mathcal{M}(p)$. Note that $\operatorname{grad} p(X)=\mathbf{0}$ for every $X \in m$. Let $X_{1}$ be a vertex of $\Delta$ such that $p\left(X_{1}\right)=-1$. Clearly, $X_{1} \in \mathcal{M}(p)$. According to Lemma $A$, it is sufficient to prove that if a polynomial $q \in \pi_{2}$ satisfies the conditions

$$
\begin{align*}
& q(X)=0, \quad \operatorname{grad} q(X)=\mathbf{0}, \quad \text { for every } X \in m, \\
& q\left(X_{1}\right)=0, \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

then $q \equiv 0$.
The condition $q(X)=0$ on $m$ implies $q(x, y)=m(x, y) l(x, y)$, where $l \in \pi_{1}^{2}$. Using the second equality in (2) we obtain

$$
\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}(X)=\frac{\partial m}{\partial x}(X) l(X)+m(X) \frac{\partial l}{\partial x}(X)=0
$$

for every $X \in m$, which implies $\alpha l(X)=0$ on $m$. Similarly, $\beta l(X)=0$ on $m$. Since at least one of the coefficients $\alpha$ and $\beta$ is different from zero, we conclude that $l=c m$, where $c$ is a constant.

Finally, it follows from the third condition in (2) that $\mathrm{cm}^{2}\left(X_{1}\right)=0$. But $m\left(X_{1}\right) \neq 0$ since otherwise we would have $p\left(X_{1}\right)=1$, a contradiction. Consequently $c=0$, i.e., $q \equiv 0$. The theorem is proved.

The following lemmas are needed for the proof of Theorem 2.
Lemma 1. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-} \cap E_{\Delta}$ and $p\left(X_{1}\right)=p\left(X_{2}\right)=1$ for some $X_{1}, X_{2} \in \Delta, X_{1} \neq X_{2}$. Then $p \equiv 1$ on the line $X_{1} X_{2}$.

Proof. It is an easy consequence of the concavity of $p$.
It follows from Lemma 1 that if a polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-} \cap E_{\Delta}$ attains the value one only at $\partial \Delta$ then there are two possibilities:

Case 1. There exists a unique point $X_{1} \in \partial \Delta$ such that $p\left(X_{1}\right)=1$;
Case 2. There exists a side $l$ of $\Delta$ such that $p \equiv 1$ on $l$. (In fact, by Lemma $1, l$ is unique.)

It turns out that Case 1 divides into two essentially different subcases, namely $X_{1}$ is a vertex of $\Delta$ or $X_{1}$ is an interior point for a side of $\Delta$. We begin with the first subcase.

Lemma 2. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-} \cap E_{\Delta}, p(O)=1$, and $p(X)<1$ for every $X \in \Delta \backslash\{O\}$. Then $p \equiv-1$ on the closed segment $[A B]$.

Proof. The concavity of $p$ and the fact that $p$ attains the value -1 in $\Delta$ (see [11, Lemma 1]) imply that

$$
\min _{X \in \Delta} p(X)=\min \{p(O), p(A), p(B)\}=-1
$$

Let us suppose for definiteness that $p(A)=-1$. It remains to prove that $p(X)=-1$ for every $X$ belonging to the semi-closed segment $(A B]$. Assume the contrary, i.e., there exists a point $X_{0} \in(A B]$ such that $p\left(X_{0}\right)>-1$. We shall construct a nonzero polynomial $q \in \pi_{2}$ such that $f:=p \pm \varepsilon q \in B_{\Delta}$ for every sufficiently small positive number $\varepsilon$. This will be in contradiction to $p \in E_{\Delta}$.

It is easily seen that $\mathcal{M}(p) \subset\{O, A, B\}$. By virtue of Lemma A, we choose a nonzero $q \in \pi_{2}$ which satisfies the conditions:

$$
q(O)=q(A)=q(B)=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\partial q}{\partial x}(O)=\frac{\partial q}{\partial y}(O)=0
$$

For definiteness, we take $q(x, y)=x y$. We establish the following properties of $f$, provided $\varepsilon$ is sufficiently small:
(a) $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \overrightarrow{O M}}(O) \leq 0$ for every $M \in \Delta, M \neq O$;
(b) $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \overrightarrow{A M}}(A)>0$ for every $M \in \Delta, M \neq A$.

Using (a) and (b), we prove the inequality $|f(X)| \leq 1$ first for $X \in \partial \Delta$ and then for $X \in \operatorname{int} \Delta$.

Lemma 3. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}, p(O)=1$, and $p(X)<1$ for every $X \in \Delta \backslash\{O\}$. Then $p \in E_{\Delta}$ if and only if $p(x, y)=1-2(x+y)^{2}$.

Proof. Necessity. Suppose that $p \in E_{\Delta}$. Using Lemma 2 and the semidefiniteness of $p$, we obtain that $p$ has the form $p_{a}(x, y)=[a(x+y)-2](x+y-1)-1$.

Furthermore, it is seen that $p_{a} \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-} \cap B_{\Delta}$ if and only if $a \in[-2,0)$. The representation $p_{a}=\lambda p_{-} 2+(1-\lambda) p_{0}, \lambda=-\frac{a}{2} \in(0,1)$, shows that $p_{a} \notin E_{\Delta}$ for $a \in(-2,0)$, hence $p=p_{-2}=1-2(x+y)^{2}$.

Sufficiency. It is proved by applying Lemma A to the polynomial $p_{-2}$.
Recall that the second possibility is that $X_{1}$ belongs to the interior of a side of $\Delta$. We prove the following

Lemma 4. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-},\|p\|=1, p\left(X_{1}\right)=1$ for some point $X_{1} \in(A B)$, and $p(X)<1$ for every $X \in \Delta \backslash\left\{X_{1}\right\}$. Then $p$ is not an extreme point of $B_{\Delta}$.

Proof. Note first that $p$ cannot be identically equal to -1 on $[O A] \cup[O B]$. Without loss of generality we can suppose that $\left.p\right|_{O B} \not \equiv-1$. We set $q(x, y):=$ $y(x+y-1)$ and shall prove that $f:=p \pm \varepsilon q \in B_{\Delta}$ for every sufficiently small positive number $\varepsilon$, which implies $p \notin E_{\Delta}$. To this end, we show that $\operatorname{grad} p(X) \neq \mathbf{0}$ for every $X \in \Delta$. Hence, the same holds true for $f$, provided $\varepsilon$ is sufficiently small. Therefore $\|f\|=\|f\|_{C(\partial \Delta)}$ and a careful examination of $f$ on $\partial \Delta$ completes the proof.

Next we consider Case 2 for $p$, namely $p$ is identically equal to one on a side of $\Delta$ (see the remark after Lemma 1).

Lemma 5. Suppose that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-},\|p\|=1$, and $p(X) \equiv 1$ for all $X \in[A B]$. If $\max _{X \in \mathbb{R}^{2}} p(X)>1$ or $p$ does not have local extrema in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, then $p$ is not an extreme point of $B_{\Delta}$.

Proof. It is similar to that of Lemma 4. Here $\mathcal{M}(p)=\{O\} \cup[A B]$. By virtue of Lemma A, we consider the polynomial $q(x, y):=x(x+y-1)$ which vanishes on $\mathcal{M}(p)$ and prove that $f:=p \pm \varepsilon q \in B_{\Delta}$ for every sufficiently small $\varepsilon>0$.

Lemma 6. Suppose that a polynomial $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-}$satisfies $p(X)=1$ for every $X \in[A B]$. Then $p \in E_{\Delta}$ if and only if $p(x, y)=1-2(x+y-1)^{2}$.

Proof. Necessity. Using Lemma 5 and a reasoning similar to that in the beginning of the proof of Theorem 1, we obtain $p(x, y)=1+c(x+y-1)^{2}$. The concavity of $p$ and [11, Lemma 1] imply $p(O)=-1$, hence $p(x, y)=$ $1-2(x+y-1)^{2}$.

Sufficiency. It is based on Lemma A. We have $\mathcal{M}(p)=\{O\} \cup[A B]$. Therefore, the conditions of the type (a) for $q$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
q(X)=0, \quad \text { for every } X \in[A B] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
q(O)=0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\operatorname{grad} p(X)=\mathbf{0}$ for every $X \in[A B]$ a condition of the type (b) for $q$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{grad} q(X)=\mathbf{0}, \quad \text { for every } X \in[A B] \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We prove that $q \equiv 0$ is the only polynomial from $\pi_{2}$ which satisfies (3)-(5). By Lemma A, the proof is completed.

Proof of Theorem 2. Necessity. Assume that $p \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-} \cap E_{\Delta}$ and $p(X)<1$ for every $X \in \operatorname{int} \Delta$. As it was mentioned above, either there exists a unique point $X_{1} \in \partial \Delta$ such that $p\left(X_{1}\right)=1$, or there exists a unique side $l$ of $\Delta$ such that $p \equiv 1$ on $l$.

In the first case, by Lemma $4, X_{1}$ is a vertex of $\Delta$. If $X_{1}=O$ the explicit form of $p$ is given by Lemma 3 and this is $p_{1}(x, y)=1-2(x+y)^{2}$. The polynomials $p_{2}(x, y)=1-2(x-1)^{2}$ and $p_{3}(x, y)=1-2(y-1)^{2}$ correspond to $X_{1}=A$ and $X_{1}=B$, respectively.

In the second case, if $l=[A B]$ then the explicit form of $p(x, y)=p_{4}(x, y)=$ $1-2(x+y-1)^{2}$ is obtained in Lemma 6. The remaining two polynomials ( $p_{5}$ and $p_{6}$ ) correspond to $l=[O B]$ and $l=[O A]$.

Sufficiency. It follows form Lemmas 3 and 6 that $p_{i} \in \mathcal{P}_{2}^{-} \cap E_{\Delta}$, for every $i=1, \ldots, 6$. Theorem 2 is proved.

Remark. ([13, Section 3]) The only extreme points of $B_{\Delta}$ of degree at most one are the constants $\pm 1$.

Indeed, note first that if $p \in \pi_{0}^{2} \cap E_{\Delta}$ then $p= \pm 1$. It remains to prove that $E_{\Delta}$ does not contain affine functions. To this end, let $p \in\left(\pi_{1}^{2} \backslash \pi_{0}^{2}\right) \cap B_{\Delta}$. We set $\alpha=p(A), \beta=p(B), \gamma=p(O)$. If $\alpha=\beta=\gamma$ then $p$ is a constant, which is a contradiction. Therefore, without loss of generality we can suppose that $\alpha \neq \beta$. We consider the indefinite polynomials $f_{ \pm \varepsilon}:=p \pm \varepsilon q$, where $q(x, y):=x y$ and $\varepsilon>0$ and prove that $f_{ \pm \varepsilon} \in B_{\Delta}$ provided $\varepsilon$ is sufficiently small. Consequently, $p$ is not an extreme point of $B_{\Delta}$.

## 3. Graphical Illustrations

We provide some graphs which illustrate the results of Theorem 1 and Theorem 2.

Figure 1 presents the graph of a semidefinite extreme polynomial of the type described in Theorem 1. This polynomial corresponds to the parameters $X_{0}=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=(0.6,0.1) \in \operatorname{int} \Delta, \alpha=2.232, \beta=0.744$, and satisfies the condition $p(O)=-1$. The straight line of global maxima $m$ has the equation $\alpha\left(x-x_{0}\right)+\beta\left(y-y_{0}\right)=0$. Let us note that $[P Q]=\{(x, y, 1):(x, y) \in m \cap \Delta\}$.

Figures 2 and 3 show the graphs of the polynomials $p_{1}$ and $p_{4}$ of Theorem 2. The remaining four polynomials can be obtained from $p_{1}$ and $p_{4}$ by affine transformations from $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ to $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ that map the triangle $\Delta$ onto itself. The


Figure 1. The polynomial $p(x, y)$ of the type in Theorem 1 with $x_{0}=0.6, y_{0}=0.1$, $\alpha=2.232, \beta=0.744$.


Figure 2. The polynomial $p_{1}(x, y)=1-2(x+y)^{2}$ in Theorem 2 .


Figure 3. The polynomial $p_{4}(x, y)=1-2(x+y-1)^{2}$ in Theorem 2.
polynomials $p_{1}$ and $p_{4}$ represent the first and the second case in the proof of Theorem 2, respectively.

Graphs of strictly definite and indefinite polynomials from $E_{\Delta}$ are given in [17].

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