# A GENERALIZATION OF THE BERNSTEIN POLYNOMIALS BASED ON THE $q$-INTEGERS 

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#### Abstract

This paper is concerned with a generalization of the Bernstein polynomials in which the approximated function is evaluated at points spaced in geometric progression instead of the equal spacing of the original polynomials.


## 1. Introduction

We begin by recalling that, for any $f \in C[0,1]$, the Bernstein polynomial of order $n$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n}(f ; x)=\sum_{r=0}^{n} f\left(\frac{r}{n}\right)\binom{n}{r} x^{r}(1-x)^{n-r} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

These are the polynomials which were introduced (see [2]) by S. N. Bernstein (18801968) to give his celebrated constructive proof of the Weierstrass theorem. See also Cheney [3], Davis [4] and Rivlin [15]. In (1) the approximated function $f$ is evaluated at equally spaced intervals. Here we discuss a generalization of the Bernstein polynomials where the approximated function is evaluated at intervals which are in geometric progression. This generalization was proposed in Phillips [12] and further properties of these generalized Bernstein polynomials are discussed in Phillips [11] and [13], Oruç and Phillips [10] and Goodman et al. [5]. First we require some preliminary results concerning $q$-integers. For any fixed real number $q>0$, we define

$$
[i]= \begin{cases}\left(1-q^{i}\right) /(1-q), & q \neq 1,  \tag{2}\\ i, & q=1\end{cases}
$$

[^0]for all non-negative integers $i$. We refer to [ $i$ ] as a $q$-integer and note that $[i]$ is a continuous function of $q$. In an obvious way we also define a $q$-factorial,
\[

[i]!= $$
\begin{cases}{[i] \cdot[i-1] \cdots[1],} & i=1,2, \ldots  \tag{3}\\ 1, & i=0\end{cases}
$$
\]

and a $q$-binomial coefficient

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
k  \tag{4}\\
r
\end{array}\right]=\frac{[k]!}{[r]![k-r]!}
$$

for integers $k \geq r \geq 0$. These $q$-binomial coefficients satisfy the recurrence relations

$$
\begin{align*}
& {\left[\begin{array}{c}
k+1 \\
r
\end{array}\right]=q^{k-r+1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
k \\
r-1
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{l}
k \\
r
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and }}  \tag{5}\\
& {\left[\begin{array}{c}
k+1 \\
r
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
k \\
r-1
\end{array}\right]+q^{r}\left[\begin{array}{l}
k \\
r
\end{array}\right]} \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

which both reduce to the Pascal identity for ordinary binomial coefficients when $q=1$. It follows from the above Pascal identities that the $q$-binomial coefficient in (4) is a polynomial in $q$ of degree $r(k-r)$. Since they are associated with Gauss, the $q$-binomial coefficients are also known as Gaussian polynomials (see Andrews [1]). It is easily verified by induction, using either (5) or (6), that

$$
(1+x)(1+q x) \cdots\left(1+q^{k-1} x\right)=\sum_{r=0}^{k} q^{r(r-1) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
k  \tag{7}\\
r
\end{array}\right] x^{r}
$$

which generalizes the binomial expansion, and its inverse

$$
(1+x)^{-1}(1+q x)^{-1} \cdots\left(1+q^{k-1} x\right)^{-1}=\sum_{r=0}^{\infty}\left[\begin{array}{c}
k+r-1  \tag{8}\\
r
\end{array}\right](-1)^{r} x^{r}
$$

We also need a generalization of the forward difference operator $\Delta$. Let $n$ be a fixed positive integer. For any real function $f$ we define $q$-differences recursively from

$$
\begin{align*}
\Delta^{0} f_{i} & =f_{i} \quad \text { for } i=0,1, \ldots, n \text { and }  \tag{9}\\
\Delta^{k+1} f_{i} & =\Delta^{k} f_{i+1}-q^{k} \Delta^{k} f_{i} \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

for $k=0,1, \ldots, n-i-1$, where $f_{i}$ denotes $f([i] /[n])$. If one constructs the Newton divided difference of a function evaluated at points $x_{i}=[i] /[n]$, one naturally re-discovers these $q$-differences (see Schoenberg [16] and Lee and Phillips [8]). The
$q$-differences reduce to ordinary forward differences when $q=1$ and it is easily verified by induction that

$$
\Delta^{k} f_{i}=\sum_{r=0}^{k}(-1)^{r} q^{r(r-1) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
k  \tag{11}\\
r
\end{array}\right] f_{i+k-r}
$$

Koçak and Phillips [7] showed that the $k$ th $q$-difference of a product can be written in the form

$$
\Delta^{k}\left(f_{i} g_{i}\right)=\sum_{r=0}^{k}\left[\begin{array}{l}
k  \tag{12}\\
r
\end{array}\right] \Delta^{k-r} f_{i+r} \Delta^{r} g_{i}
$$

This generalizes the well-known Leibniz rule for the $k$ th ordinary difference of a product.

## 2. Bernstein polynomials

For each positive integer $n$, we define

$$
B_{n}(f ; x)=\sum_{r=0}^{n} f_{r}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{13}\\
r
\end{array}\right] x^{r} \prod_{s=0}^{n-r-1}\left(1-q^{s} x\right)
$$

where an empty product denotes 1 and, as above, $f_{r}=f([r] /[n])$. When $q=1$, we obtain the classical Bernstein polynomial. We observe immediately from (13) that, independently of $q$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n}(f ; 0)=f(0), \quad B_{n}(f ; 1)=f(1) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all functions $f$ and thus $B_{n}(f ; x)=f(x)$ for all linear functions $f$. We now state a generalization of the well-known forward-difference form (see, for example, Davis [4]) of the classical Bernstein polynomial.

THEOREM 1. The generalized Bernstein polynomial, defined by (13), may be expressed in the $q$-difference form

$$
B_{n}(f ; x)=\sum_{r=0}^{n}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{15}\\
r
\end{array}\right] \Delta^{r} f_{0} x^{r} .
$$

This is proved in Phillips [12], where it is also shown that, for $n \geq 0,1$ and 2 respectively,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n}(1 ; x)=1, \quad B_{n}(x ; x)=x \quad \text { and } \quad B_{n}\left(x^{2} ; x\right)=x^{2}+\frac{x(1-x)}{[n]} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the classical Bernstein operator, the uniform convergence of the sequence of polynomials $B_{n}(f ; x)$ to $f \in C[0,1]$ follows as a special case of the BohmanKorovkin theorem (see Cheney [3] and Lorentz [9]). Convergence is assured by the following two properties:

1. $B_{n}$ is a monotone operator; and
2. $B_{n}(f ; x)$ converges uniformly to $f \in C[0,1]$ for $f(x)=1, x$ and $x^{2}$.

Recall that if a linear operator $L$ maps an element $f \in C[0,1]$ to $L f \in C[0,1]$, then $L$ is said to be monotone if $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[0,1]$ implies that $L f(x) \geq 0$ on $[0,1]$. The generalized Bernstein operator defined by (13) is monotone for $0<q \leq 1$. Yet if $0<q<1$ it is clear from (16) and (2) that $B_{n}\left(x^{2} ; x\right)$ does not converge to $x^{2}$. In order to obtain convergence for the generalized Bernstein polynomials, it is therefore necessary to let $q=q_{n}$ in (13), so that $q$ depends on $n$, and let $q_{n} \rightarrow 1$ from below as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The following theorem, which is concerned with convergent sequences of Bernstein polynomials other than the classical case with $q=1$, is also a special case of the Bohman-Korovkin theorem.

THEOREM 2. Let $q=q_{n}$ satisfy $0<q_{n}<1$ and let $q_{n} \rightarrow 1$ from below as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, for any $f \in C[0,1]$, the sequence of generalized Bernstein polynomials defined by

$$
B_{n}(f ; x)=\sum_{r=0}^{n} f_{r}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{17}\\
r
\end{array}\right] x^{r} \prod_{s=0}^{n-r-1}\left(1-q_{n}^{s} x\right)
$$

where $f_{r}=f([r] /[n])$, converges uniformly to $f(x)$ on $[0,1]$.
The above result is discussed in Phillips [12], where there is also a proof of the following generalization of Voronovskaya's theorem. (The latter proof in Phillips [12] closely follows that presented in Davis [4] for the classical Bernstein polynomials.)

Theorem 3. Let $f$ be bounded on $[0,1]$ and let $x_{0}$ be a point of $[0,1]$ at which $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{0}\right)$ exists. Further, let $q=q_{n}$ satisfy $0<q_{n}<1$ and let $q_{n} \rightarrow 1$ from below as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then the rate of convergence of the sequence of generalized Bernstein polynomials is governed by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}[n]\left(B_{n}\left(f ; x_{0}\right)-f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=(1 / 2) x_{0}\left(1-x_{0}\right) f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{0}\right) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Voronovskaya theorem provides an asymptotic estimate of how close $B_{n} f$ is to $f$. We now consider an alternative measure of how well $B_{\mathrm{n}} f$ approximates $f$. Given a function $f$ defined on $[0,1]$, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega(\delta)=\sup _{\left|x_{1}-x_{2}\right| \leq \delta}\left|f\left(x_{1}\right)-f\left(x_{2}\right)\right| \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

the usual modulus of continuity, where the supremum is taken over all $x_{1}, x_{2} \in[0,1]$ such that $\left|x_{1}-x_{2}\right| \leq \delta$. The following result is presented in Phillips [12].

THEOREM 4. If $f$ is bounded on $[0,1]$ and $B_{n}$ denotes the generalized Bernstein operator defined by (13), then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|f-B_{n} f\right\|_{\infty} \leq(3 / 2) \omega\left(1 /[n]^{1 / 2}\right) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rivlin [15] states this theorem for the case where $q=1$, and his proof is easily extended to the generalized Bernstein operator.

## 3. Further properties

Algorithm: for $r=0$ to $n$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{r}^{[0]}:=f([r] /[n]) \\
& \text { next } r \\
& \text { for } m=1 \text { to } n \\
& \quad \text { for } r=0 \text { to } n-m \\
& \quad f_{r}^{[m]}:=\left(q^{r}-q^{m-1} x\right) f_{r}^{[m-1]}+x f_{r+1}^{[m-1]} \\
& \quad \text { next } r \\
& \text { next } m
\end{aligned}
$$

For $q=1$, this is the de Casteljau algorithm for evaluating the classical Bernstein polynomial. See Hoschek and Lasser [6] and Phillips and Taylor [14]. The above algorithm was proposed in Phillips [13], where it is shown that, for $0 \leq m \leq n$ and $0 \leq r \leq n-m$, each of the quantities $f_{r}^{[m]}$ satisfies both

$$
f_{r}^{[m]}=\sum_{t=0}^{m} f_{r+t}\left[\begin{array}{c}
m  \tag{21}\\
t
\end{array}\right] x^{t} \prod_{s=0}^{m-t-1}\left(q^{r}-q^{s} x\right)
$$

and the $q$-difference form

$$
f_{r}^{[m]}=\sum_{s=0}^{m} q^{(m-s) r}\left[\begin{array}{c}
m  \tag{22}\\
s
\end{array}\right] \Delta^{s} f_{r} x^{s}
$$

With $r=0$ and $m=n$ in (21) or (22), we have $f_{0}^{[n]}=B_{n}(f ; x)$, which justifies the validity of the above algorithm.

From (5) or (6) it follows by induction, as we remarked above, that the $q$-binomial coefficient defined by (4) is a polynomial in $q$ of degree $r(k-r)$. We now further observe that this polynomial has non-negative integral coefficients. Thus the $q$ binomial coefficients are monotonic increasing functions of $q$ and in particular, for $k \geq r \geq 0$,

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
k  \tag{23}\\
r
\end{array}\right] \leq\binom{ k}{r}
$$

for $0<q \leq 1$. This property of the $q$-binomial coefficients is used in Phillips [11], where the following result is proved concerning convergence of the derivatives of the generalized polynomials $B_{n}(f ; x)$ uniformly to $f^{\prime}(x)$ on $[0,1]$.

THEOREM 5. Let $f \in C^{1}[0,1]$ and let the sequence $\left(q_{n}\right)$ be chosen so that the sequence $\left(\epsilon_{n}\right)$ converges to zero from above faster than $\left(1 / 3^{n}\right)$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon_{n}=\frac{n}{1+q_{n}+q_{n}^{2}+\cdots+q_{n}{ }^{n-1}}-1 . \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then the sequence of derivatives of the generalized Bernstein polynomials $B_{n}(f ; x)$ converges uniformly on $[0,1]$ to $f^{\prime}(x)$.

The convergence of the $k$ th derivative of the generalized Bernstein polynomial $B_{n}(f ; x)$ to the $k$ th derivative of $f(x)$, for $k>1$, can be explored in a similar way.

## 4. Convexity

We now recall that if a function $f$ is convex on $[0,1]$ then, for any $t_{0}, t_{1}$ such that $0 \leq t_{0}<t_{1} \leq 1$ and any $\lambda, 0<\lambda<1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\lambda t_{0}+(1-\lambda) t_{1}\right) \leq \lambda f\left(t_{0}\right)+(1-\lambda) f\left(t_{1}\right) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is equivalent to saying that no chord of $f$ lies below the graph of $f$. With $\lambda=q /(1+q), t_{0}=[m] /[n]$ and $t_{1}=[m+2] /[n]$ in (25), where $0<q \leq 1$, we see that, if $f$ is convex,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{m+1} \leq \frac{q}{1+q} f_{m}+\frac{1}{1+q} f_{m+2} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

from which we deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{m+2}-(1+q) f_{m+1}+q f_{m}=\Delta^{2} f_{m} \geq 0 \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the second $q$-differences of a convex function are non-negative. (This could also be verified by expressing the second $q$-difference as a multiple of a second-order divided difference.) It is easily deduced from (25) that, if $\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ are positive real numbers such that $\lambda_{0}+\lambda_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}=1$ and $0 \leq t_{0}<t_{1}<\cdots<t_{n} \leq 1$, then, if $f$ is convex on $[0,1]$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\sum_{j=0}^{n} \lambda_{j} t_{j}\right) \leq \sum_{j=0}^{n} \lambda_{j} f\left(t_{j}\right) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following nice relation between a convex function and its Bernstein polynomials follows readily from (28).

Theorem 6. If $f$ is convex on $[0,1]$ and $0<q \leq 1$ then, for any $n \geq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n}(f ; x) \geq f(x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. In view of the interpolatory property (14) we need concern ourselves only with $0<x<1$. Let us substitute

$$
\lambda_{j}=\lambda_{j}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{30}\\
j
\end{array}\right] x^{j} \prod_{s=0}^{n-j-1}\left(1-q^{s} x\right), \quad 0<x<1,
$$

and $t_{j}=[j] /[n]$ in (28). For $0<q \leq 1$ it is clear that the $t_{j}$ satisfy $0=t_{0}<t_{1}<$ $\cdots<t_{n}=1$ and that the $\lambda_{j}$ given by (30) are positive. Next we observe that the condition $\lambda_{0}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}=1$ is equivalent to the statement (see (16)) that $B_{n}(1 ; x)=1$. The proof is completed by noting that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=0}^{n} \lambda_{j}(x) t_{j}=x \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

which follows (see (16)) from the identity $B_{n}(x ; x)=x$.
It is well known (see Davis [4]) that the classical Bernstein polynomials converge monotonically if the function is convex. The following result of Oruç and Phillips [10] shows that this beautiful monotonicity property extends to the generalized Bernstein polynomials.

Theorem 7. Let $f$ be convex on $[0,1]$. Then for any $q, 0<q \leq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n-1}(f ; x) \geq B_{n}(f ; x) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and all $n \geq 2$. Iff $\in C[0,1]$ the inequality holds strictly for $0<x<1$ unless $f$ is linear in each of the intervals between consecutive knots $[r] /[n-1]$, $0 \leq r \leq n-1$, in which case we have the equality $B_{n-1}(f ; x)=B_{n}(f ; x)$.

To emphasize its dependence on the parameter $q$, and to allow us to distinguish generalized Bernstein polynomials with different values of this parameter, let us write the generalized Bernstein polynomial as $B_{n}^{q}(f ; x)$. Using the concept of total positivity, Goodman, Oruç and Phillips [5] have shown for all $n \geq 1$ and $0<q \leq 1$ that if $f$ is increasing then $B_{n}^{q} f$ is increasing, and that if $f$ is convex then $B_{n}^{q} f$ is convex. They have also proved the following theorem concerning how the generalized Bernstein polynomials for a convex function vary with the parameter $q$.

Theorem 8. If $f$ is convex on $[0,1]$ then, for $0<q \leq r \leq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n}^{r}(f ; x) \leq B_{n}^{q}(f ; x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the generalized Bernstein polynomials for a convex function are not only monotonic in $n$, the degree, but are also monotonic in the parameter $q$, for $0<q \leq 1$.

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