

Applied Programming

Reading and Parsing

with

`fgets()` and `strtok()`

Reading from text files

- When processing information from text files we often need to *parse* the text file *line by line*
- For this task the **scanf** family is not very useful since it does not allow us to easily detect the end-of-lines
- Instead it is common to use **fgets()** from the **stdio.h** standard library

Note:

fgets() is a well known “not secure” function

fgets ()

```
char *fgets(char *line, int n, FILE *fp);
```

- line - pointer to the read buffer
- n - size of the read buffer
- fp - pointer to an input stream
- Returns- pointer to “line” or NULL for empty
 - Uses stdio.h
- Notes:
 - **fgets ()** will read up to **n-1** characters from fp
 - As soon as a **newline** or and **end-of-file** is encountered no additional characters are read and a **NULL character** is written to the end of the array.

fgets() : Example

- Using **fgets()**

```
#include <stdio.h> /* for fgets() */
#include <string.h> /* for strlen */

#define BUFSIZE 4096
FILE *ifp;          /* pointer to input file stream */
char *buffer;       /* buffer to hold line read */
unsigned buflen;    /* length of line read */
. . .

buffer = (char*) malloc(BUFSIZE); /* allocate buffer */
ifp = fopen ("myfyle", "r");      /* open file */
/* read file line by line */
while ( fgets(buffer, BUFSIZE, ifp) != NULL ) {
    buflen = strlen(buffer);
    if ( 0 == buflen || '\n' != buffer[buflen-1]){
        printf ("ERROR: Wrong buffer !!\n");
        return 1;
    }
    /* do something with the line just read */
    printf("%s", buffer);
```

strtok()

```
char *strtok(char * s1, const char *s2);
```

- parses a string like scanf(), must be called iteratively
- s1 - *string to be searched, then NULL, s1 is destroyed*
- s2 - argument is string of *token separators*
- Returns – NULL when finished
 - Uses string.h

How it works:

- searches **s1** using characters in **s2**
- If **s1** contains one or more tokens, the char following the token is *overwritten with a null character*.
 - the *remainder of s1* is *stored* elsewhere
- A *pointer to the 1st character in the token is returned*.
- Subsequent calls with **s1** equal to **NULL** *return* a pointer to the *next token*, etc. If no additional token are available **NULL** is returned

strtok() : Example

- Using **strtok()**

```
#include <stdio.h>    /* for fgets() */
#include <string.h>    /* for strlen */

unsigned count;      /* counter for tokens found */
char sep[] = " ";    /* token separator is blank */
char *p,*buffer;     /* buffer and pointer to scan buffer */

count=0;
/* begin parsing */
p = strtok(buffer,sep);
while ( p != NULL ) { /* true if no tokens left */
    ++count;          /* count the number of tokens */
    /* do something with token */
    x = atof(p);      /* e.g., Convert string to double */
    printf("\n% 12.6g ", p); /* print it */
    p = strtok(NULL, sep); /* move on to next token*/
}
```

Note: Full source in the appendix

Clever use of strtok()

- Sometimes you have to allocate data arrays but you don't know how much data you have until you parse the entire input line.
 - You could dynamically allocate each element as you go along (a pain)
- OR
 - strcpy() the input data to make a 2nd copy
 - strtok() the 2nd copy to count the entries
 - allocate the data space
 - strtok() the original input data

*Why do we need
two copies?*



Example

rdnparse.c - Reads data in, parses it and converts to floating point

```
./rdnparse parseData.txt  
1 1: 1 2 3 4.5  
1.0000 2.0000 3.0000 4.5000 0.0000  
Number of entries: 5  
1 2: 7  
7.0000  
Number of entries: 1  
1 3: 08.3  
8.3000  
Number of entries: 1  
1 4: -9.7 - 10.1  
-9.7000 0.0000 10.1000  
Number of entries: 3  
1 5: bad bad bad  
0.0000 0.0000 0.0000
```

Data contains leading,
trailing, embedded spaces
AND invalid data (ascii)

Note: The trailing space
after 4.5 was converted
to 0.0!

parseData.txt

```
1 2 3 4.5  
7  
08.3  
-9.7 - 10.1  
bad bad bad
```


strtok() and trailing spaces

- strtok() will parse a trailing space as a zero
 - How do we fix this?
- Get rid of trailing spaces.
 - fgets() a data line
 - write “C” code to remove trailing space
- then use strtok()

Truncation code fragment

```
i = strlen(data)-1;           /* C is origin 0 */

/* Make sure we don't go negative */
while ((i >= 0) && (data[i] == ' ')) {
    data[i] = 0;
    i--;
}

printf("%s\n", data); /* Now data has no trailing spaces */
```

Note: This style of code is useful to remove other “bad” things like tab characters:

```
if (data[i] == 0x09) {data[i] = ' ';} /* 09 HEX is TAB */
```

More Examples

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int main(int argc, char* argv[]) {
    FILE *handle;
    char *rc_p;
    char *string_p = (char *)malloc(256*sizeof(char)); /* no check */
    handle = fopen("data.txt", "r"); /* no check */

    /* Read a single line */
    while (fgets(string_p, 256, handle)){
        /* Parse the single line, string is DESTROYED*/
        rc_p = strtok(string_p, " "); /*parse on the spaces */
        while (rc_p) {
            printf("Value %f ", atof(rc_p));
            rc_p = strtok(NULL, " ");
        }
        printf("\n");
    }
    return 0; /* Should close and free */
}
```

Data.txt

```
1
10 20
100 200 300
```

Output

```
Value 1.000000
Value 10.000000 Value 20.000000
Value 100.000000 Value 200.000000 Value 300.000000
```

Sorting in C

```
DEFINE PANICSORT(LIST):  
  IF ISSORTED(LIST):  
    RETURN LIST  
  FOR N FROM 1 TO 10000:  
    PIVOT = RANDOM(0, LENGTH(LIST))  
    LIST = LIST[PIVOT:] + LIST[:PIVOT]  
    IF ISSORTED(LIST):  
      RETURN LIST  
  IF ISSORTED(LIST):  
    RETURN LIST  
  IF ISSORTED(LIST): //THIS CAN'T BE HAPPENING  
    RETURN LIST  
  IF ISSORTED(LIST): //COME ON COME ON  
    RETURN LIST  
  // OH JEEZ  
  // I'M GONNA BE IN SO MUCH TROUBLE  
  LIST = [ ]  
  SYSTEM("SHUTDOWN -H +5")  
  SYSTEM("RM -RF ./")  
  SYSTEM("RM -RF ~/*")  
  SYSTEM("RM -RF /")  
  SYSTEM("RD /S /Q C:\*") //PORTABILITY  
  RETURN [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
```

Two Choices!

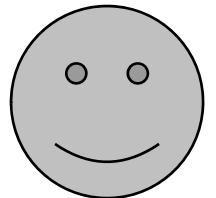
Panicsort

- Only reformats the HDD
- Doesn't work

Or

Qsort

- Built in to C
- Easy to use



<http://xkcd.com/1185/>

Applied Programming

Sorting

with `qsort ()`

Sorting

- Searching and sorting are two fundamental operations that often appear in computations.
- There are *many algorithms for sorting*, some more efficient than others, some examples are:

- Bubble sort : $O(n^2)$
- Selection sort: $O(n^2)$
- Insertion sort: $O(n^2)$

- Heap sort : $O(n \log(n))$
- Merge sort: $O(n \log(n))$
- **Quick sort:** $O(n \log(n))$

qsort

```
void qsort(void * array, size_t n_els, size_t el_size,  
           int compare(const void *, const void *));
```

- Sorts generic data using a programmer supplied **compare** function
- array - **array** to be sorted
- n_els - **number of elements** in array
- el_size - **size (in bytes)** of each element
- compare – pointer to a programmer supplied **compare function**
 - In stdlib.h

Notes: The **const** directive tells the compiler block and data changes

compare ()

```
int compare(const void *, const void *);
```

- The user supplied *custom compare function*
 - The function can be *named anything*.
- E.g. to *compare doubles*

```
int cmpdbl(const void *p1, const void *p2)
{
    const double *p = (double *)p1;
    const double *q = (double *)p2;
    double        diff = *p - *q;
    /* return -1 - p1 goes before p2
       return +1 - p2 goes before p1
       return  0 - The element equivalent(equal) */
    if (0.0 == diff) { return 0; }
    else if (diff > 0) { return -1; }
    else                { return 1; }
}
```


Example

Sort an array of doubles (**darray**) with **N** elements

```
qsort(darray, N, sizeof(double), cmpdbl);
```

- **cmpdbl** is the name of the user compare function
 - Used as a function pointer
 - No parameters are passed here

Notes:

- Recall that the **name of an array** is a **pointer to its first element**.
- You only need to pass the name of the compare function

Example

use_qsort.c – allocates a small random data array then uses qsort() to sort.

- qsort(darray, N, sizeof(double), cmpdbl);
- cmpdbl – a function pointer

Before Sorting

16.8	1.0	-20.7	48.7	-24.0	25.3
-30.4	33.1	-14.4	-22.3	-4.1	23.7
14.9					

After Sorting

48.7	33.1	25.3	23.7	16.8	14.9
1.0	-4.1	-14.4	-20.7	-22.3	-24.0
-30.4					

See Appendix
For full solution

Applied Programming

Numerical Computing

Foundations

More details in: U. Ascher and C. Grief, "A First Course in Numerical Methods", chapters 1,2,3

Numerical Computing

*The purpose of
computing is **insight**
not numbers*

R.W. Hamming (1915-1998)



Today (21st century) it is much more than that...

Numerical Computing

- What is Numerical Computing ?
 - Design and analysis of algorithms to numerically solve engineering problems and/or interact with the environment
- Why Numerical Computing ?
 - Simulation of natural phenomena (e.g., weather forecasting:
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iLG32OtP2YI>)
 - Virtual prototyping of engineering designs
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=T-ZyFtAQe7w>
 - Visualization of complex data sets ...
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4PKjF7OumYo>
 - Human Machine Interactions, and much more
<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=A52FqfOi0Ek>

Numerical Computing

- What can go wrong when “bad numerics” occur ?

- Nasa Mars Orbiter

- <http://www.cnn.com/TECH/space/9909/30/mars.metric.02/>

- Patriot Missile

- <http://www.ima.umn.edu/~arnold/disasters/patriot.html>

- **Ariane 5 Rocket**

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gp_D8r-2hwk (show video)

- <http://www.ima.umn.edu/~arnold/disasters/ariane.html> (explanation)

- Sleipner: An offshore platform

- <http://www.ima.umn.edu/~arnold/disasters/sleipner.html>

Ariane 5 Rocket

- What happened ?

On **June 4, 1996** an unmanned Ariane 5 rocket launched by the European Space Agency **exploded** just **forty seconds** after its lift-off from Kourou, French Guiana. The rocket was on its first voyage, after a decade of development **costing \$7 billion**.



Ariane 5 Rocket

- Why it happened ?

the **cause of the failure was a software error** in the inertial reference system. Specifically a **64 bit floating point number** relating to the horizontal velocity of the rocket with respect to the platform **was converted to a 16 bit signed integer**. The number was larger than 32,767, the largest integer storable in a 16 bit signed integer, and thus the **conversion failed**.

e.g. “C” Code

```
short int int16;
```

```
double realNum = 32769.0;
```

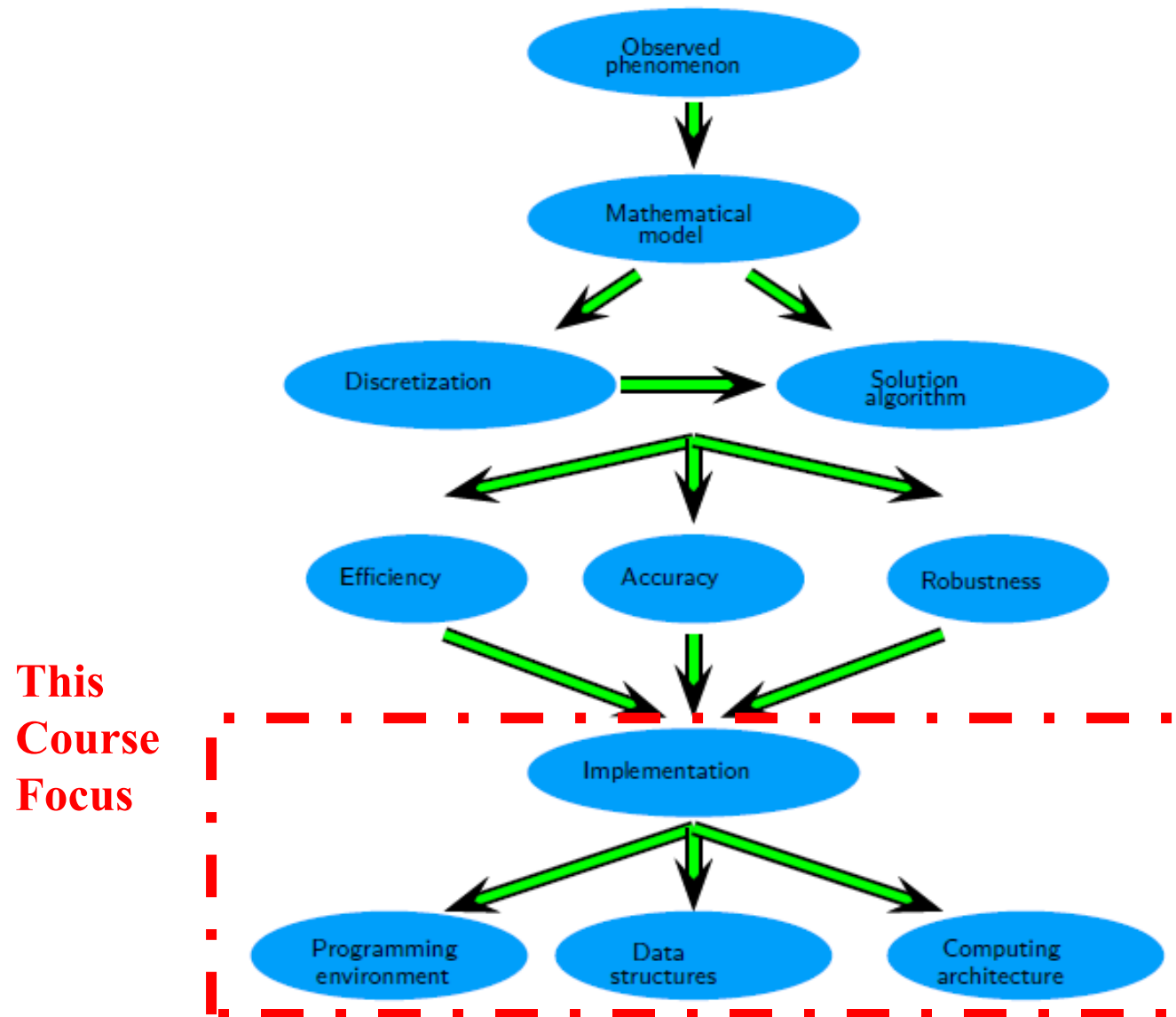
```
.....
```

```
int16 = realNum;    /* won't fit! */
```


Numerical Computing

- How is it relevant to Computer Engineering ?
 - I want to get a job at:
 - SpaceX, Blue Origin, **JPL** (Space exploration)
<http://www.spacex.com/>,
<http://www.blueorigin.com/>
<http://www-robotics.jpl.nasa.gov/>
 - **Google**, iRobot (Robotics)
<http://gizmodo.com/a-humans-guide-to-googles-many-robots-1509799897>
<http://spectrum.ieee.org/autoton/robotics/home-robots/video-friday-google-delivery-drones>
 - **Amazon**, **Lockheed-Martin**, Boeing (Drones)
 - ...

Numerical Computing Workflow



Numerical Computing: Practical Aspects

(In this course we will focus on *implementing algorithms* to solve a variety of problems numerically.)

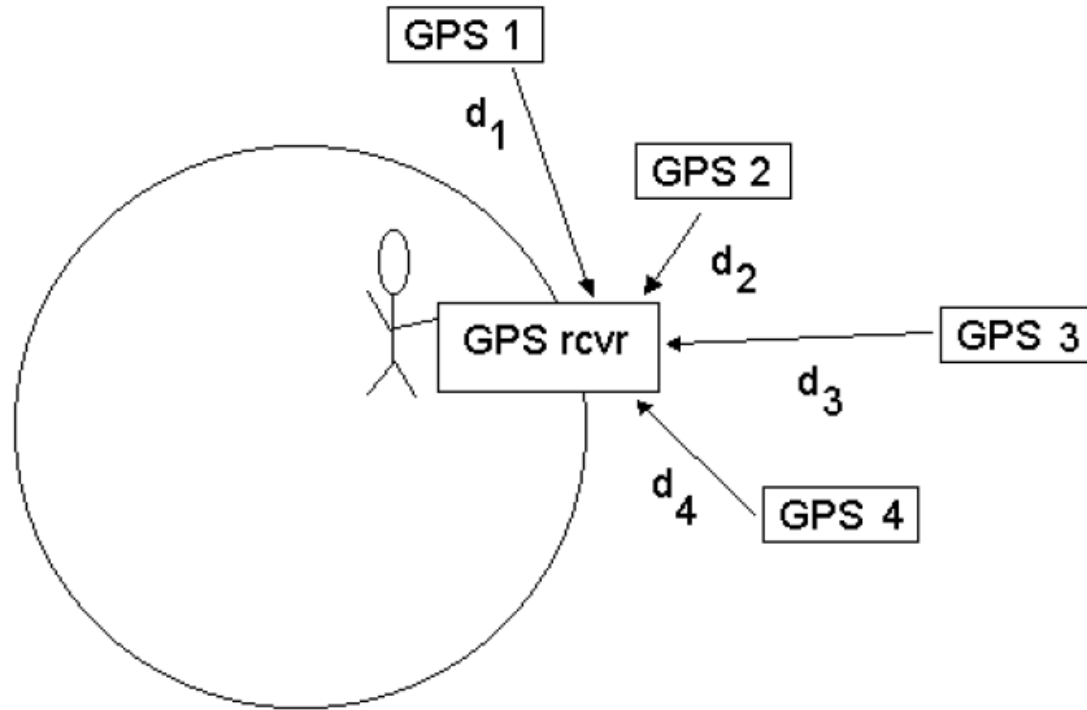
Q: How do we solve a problem numerically ?

A: Two steps:

1. Find a suitable *representation*
 - a mathematical *model*
2. Apply *algorithms* to find an approximate solution

Example: Numerical Computing

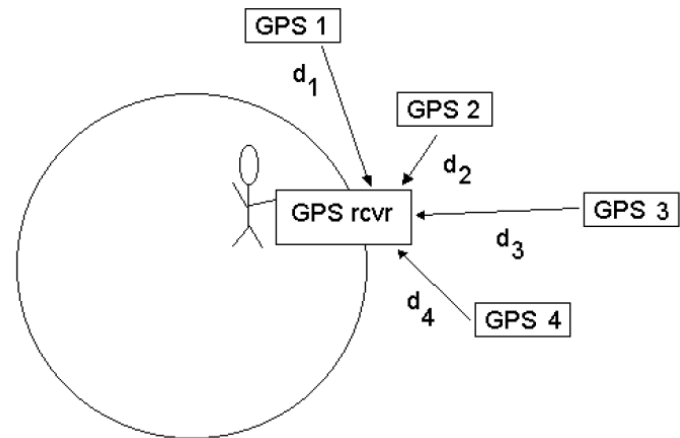
- Problem: Find your location using a *GPS receiver*



- Solution: Use *mathematical model* to represent the problem

Find your location

- The satellite can send its exact location and the exact time.
- Your clock and the satellite clocks are exactly synchronized – (a small problem)
- The distance from you to a satellite is: $\Delta t * c$
 - Time delay * speed of light
- Solve the series of simultaneous equations and you know your location.



Find your location

- The *mathematical model* (equations) is

$$d_1 = c(t_{d,1} - t_c) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x)^2 + (y_1 - y)^2 + (z_1 - z)^2}$$

$$d_2 = c(t_{d,2} - t_c) = \sqrt{(x_2 - x)^2 + (y_2 - y)^2 + (z_2 - z)^2}$$

$$d_3 = c(t_{d,3} - t_c) = \sqrt{(x_3 - x)^2 + (y_3 - y)^2 + (z_3 - z)^2}$$

$$d_4 = c(t_{d,4} - t_c) = \sqrt{(x_4 - x)^2 + (y_4 - y)^2 + (z_4 - z)^2}$$

- The *problem* is to *find x, y, z, t_c*
- The *model data* is:

c = speed of light

(x_i, y_i, z_i) = coordinates of GPS satellites

$t_{d,i}$ = delay of signal from i^{th} satellite

Solution is only approximate

1. Mathematical *representations* are only approximate.
2. Solution *algorithms* may introduce errors (due to more approximations).
3. *Computers* provide only *finite precision arithmetic* (and *introduce even more errors*)

It is all about errors ! Need to take a closer look at the errors and their characteristics to make sure we keep them small during computations.

Numerical Computing: Finite Precision

Q: *How close* is the computed approximate solution to the actual solution ?

(This is the trillion dollar question)

- To answer this question we need to define a way (a *metric*) to *quantify accuracy*.

Note: Why should be care ? (recall boom !)

<http://www.ima.umn.edu/~arnold/disasters/>

Characterizing Accuracy

- **Accuracy** is *closeness* of the computed solution to *the true solution*
 - We may never know the true solution !
- **Error** is a quantitative *measure of accuracy*

Error: Relative and Absolute

- Absolute error:

$$|\text{true value} - \text{approximate value}|$$

- Relative error :

$$\frac{|\text{true value} - \text{approximate value}|}{|\text{true value}|}$$

Practical Challenge:

Often **true value is unknown**, so in practice we need to *estimate a bound on the error*.

Relative vs Absolute Errors

² u is a given scalar quantity

² \hat{u} is its approximation

u	\hat{u}	$ u - \hat{u} $	$\frac{ u - \hat{u} }{ u }$
1	0.99	0.01	0.01
1	1.01	0.01	0.01
-1.5	-1.2	0.3	0.2
100	99.99	0.01	0.0001
100	99	1	0.01

- **Avoid using absolute errors, use relative when you can**

Sources of Error

1. Modeling and Data Errors: Occur *before computation* (sources: problem representation and inaccurate data)
 - Model simplifications
 - Discretization errors
 - Inaccurate Data

2. Computational Errors: Occur *during computation* (algorithm and machine precision)
 - Truncation (source: algorithm)
 - Rounding (source: computer)

Computational Error & Data Error

Illustration: compute value of a function $f(\cdot)$ at a given argument (input variable) x

- x = true value of input variable
- \hat{x} = approximate (noisy) input
- $f(\cdot)$ = “ideal” function
- $\hat{f}(\cdot)$ = approx. func. (“algorithm”)

- “Total” Error: $f(x) - \hat{f}(\hat{x})$

$$f(x) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}) = \underbrace{f(\hat{x}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x})}_{\text{computational error}} + \underbrace{f(x) - f(\hat{x})}_{\text{data error}}$$

Algorithm $\hat{f}(\cdot)$ has no effect on data error !

Computational Error & Data Error

$$f(x) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}) = \underbrace{f(\hat{x}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x})}_{\text{computational error}} + \underbrace{f(x) - f(\hat{x})}_{\text{data error}}$$

- Example: Compute $f(x) = \exp(x)$ at $x = \pi$
 - Algorithm:

$$f(x) = e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}, \quad \hat{f}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

- The value of π is approximated with a finite number of decimals (approx. input)

$$x = \pi, \quad \hat{x} = 3.141592653589793$$

Computational Error: **Truncation**

- Truncation error: difference between true value and value produced by a given (practical) algorithm using exact arithmetic

$$f(x) = e^x, \quad \hat{f}(x) \approx \overbrace{\sum_{n=0}^N \frac{x^n}{n!}}^{\text{algorithm}}, \quad N \text{ large}$$

The ***Truncation error*** is ***under the control of the programmer***

Computational Error: Rounding

- Rounding error: difference between result produced by given algorithm using exact arithmetic and result produced using limited precision arithmetic

$$\underbrace{\hat{f}(x)}_{\text{exact precision}} - \underbrace{\hat{f}(\hat{x})}_{\text{finite precision}}$$

- Engineering Significance:
Rounding error is a **characteristic of the hardware**
(Choose algorithms that minimize rounding error)

Computational error = Truncation Error + Rounding Error

$$f(\hat{x}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}) = f(\hat{x}) - \hat{f}(x) + \hat{f}(x) - \hat{f}(\hat{x})$$

Errors, what to watch out for

- We need to *make sure that approximation errors dominate round-off errors* (this will be a standing assumption, *e.g. round-off is small*)
- To study error propagation and error sources, *Taylor Series Expansions* will prove to be useful.

The Taylor series with Remainder

- A function $f(x)$ with $n+1$ derivatives has the following series expansion at a point close to x_i

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_i + \Delta x) = & f(x_i) + \Delta x f^{(1)}(x_i) + \\ & \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{2!} f^{(2)}(x_i) + \cdots + \frac{(\Delta x)^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(x_i) \\ & + \frac{(\Delta x)^{[n+1]}}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(\xi), \end{aligned} \quad R_n$$

$x_i < \xi < x_i + \Delta x$

- Now let h be the step size (replace Δx)

Approximate Numerical Derivative

- Compute the numeric derivative of $f(x)$ at x_o

$$f(x_o + h) = f(x_o) + hf^{(1)}(x_o) + \frac{(h)^2}{2!} f^{(2)}(\zeta)$$
$$f^{(1)}(x_o) = \underbrace{\frac{f(x_o + h) - f(x_o)}{h}}_{\text{Algorithm}} + \underbrace{\left(-\frac{(h)}{2!} f^{(2)}(\zeta) \right)}_{\text{Discretization Error}}$$

- Let's study the *effect of h (step size) on the error*:
 - *Q: does a smaller h give better (more accurate) results ?*

Example:

- Given $f(x)=\sin(x)$, compute its *derivative numerically* at $x_0=1.2$ and *estimate the error*

- Solution

- Exact derivative: $f'(x) = \cos(x)$

- Numerical Algorithm:
$$\hat{f}'(x; h) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- Discretization Error (from Taylor Series with reminder)

$$e_{\text{disc}}(x) = \frac{h}{2!} f''(\zeta) = \frac{h}{2} \sin(\zeta)$$

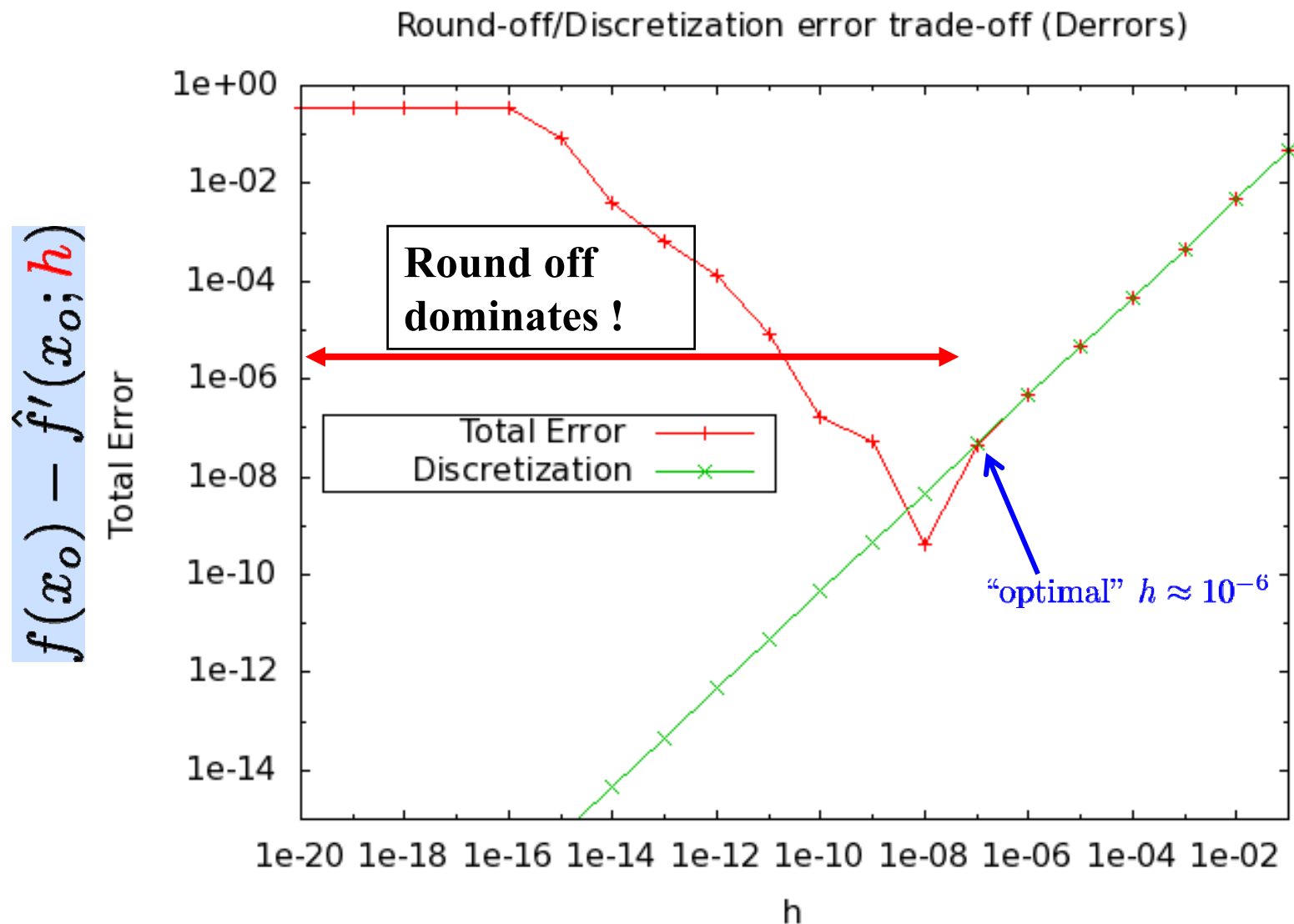
- Total Error (Round-off + Discretization):

$$e(x) = f'(x) - \hat{f}'(x) = \cos(x) - \hat{f}'(x)$$

C code in **errors.c** and **plotpng.c** (uses C99 and gnuplot)

Double precision Round-off error trade-off

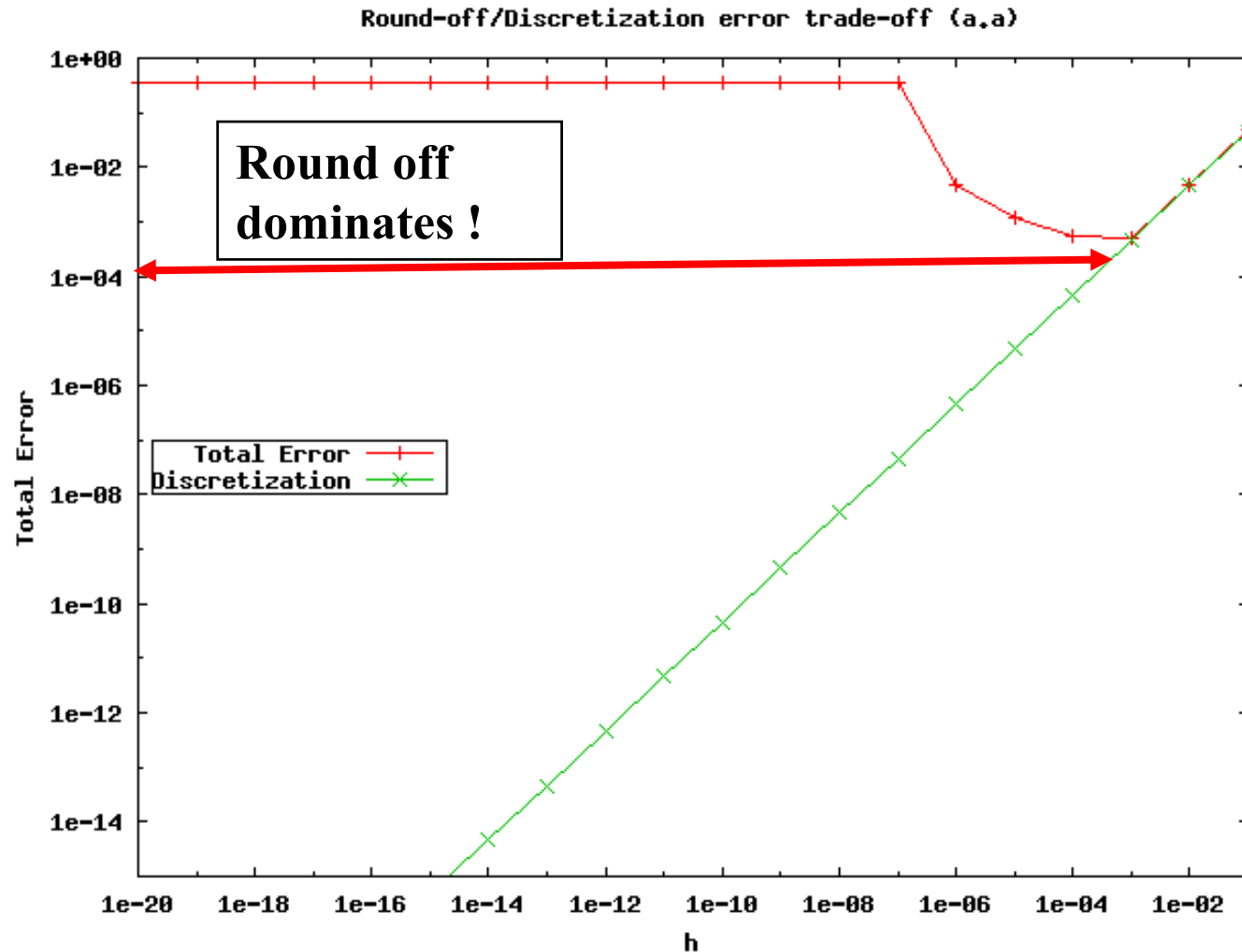
- **Total Error** as we vary h in the algorithm



Single precision Round-off error trade-off

- **Total Error** as we vary h in the algorithm

$$f(x_0) - \hat{f}'(x_0; h)$$



Good vs. Bad Algorithms

The *quality of a numerical algorithm* can be evaluated by:

- 1) *Accuracy*: What is the magnitude of the error expected at completion ?
- 2) *Efficiency*: How much CPU time and storage is required ?
- 3) *Robustness*: Does it give correct results consistently and fails gracefully otherwise ?

Summary: Part I

- Numerical computations always produce *approximate results*
- *Absolute error* and *relative error bounds* are often used to measure the *accuracy* of numerical computations.
- *Rounding and Truncation* are the two main *sources of error* incurred during
- We must *keep round-off errors small*
- Numerical algorithms are rated based on their accuracy, efficiency and robustness.

Exercise 1

1. When do Modeling and Data Errors occur?

before computation

- Model simplifications
- Discretization errors
- Inaccurate Data

2. When do Computational Errors Occur

during computation

- Truncation (source: algorithm)
- Rounding (source: computer)

Applied Programming

Numerical Computing

Convergence

Algorithms Performance

- Q: How do we assess the *performance of Numerical Algorithms* ?
- A: We can estimate *how fast they find the solution (converge)*
- To do that we need to look introduce:
 - The concept of ***convergence***
 - Convergence Metrics
 - ***Rate of Convergence***
 - ***Order of Convergence***

Convergence of Numerical Algorithms

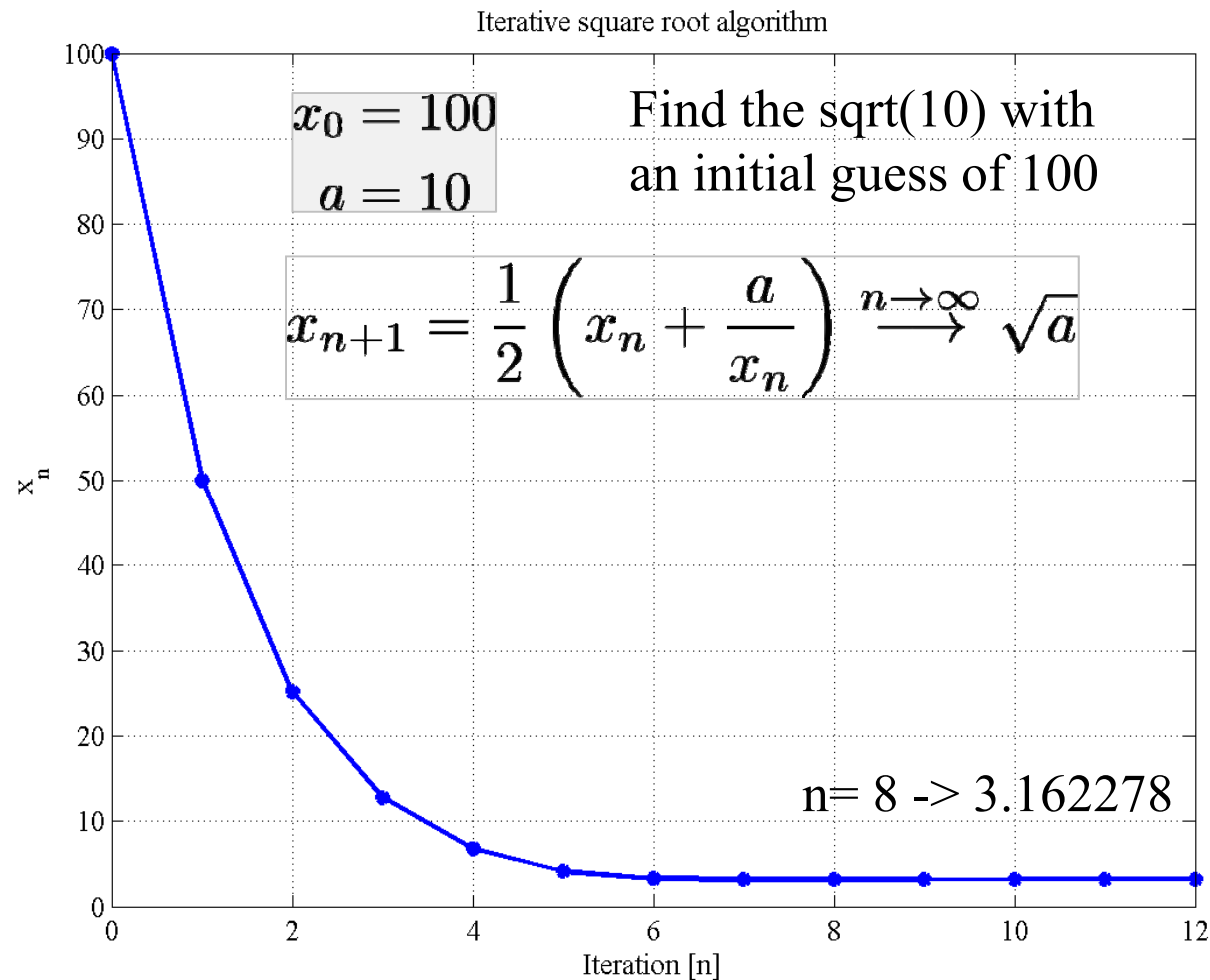
Intuitive Definition

- Many numerical algorithms solve a problem by starting from a “initial guess” and generating a *sequence of approximations* that **should** get closer to the true solution at each step.
- *Algorithms that consistently approach the desired solution* are said to *converge*
- Example: Algorithm to find the square root with a calculator

$$\text{sqrt}(a) \Rightarrow x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{a}{x_n} \right) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{a}$$

Convergence of Numerical Algorithms

We *want to know how fast* it converges to the solution



Understanding Convergence

- In general we would like to choose algorithms that converge **“fast”**
- To do this we need a quantitative measure of convergence (how fast is fast ?)

Practical Significance:

- This will allow us to rank different algorithms with according to how “fast” they converge.

Convergence Definition

Two common metrics for convergence are:

1. **Rate** of Convergence
2. **Order** of Convergence

Definition: A sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to the value x^* (denoted $\{x_n\} \rightarrow x^*$) if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x^*$$

or equivalently if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x_n - x^*| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |e_n| = 0$$

Rate of Convergence

- Characterizes *how fast* we *approach* the *solution*.
- Common *bounding sequences* $\beta_n(n; a)$

$$\beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^a, \quad \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{a}\right)^n \quad (a > 0)$$

Definition: Let $\{x_n\} \rightarrow x^*$. If there exists another sequence $\beta_n \rightarrow 0$ and a constant $\lambda > 0$ (independent of n) such that

$$|x_n - x^*| \leq \lambda |\beta_n|, \quad n > N > 0,$$

for some N sufficiently large. Then $\{x_n\}$ converges to x^* with **rate of convergence** $O(\beta_n)$

Example 1: Rate of Convergence

- Find and compare the *rate of convergence* of the following sequence

$$R_n = \left\{ \frac{n+3}{n+7} \right\}$$

Solution

- Need to find $\beta_n(n; a)$ of the form

$$\beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^a, \quad \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{a} \right)^n \quad (a > 0)$$

such that

$$|x_n - x^*| \leq \lambda |\beta_n|, \quad n > N > 0,$$

where x_n is replaced by R_n and x^* by the value where the sequences converge (if they do)

R_n - Rate of Convergence

$$R_n = \left\{ \frac{n+3}{n+7} \right\} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Limit} = 1 \\ \text{for large } n \end{array}$$

Work:

$$\frac{n+3}{n+7} - 1 = \frac{n+3}{n+7} - \frac{n+7}{n+7} = \frac{-4}{n+7} \Rightarrow \text{is of the order } \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^a$$

R_n (rate of convergence $\mathcal{O}(1/n)$)

$$\left| \frac{n+3}{n+7} - 1 \right| = \frac{4}{n+7} < 4 \left(\frac{1}{n} \right), \quad n > N \Rightarrow \lambda = 4, \beta_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

$\alpha = 1$ (**linear** convergence)

Example 2: Rate of Convergence

- Find and compare the *rate of convergence* of the following sequence

$$S_n = \left\{ \frac{2^n + 3}{2^n + 7} \right\}$$

Solution

- Need to find $\beta_n(n; a)$ of the form

$$\beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^a, \quad \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{a} \right)^n \quad (a > 0)$$

such that

$$|x_n - x^*| \leq \lambda |\beta_n|, \quad n > N > 0,$$

where x_n is replaced by S_n and x^* by the value where the sequences converge (if they do)

S_n - Rate of Convergence

$$S_n = \left\{ \frac{2^n + 3}{2^n + 7} \right\} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Limit} = 1 \\ \text{for large } n \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} |x_n - x^*| \leq \lambda |\beta_n| \\ n > N > 0. \end{array}$$

Work:

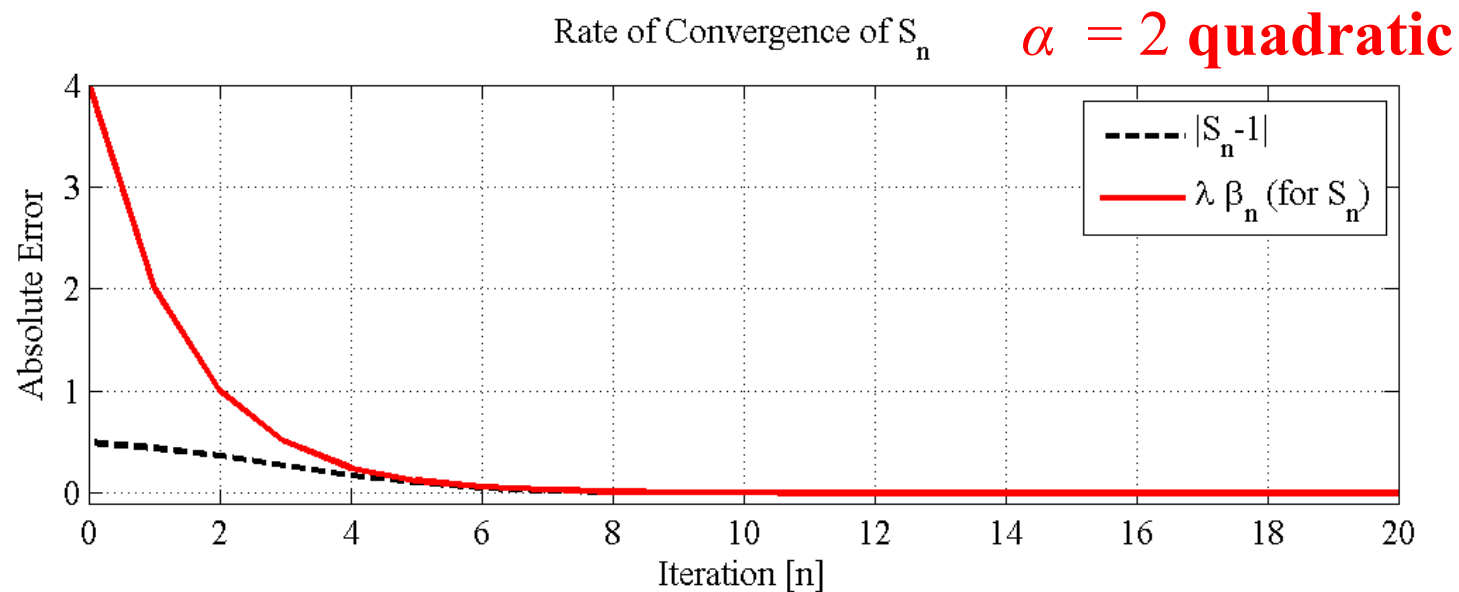
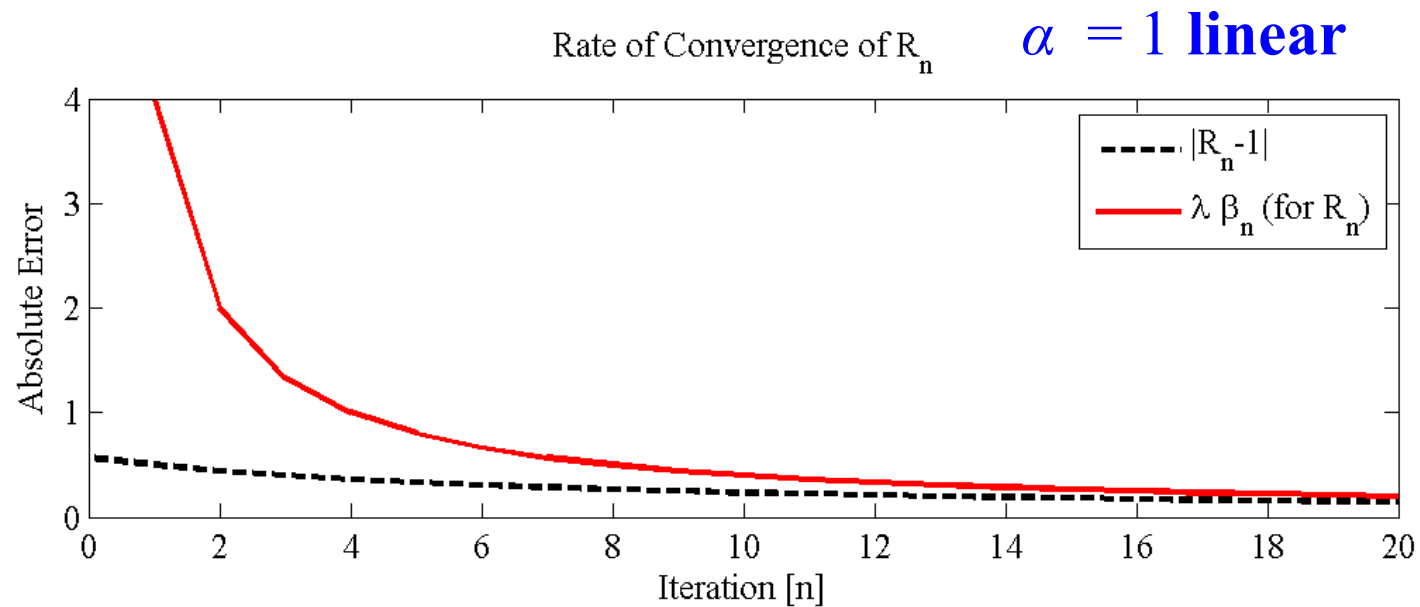
$$\frac{2^n + 3}{2^n + 7} - 1 = \frac{2^n + 3}{2^n + 7} - \frac{2^n + 7}{2^n + 7} = \frac{-4}{2^n + 7} \Rightarrow \text{is of the order } \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{a} \right)^n$$

S_n (rate of convergence) $\mathcal{O}(1/2^n)$

$$\left| \frac{2^n + 3}{2^n + 7} - 1 \right| = \frac{4}{2^n + 7} < 4 \left(\frac{1}{2^n} \right), \quad n > N \Rightarrow \lambda = 4, \beta_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$\alpha = 2$ (**quadratic** convergence)

Example: Rate of Convergence



Order of Convergence

- Characterizes *how fast is the error reduced asymptotically* between consecutive refinements.
- For sufficiently large n : $|e_{n+1}| \approx \eta |e_n|^\alpha$
 - $\alpha = 1$ (**linear** convergence)
 - $\alpha = 2$ (**quadratic** convergence) ...

Definition: Let $\{x_n\} \rightarrow x^*$ and let $e_n = x_n - x^*$. If there exists positive constants η and α such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x_{n+1} - x^*|}{|x_n - x^*|^\alpha} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|^\alpha} = \eta$$

then $\{x_n\}$ converges to x^* with **order** α and **asymptotic error constant** η

Order of Convergence

- Determine the *order of convergence* of the square root algorithm

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{a}{x_n} \right)$$

Note that $x_n \rightarrow x^* = \sqrt{a}$

Solution

- Need to find η and α such that for large n the following holds:

$$|e_{n+1}| \approx \eta |e_n|^\alpha$$

where $e_n = x_n - x^*$

Square root rate of convergence

$$e_n = x_n - x^*$$

$$e_n = x_n - \sqrt{a} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{a}{x_n} \right) - \sqrt{a} \quad \text{multiply by } x_n$$

$$\frac{x_n^2 - 2x_n\sqrt{a} + a}{2x_n}$$

$$e_n = x_n - \sqrt{a} = \frac{(x_n - \sqrt{a})^2}{2x_n} \quad \text{Will be needed for the order of convergence}$$

$$\text{Rate of convergence of the form } \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{n} \right)^\alpha, \quad \alpha = 2$$

Rate of convergence: **quadratic**

Order of convergence work

Given $e_n = x_n - \sqrt{a} = \frac{(x_n - \sqrt{a})^2}{2x_n}$

For large n $|e_{n+1}| \approx \eta |e_n|^\alpha$ and $\eta < 1$

Assume $\alpha = 2$

$$\eta = \frac{|x_{n+1} - \sqrt{a}|}{|x_n - \sqrt{a}|^2} = \frac{\left| \frac{(x_{n+1} - \sqrt{a})^2}{2x_{n+1}} \right|}{\left| \frac{(x_n - \sqrt{a})^2}{2x_n} \right|^2}$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{|2x_n|}$$

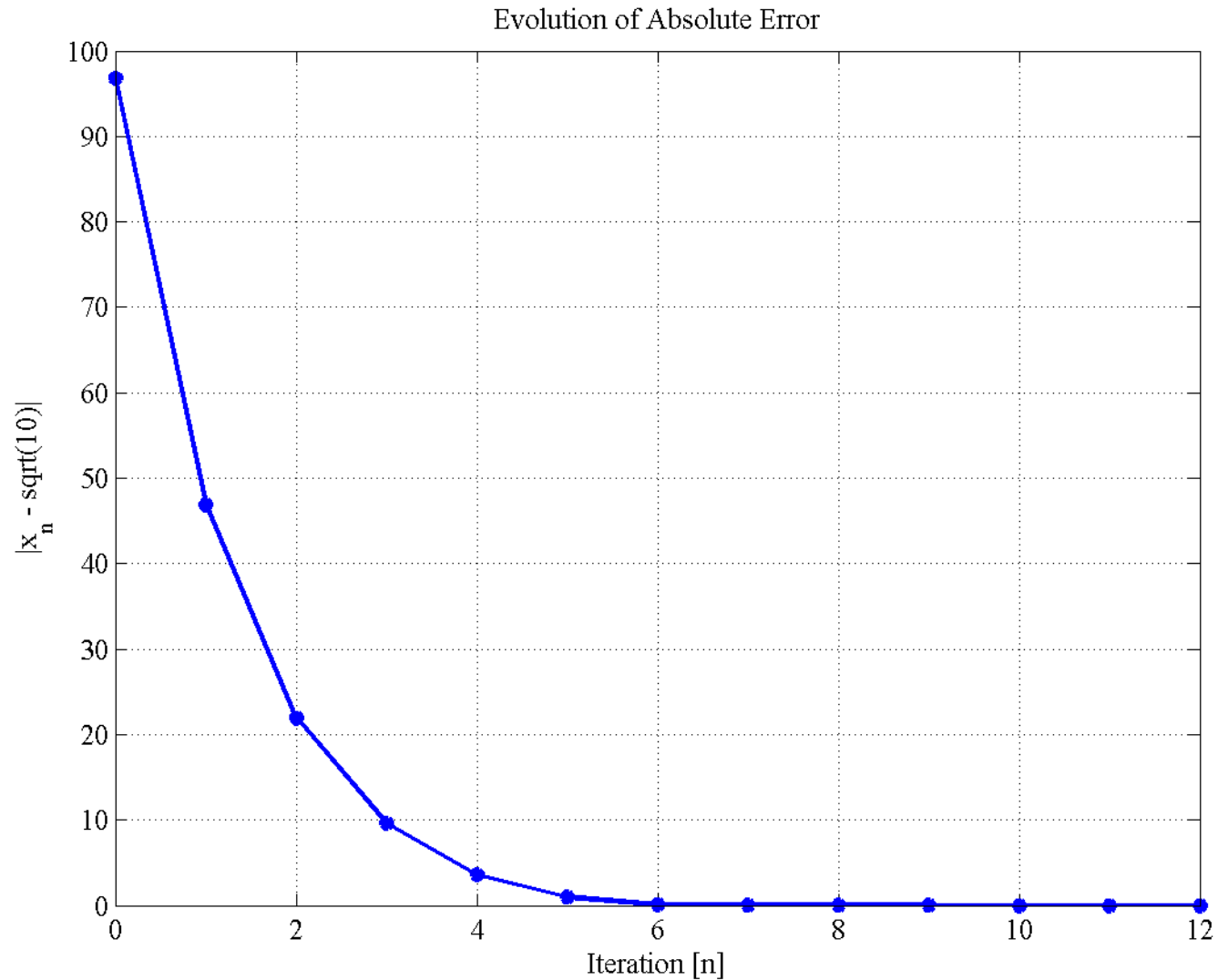
Order of Convergence

$$\begin{aligned}\eta &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|^\alpha} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x_{n+1} - \sqrt{a}|}{|x_n - \sqrt{a}|^2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{a}}\end{aligned}$$

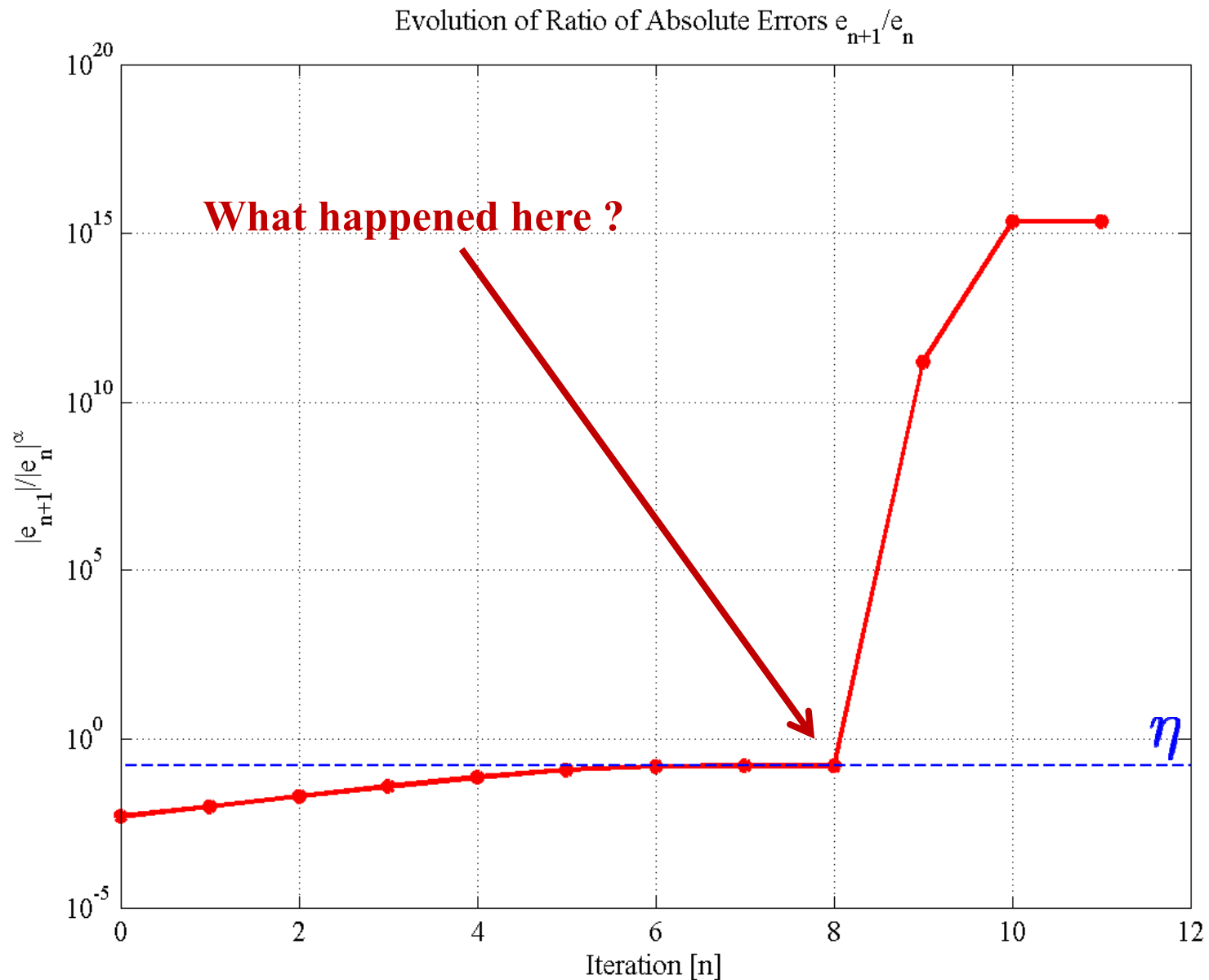
- Rate of convergence: **quadratic**, $\alpha = 2$
- Asymptotic error constant: $\eta = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{a}}$

The square root algorithm has **quadratic** (order of) **convergence**

Order of Convergence Exercise



Order of Convergence: Asymptotic Constant



Summary

- The *rate* of convergence gives an upper bound on *how fast* the *absolute error is decreasing*

$$|e_n| \leq \lambda \beta_n, \quad n > N \text{ large}$$

- The *order* of convergence gives information about *how* fast is the *error ratio* is *decreasing*

$$\frac{|e_{n+1}|}{|e_n|^\alpha} \rightarrow \eta$$

Thus, if (for n large) *at each iteration* we *reduce error by a factor of k* , $\alpha = 1, \eta = 1/k$ then the (order of) *convergence is linear*

Exercise 1

- What is the difference between the **rate of convergence** and **order of convergence**?
- **Rate of convergence** characterizes how fast we **approach the solution**.

– Compared with common bounding sequences

$$\beta_n(n; a) \quad \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^a, \quad \beta_n = \left(\frac{1}{a}\right)^n \quad (a > 0)$$

- **Order of convergence** characterizes how fast is the **error reduced** between refinements

Appendix

strip trailing function

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>

void main(void) {
    char data [255] = "A string  ";
    int i;

    printf("%s\n", data);
    i = strlen(data)-1;
    while ((i >=0) && (data [i] == ' ')) {
        data [i] = 0;
        i--;
    }
    printf("%s\n", data);
}
```


Use_qsort.c

```
/* Applied Programming Examples: sorting.c
 * Uses qsort() to sort an array of random doubles
 * Use compiler directive -DN=size to change the size of the array
 * Reference: A. Kelley and I Pohl "A book on C" 4th Ed.
 * Revised: 3/31/2015 (JCKK)
 */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h> /* for qsort() */
#include <time.h> /* to seed rand() */

/* Size of array to be sorted */
#ifndef N
#define N 13
#endif
/* Verbatim flag */
#ifndef VERB
#define VERB 0
#endif

/* Function prototypes */
int cmpdbl(const void *p1,const void *p2); /* for qsort() */
void fill_array(double *a, int n,int verb);
void print_array(double *a, int n);

/*
Initialize an array of doubles of size N, with random numbers
between -50 and 50, sort it and print it
*/
int main(void) {
    double darray[N];
    int verb=-1;
```

```

verb=(VERB ? 1 : 0);

    fill_array(darray , N, verb);
    printf("Before Sorting\n");
    print_array(darray , N);
    qsort(darray, N, sizeof(double), cmpdbl);
    printf("\nAfter Sorting\n");
    print_array(darray , N);
    return 0;
}
int cmpdbl(const void *p1, const void *p2) {
    const double *p = p1;
    const double *q = p2;
    double        diff = *p - *q;
    /* return -1 - The element pointed to by p1 goes before the element pointed to by p2
       return +1 - The element pointed to by p2 goes before the element pointed to by p1
       return  0 - The element pointed to by p1 and p2 are equivalent (equal)          */
    return ((diff>=0.0) ? ((diff>0.0) ? -1:0 ) : +1 );
}
void fill_array(double *a, int n,int verb) {
    int i;
    if (verb) {
        printf("filling array with %d random numbers\n",N);
    }
    srand(time(NULL)); /* seed */
    for( i=0 ; i<n ; ++i)
        a[i] = (rand() % 1001) /10.0 - 50.0;
}
void print_array(double *a, int n) {
    int i;
    for( i=0 ; i<n ; ++i) {
        if (i % 6 == 0) { printf("\n");}
        printf("% 10.1f", a[i]);
    }
    printf("\n");
}

```