

Ordinary differential equations

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What is an ODE?

- Algebraic equation:

$$f(y(x), x) = 0 \quad \text{e.g.} \quad -\ln(K_{eq}) = (1 - \zeta)$$

- First order ODE:

$$f\left(\frac{dy}{dx}(x), y(x), x\right) = 0 \quad \text{e.g.} \quad \frac{dc}{dt} = -kc^n$$

- Second order ODE:

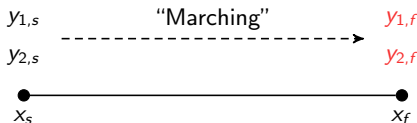
$$f\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}(x), \frac{dy}{dx}(x), y(x), x\right) = 0 \quad \text{e.g.} \quad \mathcal{D} \frac{d^2c}{dx^2} = -\frac{kc}{1 + Kc}$$

Importance of boundary conditions

The nature of boundary conditions determines the appropriate numerical method. Classification into 2 main categories:

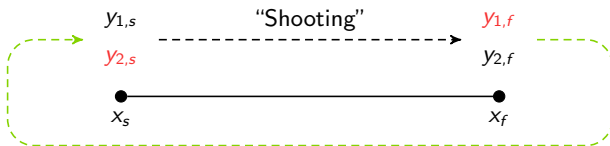
- Initial value problems (IVP)

We know the values of all y_i at some starting position x_s , and it is desired to find the values of y_i at some final point x_f .



- *Boundary value problems (BVP)*

Boundary conditions are specified at more than one x . Typically, some of the BC are specified at x_s and the remainder at x_f .



Overview

Initial value problems:

- Explicit methods
 - First order: forward Euler
 - Second order: improved Euler (RK2)
 - Fourth order: Runge-Kutta 4 (RK4)
 - Step size control
- Implicit methods
 - First order: backward Euler
 - Second order: midpoint rule

- Explicit methods

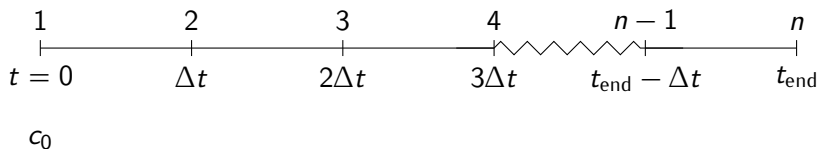
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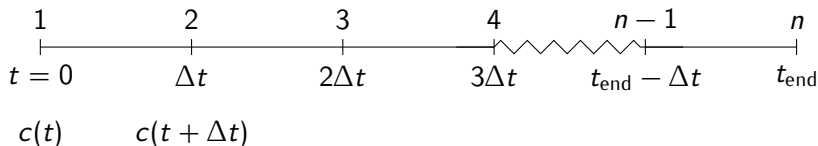
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Euler's method - solution method



Start with $t = t_0$, $c = c_0$, then calculate at discrete points in time:

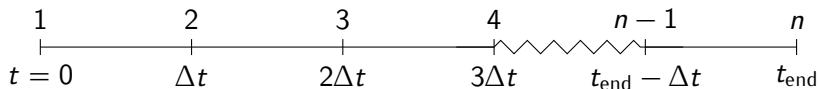
$$c(t_1 = t_0 + \Delta t) = c(t_0) + \Delta t f(c_0, t_0).$$



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 $c(t_1 = t_0 + \Delta t) = c(t_0) + \Delta t f(c_0, t_0)$.

Pseudo-code Euler's method: $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ and $y(x_0) = y_0$.

- 1 Initialize variables, functions; set $h = \frac{x_1 - x_0}{N}$
- 2 Set $x = x_0, y = y_0$
- 3 While $x < x_{\text{end}}$ do
 $x_{i+1} = x_i + h; \quad y_{i+1} = y_i + hf(x_i, y_i)$

Euler's method - example

First order reaction in a batch reactor:

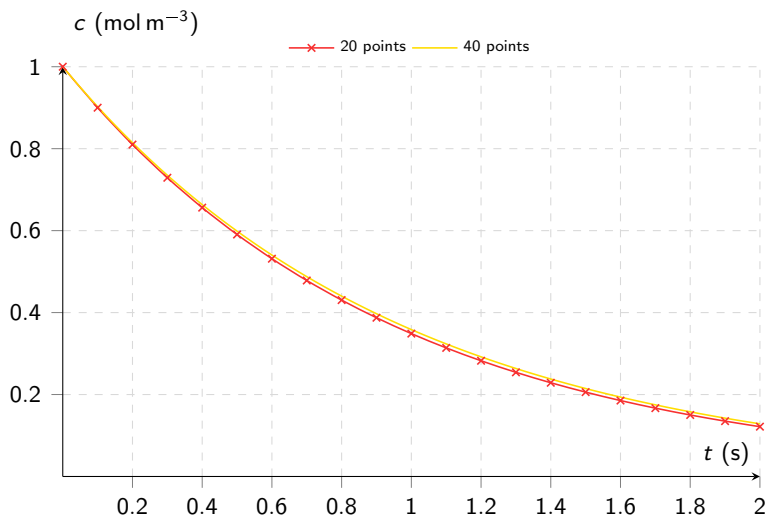
$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc \quad \text{with} \quad c(t=0) = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}, \quad k = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}, \quad t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$$

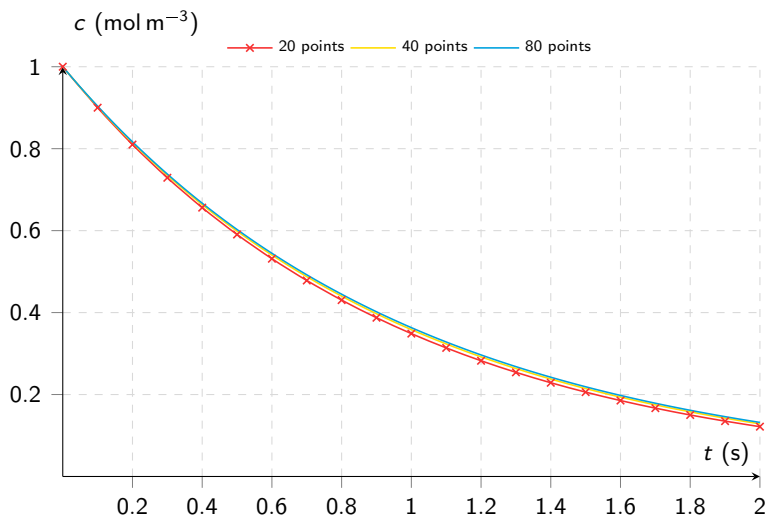
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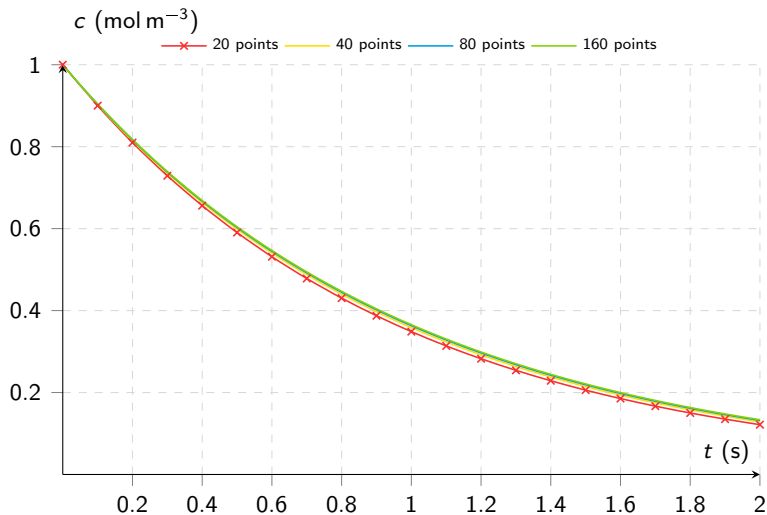
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Time [s]	Concentration [mol m^{-3}]
$t_0 = 0$	$c_0 = 1.00$
$t_1 = t_0 + \Delta t$	$c_1 = c_0 + \Delta t \cdot (-kc_0)$
$= 0 + 0.1 = 0.1$	$= 1 + 0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 1) = 0.9$
$t_2 = t_1 + \Delta t$	$c_2 = c_1 + \Delta t \cdot (-kc_1)$
$= 0.1 + 0.1 = 0.2$	$= 0.9 + 0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 0.9) = 0.81$
$t_3 = t_2 + \Delta t$	$c_3 = c_2 + \Delta t \cdot (-kc_2)$
$= 0.2 + 0.1 = 0.3$	$= 0.81 + 0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 0.81) = 0.729$
\dots	\dots
$t_{i+1} = t_i + \Delta t$	$c_{i+1} = c_i + \Delta t \cdot (-kc_i)$
\dots	\dots
$t_{20} = 2.0$	$c_{20} = c_{19} + \Delta t \cdot (-kc_{19}) = 0.1211577$



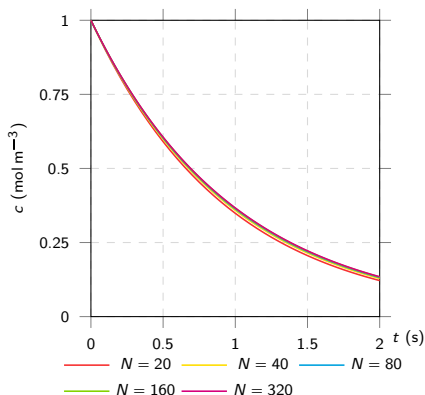




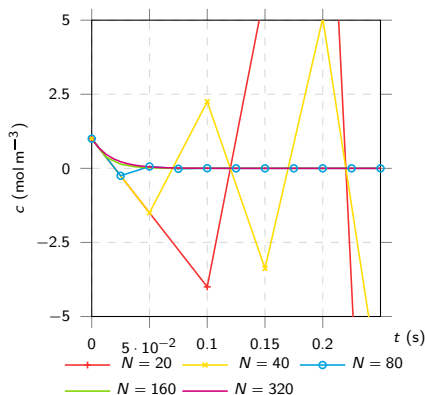
Problems with Euler's method

The question is: What step size, or how many steps to use?

- 1 *Accuracy* \Rightarrow need information on numerical error!
- 2 *Stability* \Rightarrow need information on stability limits!



Reaction rate: $k = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$



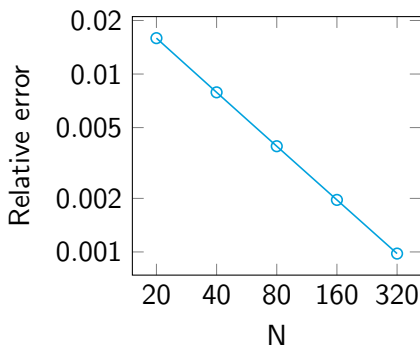
Reaction rate: $k = 50 \text{ s}^{-1}$

Accuracy

Comparison with analytical solution for $k = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$:

$$c(t) = c_0 \exp(-kt) \Rightarrow \zeta = 1 - \exp(-kt) \Rightarrow \zeta_{\text{analytical}} = 0.864665$$

N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$
20	0.878423	0.015912
40	0.871488	0.007891
80	0.868062	0.003929
160	0.866360	0.001961
320	0.865511	0.000979



Accuracy

For Euler's method: Error halves when the number of grid points is doubled, i.e. error is proportional to Δt : first order method.

Error estimate:

$$\left. \frac{dx}{dt} \right|_{t_0} = \frac{x(t_0 + \Delta t) - x(t_0)}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} \right|_{t_0} (\Delta t) + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t)^2$$

$$\frac{x(t_0 + \Delta t) - x(t_0)}{\Delta t} = f(x_0, t_0) - \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} \right|_{t_0} (\Delta t) + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t)^2$$

Errors and convergence rate

Convergence rate (or: order of convergence) r

$$\epsilon = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} c(\Delta x)^r$$

- A first order method reduces the error by a factor 2 when increasing the number of steps by a factor 2
- A second order method reduces the error by a factor 4 when increasing the number of steps by a factor 2

What to do when there is no analytical solution available?

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What to do when there is no analytical solution available? Compare to calculations with different number of steps: $\epsilon_1 = c(\Delta x_1)^r$ and $\epsilon_2 = c(\Delta x_2)^r$ and solve for r :

$$\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1} = \frac{c(\Delta x_2)^r}{c(\Delta x_1)^r} = \left(\frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta x_1} \right)^r \Rightarrow \log \left(\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1} \right) = \log \left(\frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta x_1} \right)^r$$

$$\Rightarrow r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta x_1}\right)} = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right)} \quad \text{in the limit of } \Delta x \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{or} \quad N \rightarrow \infty$$

Example: Euler's method — order of convergence

N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$	$r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\epsilon_{i-1}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_{i-1}}{N_i}\right)}$
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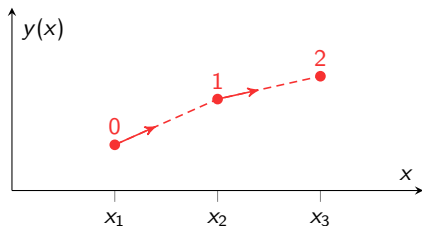
Wouldn't it be great to have a method that can give the answer using much less steps? ⇒ Higher order methods

Runge-Kutta methods

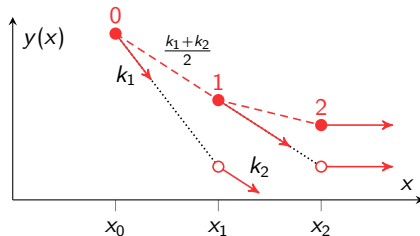
Propagate a solution by combining the information of several Euler-style steps (each involving one function evaluation) to match a Taylor series expansion up to some higher order.

Euler: $y_{i+1} = y_i + hf(x_i, y_i)$ with $h = \Delta x$, i.e. slope $= k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$.

Euler's method



RK2 method



Classical second order Runge-Kutta (RK2) method

This method is also called Heun's method, or improved Euler method:

- 1 Approximate the slope at x_i : $k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$
- 2 Approximate the slope at x_{i+1} : $k_2 = f(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1})$ where we use Euler's method to approximate $y_{i+1} = y_i + hf(x_i, y_i) = y_i + hk_1$
- 3 Perform an Euler step with the average of the slopes:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h\frac{1}{2}(k_1 + k_2)$$

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- 3 Perform an Euler step with the average of the slopes:

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In pseudocode:

```

x = x0, y = y0
while x < xend do
  xi+1 = xi + h
  k1 = f(xi, yi)
  k2 = f(xi + h, yi + hk1)
  yi+1 = yi + h1/2 (k1 + k2)
end while
  
```

Runge-Kutta methods — derivation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y(x))$$

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Using Taylor series expansion: $y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_i + \frac{h^2}{2} \left. \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right|_i + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_i = f(x_i, y_i) \equiv f_i$$

$$\left. \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right|_i = \left. \frac{d}{dx} f(x, y(x)) \right|_i = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_i = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i f_i \quad (\text{chain rule})$$

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Substitution gives:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + hf_i + \frac{h^2}{2} \left(\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i f_i \right) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{2} f_i + \frac{h}{2} \left(f_i + h \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + hf_i \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i \right) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

Runge-Kutta methods — derivation

Note multivariate Taylor expansion:

$$f(x_i + h, y_i + k) = f_i + h \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + k \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{h}{2} \left(f_i + h \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + hf_i \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i \right) = \frac{h}{2} f(x_i + h, y_i + kf_i) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

Concluding:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{2} f_i + \frac{h}{2} f(x_i + h, y_i + kf_i) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

Rewriting:

$$k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$k_2 = f(x_i + h, y_i + hk_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h}{2}(k_1 + k_2)$$

Runge-Kutta methods — derivation

Generalization: $y_{i+1} = y_i + h(b_1 k_1 + b_2 k_2) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$

with $k_1 = f_i$, $k_2 = f(x_i + c_2 h, y_i + a_{2,1} h k_1)$

(Note that classical RK2: $b_1 = b_2 = \frac{1}{2}$ and $c_2 = a_{2,1} = 1$.)

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Bivariate Taylor expansion:

$$f(x_i + c_2 h, y_i + a_{2,1} h k_1) = f_i + c_2 h \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + a_{2,1} h k_1 \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

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$$= y_i + h \left[b_1 f_i + b_2 \left\{ f_i + c_2 h \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + a_{2,1} h k_1 \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i + \mathcal{O}(h^2) \right\} \right] + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

$$= y_i + h(b_1 + b_2) f_i + h^2 b_2 \left(c_2 \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + a_{2,1} f_i \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i \right) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

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Comparison with Taylor:

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h f_i + \frac{h^2}{2} \left(\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_i + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_i f_i \right) + \mathcal{O}(h^3)$$

Runge-Kutta methods — derivation

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Runge-Kutta methods — derivation

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\Rightarrow 3 eqns and 4 unknowns \Rightarrow multiple possibilities!

① Classical RK2:

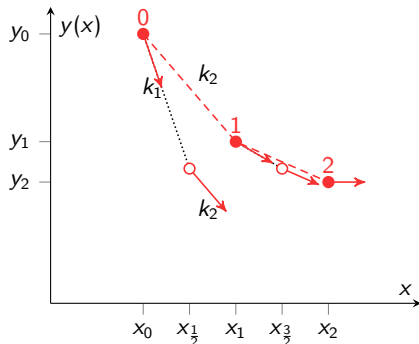
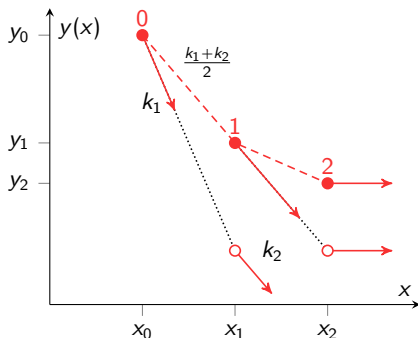
$$b_1 = b_2 = \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } c_2 = a_{2,1} = 1$$

② Midpoint rule (modified Euler):

$$b_1 = 0, b_2 = 1, c_2 = a_{2,1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Second order Runge-Kutta methods

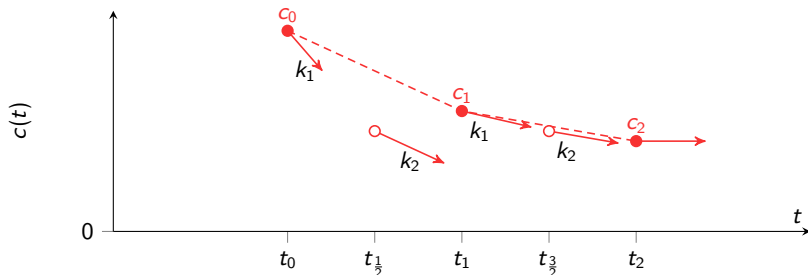
Classical RK2 method (= Heun's method, improved Euler method)	Explicit midpoint rule (modified Euler method)
$k_1 = f_i$	$k_1 = f_i$
$k_2 = f(x_i + h, y_i + hk_1)$	$k_2 = f(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_i + \frac{1}{2}hk_1)$
$y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{1}{2}h(k_1 + k_2)$	$y_{i+1} = y_i + hk_2$



Second order Runge-Kutta method — Example

First order reaction in a batch reactor: $\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc$ with
 $c(t = 0) = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$, $k = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$.

Time [s]	C [mol m ⁻³]	$k_1 = hf(x_i, y_i)$	$k_2 = hf(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_n + \frac{1}{2}k_1)$
0	1.00	$0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 1) = -0.1$	$0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot (1 - 0.5 \cdot 0.1)) = -0.095$
0.1	$1 - 0.095 = 0.905$	$0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 0.0905) = -0.0905$	$0.1 \cdot (-1 \cdot (0.905 - 0.5 \cdot 0.0905)) = -0.085975$
...
2	0.1358225	-0.0135822	-0.0129031



RK2 method — order of convergence

N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$	$r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\epsilon_{i-1}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_{i-1}}{N_i}\right)}$
20	0.864178	5.634×10^{-4}	—
40	0.864548	1.355×10^{-4}	2.056
80	0.864636	3.323×10^{-5}	2.028
160	0.864658	8.229×10^{-6}	2.014
320	0.864663	2.048×10^{-6}	2.007

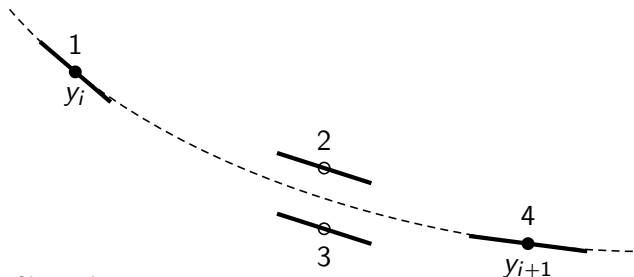
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⇒ RK2 is a second order method. Doubling the number of cells reduces the error by a factor 4!

Can we do even better?

RK4 method (classical fourth order Runge-Kutta method)



$$k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$k_2 = f\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_i + \frac{1}{2}hk_1\right)$$

$$k_3 = f\left(x_i + \frac{1}{2}h, y_i + \frac{1}{2}hk_2\right)$$

$$k_4 = f(x_i + h, y_i + hk_3)$$

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{1}{6}k_1 + \frac{1}{3}(k_2 + k_3) + \frac{1}{6}k_4 \right)$$

RK4 method — order of convergence

N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$	$r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\epsilon_{i-1}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_{i-1}}{N_i}\right)}$
20	0.864664472	2.836×10^{-7}	—
40	0.864664702	1.700×10^{-8}	4.060
80	0.864664716	1.040×10^{-9}	4.030
160	0.864664717	6.435×10^{-11}	4.015
320	0.864664717	4.001×10^{-12}	4.007

RK4 method — order of convergence

N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$	$r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\epsilon_{i-1}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_{i-1}}{N_i}\right)}$
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160	0.864664717	6.435×10^{-11}	4.015
320	0.864664717	4.001×10^{-12}	4.007

⇒ RK4 is a fourth order method: Doubling the number of cells reduces the error by a factor 16!

Can we do even better?

Adaptive step size control

The step size (be it either position, time or both (PDEs)) cannot be decreased indefinitely to favour a higher accuracy, since each additional grid point causes additional computation time. It may be wise to adapt the step size according to the computation requirements.

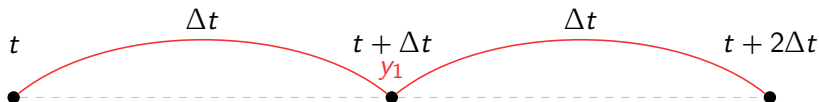
Globally two different approaches can be used:

- ① Step doubling: compare solutions when taking one full step or two consecutive half steps
- ② Embedded methods: Compare solutions when using two approximations of different order

Adaptive step size control: step doubling

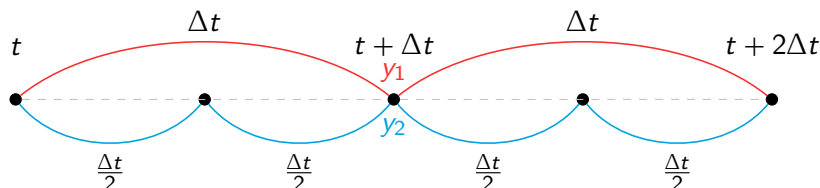
 t $t + \Delta t$ $t + 2\Delta t$ 

Adaptive step size control: step doubling



- RK4 with one large step of h : $y_{i+1} = y_1 + ch^5 + \mathcal{O}(h^6)$

Adaptive step size control: step doubling



- RK4 with one large step of h : $y_{i+1} = y_1 + ch^5 + \mathcal{O}(h^6)$
- RK4 with two steps of $\frac{1}{2}h$: $y_{i+1} = y_2 + 2c(\frac{1}{2}h)^5 + \mathcal{O}(h^6)$

Adaptive step size control: step doubling

- Estimation of truncation error by comparing y_1 and y_2 :

$$\Delta = y_2 - y_1$$

- If Δ too large, reduce step size for accuracy
- If Δ too small, increase step size for efficiency.

- Ignoring higher order terms and solving for c :

$$\Delta = \frac{15}{16}ch^5 \Rightarrow ch^5 = \frac{16}{15}\Delta \Rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_2 + \frac{\Delta}{15} + \mathcal{O}(h^6)$$

(local Richardson extrapolation)

Note that when we specify a tolerance tol , we can estimate the maximum allowable step size as: $h_{\text{new}} = \alpha h_{\text{old}} \left| \frac{tol}{\Delta} \right|^{\frac{1}{5}}$ with α a safety factor (typically $\alpha = 0.9$).

Adaptive step size control: embedded methods

Use a special fourth and a fifth order Runge Kutta method to approximate y_{i+1}

- The fourth order method is special because we want to use the same positions for the evaluation for computational efficiency.
- RK45 is there preferred method (minimum number of function evaluations) (this is built in Matlab as `ode45`).

Today's outline

① Introduction

② Explicit methods

Forward Euler

Convergence rate

Runge-Kutta methods

Step size control

③ Implicit methods

Backward Euler

Implicit midpoint method

④ Boundary value problems

Shooting method

⑤ Systems of ODEs

Solution methods for systems of ODEs

Stiff systems of ODEs

Solving systems of ODEs in Matlab

⑥ Conclusion

Problems with Euler's method: instability

Consider the ODE:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y(x)) \quad \text{with} \quad y(x=0) = y_0$$

Problems with Euler's method: instability – backward Euler

Implicit Euler method (backward Euler):

- Use values at x_{j+1} :

$$\frac{y_{i+1}-y_i}{\Delta x} = f(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}) \Rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_i + hf(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}).$$

- This is an implicit equation for y_{i+1} , because it also depends on terms of y_{i+1} .

Problems with Euler's method: instability – backward Euler

Implicit Euler method (backward Euler):

- Use values at x_{j+1} :

$$\frac{y_{i+1}-y_i}{\Delta x} = f(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}) \Rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_i + hf(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}).$$

- This is an implicit equation for y_{i+1} , because it also depends on terms of y_{i+1} .

Consider the first order batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc \Rightarrow c_{i+1} = c_i - k c_{i+1} \Delta t \Rightarrow \frac{c_{i+1}}{c_i} = \frac{1}{1 + k \Delta t}$$

Problems with Euler's method: instability – backward Euler

Implicit Euler method (backward Euler):

- Use values at x_{j+1} :

$$\frac{y_{i+1}-y_i}{\Delta x} = f(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}) \Rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_i + hf(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}).$$

- This is an implicit equation for y_{i+1} , because it also depends on terms of y_{i+1} .

Consider the first order batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc \Rightarrow c_{i+1} = c_i - k c_{i+1} \Delta t \Rightarrow \frac{c_{i+1}}{c_i} = \frac{1}{1 + k \Delta t}$$

This equation does never give unphysical results!

The implicit Euler method is *unconditionally stable* (but maybe not very accurate or efficient).

Usually f is a non-linear function of

[16]

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Semi-implicit Euler method - example

Second order reaction in a batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc^2 \text{ with } c_0 = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}, k = 1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$$

Analytical solution: $c(t) = \frac{c_0}{1 + kc_0 t}$

Semi-implicit Euler method - example

Second order reaction in a batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc^2 \text{ with } c_0 = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}, k = 1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$$

Analytical solution: $c(t) = \frac{c_0}{1+kc_0t}$

Define $f = -kc^2$, then $\frac{df}{dc} = -2kc \Rightarrow c_{i+1} = c_i - \frac{hkc_i^2}{1+2hkc_i}$.

Implicit midpoint method — example

Second order reaction in a batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc^2 \text{ with } c_0 = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}, k = 1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$$

(Analytical solution: $c(t) = \frac{c_0}{1+kc_0t}$).

Implicit midpoint method — example

Second order reaction in a batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc^2 \text{ with } c_0 = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}, k = 1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$$

(Analytical solution: $c(t) = \frac{c_0}{1+kc_0t}$).

Define $f = -kc^2$, then $\frac{df}{dc} = -2kc$.

Implicit midpoint method — example

Second order reaction in a batch reactor:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = -kc^2 \text{ with } c_0 = 1 \text{ mol m}^{-3}, k = 1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, t_{\text{end}} = 2 \text{ s}$$

Analytical solution: $c(t) = \frac{c_0}{1+kc_0t}$

$$C_{i+1} = \frac{C_i}{1 + hkc_i}$$

N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$	$r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_i}{\epsilon_{i-1}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_{i-1}}{N_i}\right)}$
20	0.6666666667	1.665×10^{-16}	—
40	0.6666666667	0	—
80	0.6666666667	0	—
160	0.6666666667	0	—
320	0.6666666667	0	—

• • • • •

Implicit midpoint method — example

Third order reaction in a batch reactor

Analytical solution: $c(t) = \frac{c_0}{\sqrt{1+2kc_0^2t}}$

$$C_{i+1} = C_i - \frac{hkc_i^3}{1 + \frac{3}{2}hkc_i^2}$$

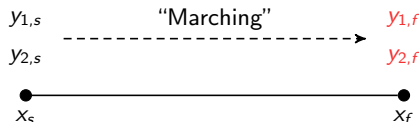
N	ζ	$\frac{\zeta_{\text{numerical}} - \zeta_{\text{analytical}}}{\zeta_{\text{analytical}}}$	$r = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\epsilon_j}{\epsilon_{j-1}}\right)}{\log\left(\frac{N_{j-1}}{N_j}\right)}$
20	0.5526916174	1.71×10^{-4}	—
40	0.5527633731	4.17×10^{-5}	2.041
80	0.5527807304	1.03×10^{-5}	2.021
160	0.5527849965	2.55×10^{-6}	2.011
320	0.5527860538	6.34×10^{-7}	2.005

Importance of boundary conditions

The nature of boundary conditions determines the appropriate numerical method. Classification into 2 main categories:

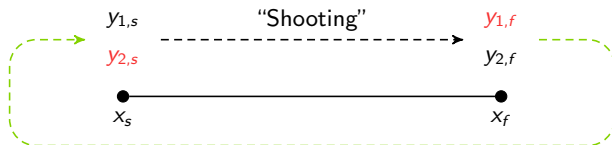
- Initial value problems (IVP)

We know the values of all y_i at some starting position x_s , and it is desired to find the values of y_i at some final point x_f .



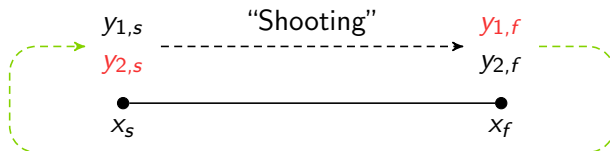
- *Boundary value problems (BVP)*

Boundary conditions are specified at more than one x . Typically, some of the BC are specified at x_s and the remainder at x_f .



Shooting method

How to solve a BVP using the shooting method:



- Define the system of ODEs
- Provide an initial guess for the unknown boundary condition
- Solve the system and compare the resulting boundary condition to the expected value
- Adjust the guessed boundary value, and solve again. Repeat until convergence.
 - Of course, you can subtract the expected value from the computed value at the boundary, and use a non-linear root finding method

This is a 100% CD5+ T cell clone.

da

Downloaded from <http://ajph.org/> at University of California, San Diego on June 11, 2015

BVP: example in Excel

Consider a chemical reaction in a liquid film layer of thickness δ :

$$\mathcal{D} \frac{d^2 c}{dx^2} = k_R c \text{ with } \begin{array}{ll} c(x=0) = C_{A,i,L} = 1 & \text{(interface concentration)} \\ c(x=\delta) = 0 & \text{(bulk concentration)} \end{array}$$

Question: compute the concentration profile in the film layer.

Step 2: Set the boundary conditions

The boundary conditions for the concentrations at $x = 0$ and $x = \delta$ are known.

The flux at the interface, however, is not known, and should be solved for.

$$\frac{dc}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\mathcal{D}}q$$

$$\frac{dq}{dx} = -k_R C$$

BVP: example in Excel

Solving the two first-order ODEs in Excel. First, the cells with constants:

	A	B	C
1	CAiL	1	ml/m3
2	D	1e-8	m2/s
3	kR	10	1/s
4	delta	1e-4	m
5	N	100	
6	dx	=B4/B5	

$$\frac{dc}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\mathcal{D}}q$$

$$\frac{dq}{dx} = -k_R C$$

BVP: example in Excel

- We now have profiles for c and q as a function of position x .
- The concentration $c(x = \delta)$ depends (eventually) on the boundary condition at the interface $q(x = 0)$
- We can use the solver to change $q(x = 0)$ such that the concentration at the bulk meets our requirement:

$$c(x = \delta) = 0$$

$$\frac{dq}{dx} = -k_R C$$

BVP: example in Matlab

We first program the system of ODEs in a separate function:

$$\frac{dc}{dx} = -\frac{1}{D}q$$

$$\frac{dq}{dx} = -k_R c$$

```
function [dxdt] = BVPODE(t,x,ps)
dxdt(1)=-1/ps.D*x(2);
dxdt(2)=-ps.kR*x(1);
dxdt=dxdt';
return
```

Note that we pass a variable (type: struct) that contains required parameters: ps.

BVP: example in Matlab

The ODE function is solved via ode45, after setting a number of initial and boundary conditions:

```
function f = RunBVP(bcq,ps)
[x,cq] = ode45(@BVPODE,[0 ps.delta],[1 bcq], [], ps);
f = cq(end,1) - 0;
plotyy(x,cq(:,1),x,cq(:,2));
return;
```

Note the following:

- We use the interval $0 \leq x \leq \delta$
- Boundary conditions are given as: $c(x=0) = 1$ and $q(x=0) = bcq$, which is given as an argument to the function (i.e. changable from 'outside'!)
- The function returns \mathfrak{f} , the difference between the computed and desired concentration at $x = \delta$.

BVP: example in Matlab

Finally, we should solve the system so that we obtain the right boundary condition $q = \text{bcq}$ such that $c(x = \delta) = 0$. We can use the built-in function `fzero` to do this

```
% Parameter definition
```

```
ps.D=1e-8;  
ps.kR=10;  
ps.delta=1e-4;
```

```
% Solve for flux boundary condition (initial guess: 0)
```

```
opt = optimset('Display','iter');  
flux = fzero(@RunBVP,0,opt,ps);
```

BVP example: analytical solution

Compare with the analytical solution:

$$q = k_L E_A C_{A,i,L} \quad \text{with}$$

$$E_A = \frac{Ha}{\tanh Ha} \quad \text{(Enhancement factor)}$$

$$Ha = \frac{\sqrt{k_R \mathcal{D}}}{k_L} \quad \text{(Hatta number)}$$

$$k_L = \frac{\mathcal{D}}{\delta} \quad \text{(mass transfer coefficient)}$$

Systems of ODEs

A system of ODEs is specified using vector notation:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y(x))$$

for

$$\frac{dy_1}{dx} = f_1(x, y_1(x), y_2(x)) \quad \text{or} \quad f_1(x, y_1, y_2)$$

$$\frac{dy_2}{dx} = f_2(x, y_1(x), y_2(x)) \quad \text{or} \quad f_2(x, y_1, y_2)$$

dy_2

Systems of ODEs: Explicit methods

Classical fourth order Runge-Kutta method (RK4)

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(\frac{k_1}{6} + \frac{1}{3} (k_2 + k_3) + \frac{k_4}{6} \right)$$

$$k_1 = f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$k_2 = f(x_i + \frac{h}{2}, y_i + \frac{h}{2}k_1)$$

using

$$k_3 = f(x_i + \frac{h}{2}, y_i + \frac{h}{2}k_2)$$

$$k_4 = f(x_i + h, y_i + hk_3)$$

Systems of ODEs: Implicit methods

Backward Euler method

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(1 - h \frac{df}{dy} \Big|_i \right)^{-1} f(y_i)$$

Implicit midpoint method

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h \left(1 - \frac{h}{2} \frac{df}{dy} \Big|_i \right)^{-1} f(y_i)$$

Stiff systems of ODEs

A system of ODEs can be stiff and require a different solution method.

Stiff systems of ODEs

A system of ODEs can be stiff and require a different solution method. For example:

$$\frac{dc_1}{dt} = 998c_1 + 1998c_2 \quad \frac{dc_2}{dt} = -999c_1 - 1999c_2$$

with boundary conditions $c_1(t=0) = 1$ and $c_2(t=0) = 0$.

The analytical solution is:

$$c_1 = 2e^{-t} - e^{-1000t} \quad c_2 = -e^{-t} + e^{-1000t}$$

For the explicit method we require $\Delta t < 10^{-3}$ despite the fact that the term is completely negligible, but essential to keep stability.

The “disease” of stiff equations: we need to follow the solution on the shortest length scale to maintain stability of the integration, although accuracy requirements would allow a much larger time step.

Demonstration with example

Forward Euler (explicit)

$$\frac{dc_{1,i+1} - c_{1,i}}{dt} = 998c_{1,i} + 1998c_{2,i}$$

$$\frac{dc_{2,i+1} - c_{2,i}}{dt} = -999c_{1,i} - 1999c_{2,i}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} c_{1,i+1} &= (1 + 998\Delta t) c_{1,i} + 1998\Delta t c_{2,i} \\ c_{2,i+1} &= -999\Delta t c_{1,i} + (1 - 1999\Delta t) c_{2,i} \end{aligned}$$

Demonstration with example

Backward Euler (implicit)

$$\frac{dc_{1,i+1} - c_{1,i+1}}{dt} = 998c_{1,i+1} + 1998c_{2,i+1}$$

$$\frac{dc_{2,i+1} - c_{2,i+1}}{dt} = -999c_{1,i+1} - 1999c_{2,i+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} (1 - 998\Delta t) c_{1,i+1} - 1998\Delta t c_{2,i} &= c_{1,i} \\ 999\Delta t c_{1,i+1} + (1 + 999\Delta t) c_{2,i+1} &= c_{2,i} \end{aligned}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 998\Delta t & -1998\Delta t \\ 999\Delta t & 1 + 1999\Delta t \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{1,i} \\ c_{2,i} \end{pmatrix}$$

Demonstration with example

Backward Euler (implicit) $Ac_{i+1} = c_i$ with

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - 998\Delta t & -1998\Delta t \\ 999\Delta t & 1 + 1999\Delta t \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad b = \begin{pmatrix} c_{1,i} \\ c_{2,i} \end{pmatrix}$$

Cramers rule:

$$c_{1,i+1} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} c_{1,i} & -1998\Delta t \\ c_{2,i} & 1 + 1999\Delta t \end{vmatrix}}{\det(A)} = \frac{(1+1999\Delta t)c_{1,i} + 1998\Delta t c_{2,i}}{(1-998\Delta t)(1+1999\Delta t) + 1998 \cdot 999\Delta t^2}$$

$$c_{2,i+1} = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 - 998\Delta t & c_{1,i} \\ 999\Delta t & c_{2,i} \end{vmatrix}}{\det(A)} = \frac{-999\Delta t c_{1,i} + (1-998\Delta t)c_{2,i}}{(1-998\Delta t)(1+1999\Delta t) + 1998 \cdot 999\Delta t^2}$$

Forward Euler: $\Delta t \leq 0.001$ for stability

Backward Euler: always stable, even for $\Delta t > 100$ (but then not very accurate!)

Cure for stiff problems: use implicit methods! To find out whether your system is stiff: check whether one of the eigenvalues have an imaginary part

Solving systems of ODEs in Matlab

Matlab provides convenient procedures to solve (systems of) ODEs automatically.

The procedure is as follows:

- 1 Create a function that specifies the ODEs. Specifically, this function returns the $\frac{dy}{dx}$ vector.
- 2 Initialise solver variables and settings (e.g. step size, initial conditions, tolerance), in a separate script
- 3 Call the ODE solver function, using a *function handle* to the ODE function described in point 1.
 - The ODE solver will return the vector for the independent variable, and a solution vector (matrix for systems of ODEs).

Solving systems of ODEs in Matlab: example

We solve the system: $\frac{dx_1}{dt} = -x_1 - x_2$, $\frac{dx_2}{dt} = x_1 - 2x_2$

Create an ODE function

```
function [dxdt] = myODEFunction(t,x)
dxdt(1) = -x(1) - x(2);
dxdt(2) =  x(1) - 2*x(2);
dxdt=dxdt'; % Transpose to column vector
return
```



```
plot(t,x(:,1),'r-x',t,x(:,2),'b-o')
```


Solving systems of ODEs in Matlab: example

A few notes on working with `ode45` and other solvers. If we want to give additional arguments (e.g. `a`, `b` and `c`) to our ODE function, we can list them in the function line:

```
function [dxdt] = myODE(t,x,a,b,c)
```

The additional arguments can now be set in the solver script by *adding them after the options*:

```
[t,x] = ode45(@myODE,tspan,x_0,options,a,b,c);
```

- Of course, in the solver script, the variables do not need to be called `a`, `b` and `c`:

```
[t,x] = ode45(@myODE,tspan,x_0,options,k1,phi,V);
```

- These variables may be of any type (vectors, matrix, struct). Especially a struct is useful to carry many values in 1 variable.

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