

1 A Parameter Estimation Method for Stiff
2 Ordinary Differential Equations Using Particle
3 Swarm Optimization

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Abstract

Finding coefficients for stiff ordinary differential equation (ODE) models with unbounded solution spaces has traditionally been a difficult task. This is because the standard derivative based methods of solving stiff ODE's cannot handle undefined regions. We propose a two step method for finding coefficients to match a stiff ODE model to experimental data. The first step creates a polynomial approximation of the experimental data and then uses Particle Swarm Optimization to obtain initial solutions for the coefficients. We choose PSO because of its ability to overlook regions of undefined, or poorly defined coefficients in its search. After reasonably close coefficients have been determined, we then use traditional ODE solvers to solve the ODE. We demonstrate this method on the shrinking core model for finding activation energies, and pre-exponential factors in the reduction in state of Cobalt Oxide.

1 Introduction and Background

1.1 Introduction

In this paper we will develop a technique which will attempt to be used to find parameters for very stiff ordinary differential equations without requiring initial estimates. Stiff ordinary differential equations (ODE's) arise in a variety of contexts such as fluid dynamics [2], thermochemical reactions [4], and chemical kinetics [13]. Stiffness arises in these fields due to the existence of both fast and slow dynamics within the phenomena investigated. Traditionally finding parameters for stiff ODE's is very difficult. Here we propose a method which allows researchers with experimental data best modeled with a stiff ODE to determine model parameters for these equations without any prior knowledge or estimates.

52 We start by providing a motivating application problem and background in-
53 formation on stiff ODE's, typical parameter estimation techniques, and particle
54 swarm optimization. The method section details the solution procedure includ-
55 ing the polynomial approximation of experimental data, use of particle swarm
56 optimization, and solving ODE's once parameters are found. We then apply
57 this procedure to the motivating problem to obtain parameters for a shrinking
58 core model of a thermo-chemical reaction with only observed reaction data. We
59 conclude with a discussion on the more general application of the procedure and
60 what additional improvements can be made.

61 1.2 A Motivating Application Problem

62 A current interest to researchers in the field of solar chemistry is the solar-driven
63 reduction of Cobalt Oxide. This solar-driven reduction of Co_3O_4 is a key step in
64 a thermochemical process for producing hydrogen from water in a more efficient,
65 cost effective, and environmentally friendly manner [10, 11]. The addition of
66 reduced Co_3O_4 reduces the electricity required during electrolysis by up to 80
67 percent [5].

68 The shrinking core model is commonly applied to gas-solid reactions in which
69 the solid does not change its size. The reduction reaction has three layers in the
70 shrinking core model. First, the metal oxides is reduced to a lower oxidation
71 state between the core and the shell via an "interface reaction." Second, oxygen
72 diffuses through the shell to the surface [7]. Lastly the oxygen is transferred
73 away from the surface in the via diffusion. The interaction between these three
74 processes is modeled by Equation 1.

$$\frac{d\alpha}{dT} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left[\frac{1}{10^{A_g} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{a,g}}{RT}\right)} + \frac{2 \left((1-\alpha)^{-\frac{1}{3}} - 1 \right)}{10^{A_s} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{a,s}}{RT}\right)} + \frac{(1-\alpha)^{-\frac{2}{3}}}{3 \times 10^{A_c} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{a,c}}{RT}\right)} \right]^{-1} \quad (1)$$

75 Within each of the three components of the model there are two unknown
 76 coefficients, the activation energy and pre-exponential factor. In total there are
 77 six unknowns in our model: $E_{a,g}$; $E_{a,s}$; $E_{a,c}$; A_g ; A_s ; A_c . Previous work has
 78 found values for the pre-exponential factors and activation energies by testing
 79 the reaction in extremely controlled isothermal settings [5]. However, it is not
 80 always possible to perform iso-thermal experiments to find these values. Being
 81 able to find these values from non-isothermal data will improve the quality of
 82 the estimate of the parameters because it includes a larger range of T .

83 1.3 Stiff Ordinary Differential Equations and Standard 84 Methods of Solving Them

85 Ordinary differential equations, for which numerical methods must take small
 86 step sizes because nearby solutions significantly vary, are considered *stiff* ordi-
 87 nary differential equations [3]. Smaller step sizes in numerical methods require
 88 more computational time and resources [14]. Traditional methods of searching
 89 for coefficient values in stiff ODE's still require the solvers to find feasible ap-
 90 proximations because many of them require the evaluation of the Jacobian. This
 91 is not always possible without some initial, reasonable, guesses. Furthermore,
 92 depending upon the landscape of the feasible region for coefficient values, even
 93 reasonable guesses may lead to nearby infeasible values.

94 Optimization methods unable to deal with this non-linearity in the solution
 95 space may fail entirely. Even when using numerical methods capable of solving
 96 stiff ODE's, like implicit Runge-Kutta methods [12], a poor choice of coeffi-

97 cients may leave the problem infeasible or unsolvable. The methods for finding
 98 parameters given experimental data for non-linear stiff ODE's involve a similar
 99 approach to the one we propose. Most standard methods involve using an op-
 100 timization technique, typically one which finds the Jacobian, combined with a
 101 step which solves the function where the differential equations are implemented.
 102 The method then calculates the cost function of the difference in fit. Other op-
 103 timization functions commonly used for the parameter search procedure include
 104 the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm [9, 8].

105 **1.4 Particle Swarm Optimization**

106 We chose particle swarm optimization to search for coefficient values because of
 107 its ability to disregard poor or infeasible solutions and traverse the search space
 108 efficiently without the evaluation of the Jacobian. Particle Swarm Optimization
 109 (PSO), is a form of optimization that was developed by James Kennedy and
 110 Russell C. Eberhart as a way to mathematically model the behavior of schooling
 111 fish and flocking birds [6]. In PSO, particles are possible solutions in a search
 112 space which are evaluated according to a fitness function that is either minimized
 113 or maximized. For more detailed information on PSO see [1]. PSO is a very
 114 good heuristic for searching difficult search spaces with many minimums and
 115 maximums because its swarming behavior allows ample diversification. [1] Aside
 116 from its ability to search spaces thoroughly, PSO can be easily implemented with
 117 fewer parameter adjustments compared to other techniques of optimization like
 118 genetic algorithms.

119 **2 Methods**

120 To determine unknown coefficients for a stiff ODE we propose using a heuristic
 121 search algorithm with a variable evaluation method. For the overall search al-

122 gorithm, we used particle swarm optimization 1.4. The novelty in our approach
 123 lies in using PSO to find initial coefficients. We use these coefficients to eval-
 124 uate the stiff ODE against the derivative of an approximate polynomial fit of
 125 the experimental data. Once a set of coefficients is found for which the ODE
 126 model directly produces a similar curve to the derivative of the polynomial re-
 127 gression, we implement standard ODE solvers to numerically solve the ODE. At
 128 this stage of the process standard ODE solvers become effective since the close
 129 estimates for the coefficients provide the necessary starting point. Recall from
 130 1.3 and 1.4 that some stiff ODE's can have un-differentiable regions within the
 131 feasible region where standard methods of solving stiff ODE's break.

132 The remainder of this section details our general method of solving for stiff
 133 ODE's with regions of infeasibility and recorded experimental data.

134 **2.0.1 Notation**

135 Mathematically, we choose \vec{x} to denote the independent variable's experimental
 136 data points and \vec{y} to denote the dependent variable's experimental data points.
 137 The relationship between \vec{x} and \vec{y} represents the experimental reaction to be
 138 modeled by an ODE with unknown coefficients. $f(x)$ will describe the nonlinear
 139 relationship between our independent variable \vec{x} , and our dependent variable \vec{y} ,
 140 to be defined in more detail later.

141 **2.1 Polynomial Approximation**

142 Finding the derivative of the polynomial approximation of the experimental data
 143 will allow us to get an approximation of the ODE function. We chose polyno-
 144 mial approximation because it gives us a simple, differentiable, polynomial that
 145 approximately matches the experimental data. This approximation is crucial to
 146 our method because its derivative gives a curve which can be compared directly

147 to the output from the ODE. Standard regression on the experimental data was
 148 used to obtain the polynomial function $f(x)$.

$$f(x) = \beta + \beta_1 + \beta_2 x^2 + \dots + \beta_k x^k \quad (2)$$

149 Where β_k are the coefficients of the polynomial regression of degree k . This
 150 polynomial function is easily differentiated giving us an approximation for $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

151 2.2 Fitness

152 Now that we have an approximation of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ to compare against. We create a
 153 generic function which represents the ODE. Our generic function accepts the
 154 vectors \vec{y} , \vec{x} and \vec{c} as inputs, with \vec{c} representing the unknown coefficients for the
 155 ODE. The unknown coefficients in \vec{c} is what the PSO software will find values
 156 of.

$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{d\vec{y}} = S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c}) \quad (3)$$

157 A fitness (or objective) function is required for the optimization process. We
 158 use the standard RMSE to compare the to compare the output from $S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c})$
 159 and $f'(x)$.

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f'(\vec{x}) - S(\vec{y}_i, \vec{x}_i, \vec{c}))^2} \quad (4)$$

160 Where n is the number of data points in the vectors \vec{x} and \vec{y} . This function
 161 4 is evaluated for each particle p in the swarm. In practice, the fitness function
 162 is implemented to accept a vector of particles we denote \vec{p} . This vector contains
 163 different potential solutions for the coefficients in \vec{c} .

164 The fitness function also dictates when to switch to using a standard ODE
 165 solver. Given the assumed stiff nature of the ODE we strive to find \vec{x} which

166 is close enough to allow traditional ODE solvers to work and find a solution.
 167 It is up to the practitioner to define the RMSE threshold for switching fitness
 168 functions.

169 **2.3 Implementation of Particle Swarm Optimization**

170 Particle swarm optimization was used in conjunction with the polynomial ap-
 171 proximation of the experimental data to generate approximate coefficient values
 172 for the ODE. A single set of unknown parameters for the ODE is considered
 173 a particle. Our search space consists of all possible coefficients \vec{c} . The PSO
 174 algorithm attempts to find the set of coefficients, \vec{c} with the lowest r . We opti-
 175 mize to the minimum RMSE because we want the smallest difference between
 176 $S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c})$ and $f'(\vec{x})$.

177 We implement PSO because traditional methods for solving ODE's will break
 178 due to the stiffness. PSO gives us the ability to overlook very poor parameters
 179 which lead to undefined ODE solutions. PSO does this by ignoring bad or infea-
 180 sible parameters and moving particles towards regions of better fitness values.
 181 Traditional single search methods for solving an ODE may not be able to find
 182 any solution in spaces of poor parameters. Overlooking these poor parameters
 183 allows us to explore the search space more thoroughly looking for more feasible
 184 parameters.

185 **2.4 Generalized Method for Parameter Estimation**

186 We now give a broad summary of the method and how its parts combine. Al-
 187 gorithm 1 provides a pseudo-code version of the method.

188 The algorithm starts with the polynomial approximation of the experimental
 189 data. We then take the derivative of this polynomial regression obtaining $f'(x)$.
 190 After the derivative is taken, we define a function holding the ODE which accepts

191 experimental data points along with the vector of unknowns, \vec{c} . This function
 192 encompassing the ODE is the function we denote as $S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c})$. PSO is now
 193 implemented to search for the values of \vec{c} . PSO evaluates potential solutions for \vec{c}
 194 using the fitness function which uses the root mean-squared error to compare the
 195 outputs of $S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c})$ and $f'(x)$. PSO continues its search until there are values
 196 for \vec{c} that generate corresponding r values which below a tolerance threshold.
 197 This threshold is determined by the user and marks when the \vec{c} values are
 198 considered acceptable enough to pass onto a standard ODE solver. Once this
 199 threshold is met, PSO continues to search, comparing the output of the ODE
 200 solver to the experimental data.

Algorithm 1: General Method

Data: Experimental Data

Polynomial Approximation

$$\vec{y} \approx f(\vec{x}) = \beta + \beta_1 + \beta_2 x^2 + \dots + \beta_k x^k$$

$f(x) \Rightarrow f'(x)$ find derivative of polynomial regression

$$\frac{dx}{dy} =$$

$S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c})$ Define ODE as a function with input for unknown parameters \vec{c}

while r for any 250 particles ≥ 0.003 **do**

Generate 250 new particles \vec{p} containing vector \vec{c} during PSO Stage

Input vector \vec{c} in $S(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{c})$

$$\text{Calculate for all particles } r = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f'(\vec{x}) - S(\vec{y}_i, \vec{x}_i, \vec{c}))^2}$$

Choose 25 particles randomly from the 250 particles generated by PSO

Execute PSO again with fitness function optimizing to ODE solver results

201 The method developed, as generalized here, accommodates finding param-
 202 eters of any stiff ODE with experimental data. Given a stiff ODE that is too
 203 stiff for standard stiff ODE solvers, we suggest this method, in conjunction with
 204 accurate experimental data, to provide a fast and inexpensive way to find the
 205 parameters of the ODE.

206 3 Application to Solid-State Kinetics Problem

207 We now apply our method to our original motivating problem, parameter esti-
208 mation for the reduction of cobalt oxide under the shrinking core model. The
209 experimental data we use for our method is the reduction of cobalt oxide as
210 a percentage over temperature. As previously stated the shrinking core model
211 has been proposed to model this reaction and is a stiff ODE with regions of in-
212 feasibility. Using this application problem to validate our method, we searched
213 for the pre-exponential factors and activation energies of this reaction. What
214 makes the shrinking core model significant to our research is its high degree of
215 stiffness in terms of the feasible solution regions. The pre-exponential factors
216 seen in Equation 1 ($E_{a,g}$, $E_{a,s}$, or $E_{a,c}$) are all multiplied by -1 and are in the
217 exponents of e . Very high values for any one of $E_{a,g}$, $E_{a,s}$, or $E_{a,c}$ can force the
218 denominator of a term to approach zero if the activation energies A_g , A_s , and
219 A_c are not high enough to counteract them. We note that standard methods of
220 finding an initial starting point will have great difficulty navigating this stiffness
221 in our example.

222 3.1 Implementation

223 To show the implementation to the application problem we first equate the
224 method variables to the application variables. The temperature, denoted T ,
225 is our experimental independent variable denoted as \vec{x} in the methods section.
226 The variable α , the percentage of the reactive core that has been reduced in
227 state corresponds to the dependent variable \vec{y} from the methods section. The
228 shrinking core model is used to predict the change in α over the change in T .
229 The full equation can be seen below from 1.2 with the generalized variables
230 repeated for convenience.

$$S(\alpha, T, \vec{c}) = \frac{d\alpha}{dT} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left[\frac{1}{10^{A_g} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{a,g}}{RT}\right)} + \frac{2\left((1-\alpha)^{-\frac{1}{3}} - 1\right)}{10^{A_s} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{a,s}}{RT}\right)} + \frac{(1-\alpha)^{-\frac{2}{3}}}{3 \times 10^{A_c} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{a,c}}{RT}\right)} \right]^{-1}$$

231

232 Where R is the universal gas constant. The variables $E_{a,g}$, $E_{a,s}$, $E_{a,c}$ are
 233 the pre-exponential factors and A_g , A_s , A_c are the activation energies we are
 234 searching Together these make up the vector \vec{c} defined in the methods section.

235 Before beginning our method, we clean up the experimental data measuring
 236 α over T by removing post and pre-experimental readings. False readings can
 237 warp the polynomial regression causing a loss in accuracy while finding param-
 238 eters. Next we take a standard regression to get a differentiable polynomial.

$$\vec{\alpha} \approx f(\vec{T}) = \beta + \beta_1 + \beta_2 T^2 + \dots + \beta_k T^k \quad (5)$$

239 We then take the derivative of the polynomial function $f(\vec{T})$ to get the
 240 function:

$$f(\vec{T}) \Rightarrow f'(\vec{T}) \quad (6)$$

241 Figure 1 shows the experimental data points in relation to $f(\vec{T})$. We see
 242 that the function maps almost exactly to the experimental data.

243

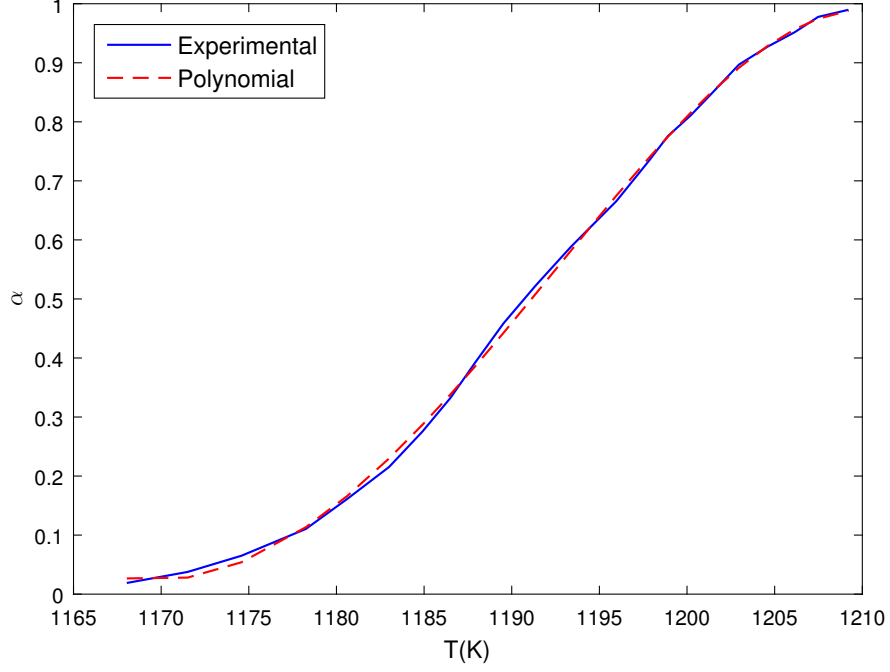


Figure 1: Experimental Data Vs. Polynomial Regression

This function, $f'(T)$, will be compared to the function $S(\vec{\alpha}, \vec{T}, \vec{c})$ using the root mean-squared error function as given in 7.

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f'(T) - S(\vec{\alpha}_i, \vec{T}_i, \vec{c}))^2} \quad (7)$$

The search algorithm (PSO) will then generate values for \vec{c} which attempt to minimize r . When the fitness values for the coefficient vectors pass below the threshold 0.003 the fitness function switches over to comparing results from $f'(\vec{T})$ to the standard ODE solver and the function $S(\vec{\alpha}, \vec{T}, \vec{c})$.

4 Results

Implementing our method to the shrinking core model yielded linear patterns of coefficient possibilities instead of approximate numbers. We initially predicted each of the coefficients to be approximately similar. After running our model 47 times to achieve results we found that the coefficients were in a wide range spanning the bounds we had placed upon them. Figure 2 below the box-plots for each of the coefficients. The bounds were between 0 and 100 for the activation energies, and between 100 and $1 \times e^7$ for the pre-exponential factors. The box plots in figure 2 show the range of the 47 outputs.

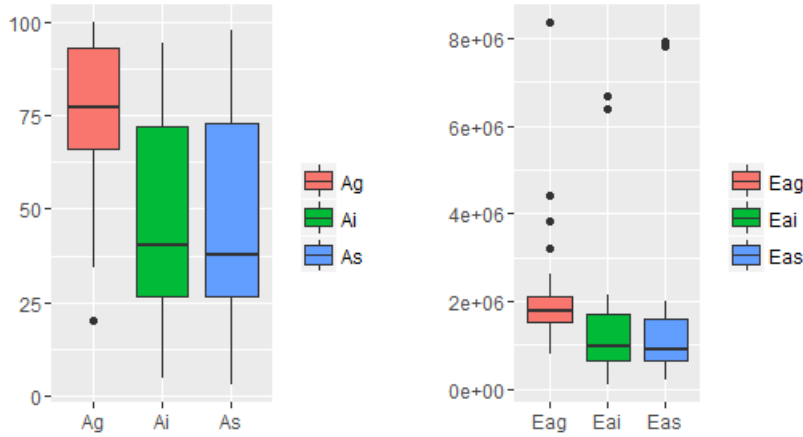


Figure 2: Box and Whisker Plots of Resulting Coefficients

The box plots show us there is a wide variation in the ranges of possible coefficients found by the ODE solver. We hoped to see tight ranges for the box plots signifying a small range of possibilities for the coefficients, thus giving a single number for the resulting coefficient. What we found instead were clear linear relationships with similar RMSE values between the corresponding coefficients for each section of the ODE (i.e. Eag and Ag). The scatter plots of the relationships between the results in Figure 3 show these linear relationships.

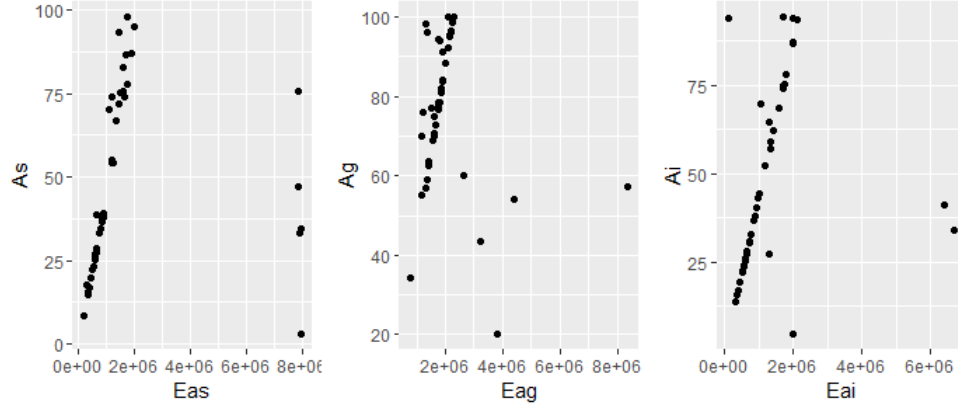


Figure 2: Scatter plots Showing Linear Relationship between Coefficients

When examining the quality of each of the points, the points not along these linear lines had higher RMSE values than those points not on the line. The points on the line all had very similar RMSE values so no specific regions of the line could be pointed out as better than another region. The results show us that our method is capable of finding feasible regions of answers for the coefficients in our application problem.

4.1 Implications for Solid-State Kinetics

The linear regions of feasibility give researchers a more narrowed search space when looking for the set values for the coefficients. The method as a whole could be used by researchers attempting to find regions of feasibility for Solid-State Kinetics applications with stiff ODEs. Our method also provides an inexpensive way to find these regions of feasibility in stiff ODEs with experimental data. Researchers now will be able to search these linear relationships between coefficients for more approximate numbers.

287 5 Conclusion

288 Given a stiff ODE model with unknown coefficients and a set of experimental
289 data we were able to implement a 2-stage search for feasible values. In the first
290 stage, implementing a polynomial regression of the experimental data, then
291 using the derivative of this polynomial provided us with a tool to compare
292 the outputs of our ODE by using the root mean squared error as a metric of
293 similarity. In the first stage, the PSO software attempts to find coefficients with
294 low corresponding RMSE values. This allows the PSO and ODE solvers in the
295 second stage to search a reduced region of feasible solutions. This feasibility
296 region was unattainable with traditional analytical techniques. Within this
297 feasible region found in the first stage, standard ODE solvers in conjunction
298 with PSO were able to output reasonable feasible solutions to our stiff ODE with
299 RMSE values under 0.03. The solutions given by the ODE solver in the solid
300 state kinetics problem were scattered but gave us valuable information about
301 the relationships between the coefficients. These linear relationships, instead of
302 giving us single values like we had hoped for, have instead given us a smaller
303 search space which we can focus on for later searches. This technique could
304 easily be applied to other stiff ODEs to find regions of feasibility given a vast
305 search space. In conclusion the method we have proposed has given us solutions
306 to a very stiff ODE, but in our application problem, despite giving us valuable
307 information on the linearity of the relationships between the coefficients, our
308 results did not give us singular figures.

309 5.1 Limitations

310 Our method is capable of finding feasible regions of coefficients for very stiff
311 ODE's but has not been shown to predict specific points. The method is only
312 shown to be able to narrow the search space. The method also relies on the

313 accuracy of the derivative of the polynomial regression, because of this the true
314 accuracy of trying to fit to experimental data is limited. This model should only
315 be accepted if traditional methods for finding coefficients for stiff ODE's have
316 failed.

317 5.2 Future Research

318 Future research on the method itself would be focused on running the model
319 focusing on the linearity between the corresponding activation energies and pre-
320 exponential factors in our application problem. To do this we propose fitting
321 a line to the linear relationship in the coefficients we have found thus far and
322 re-using our method to search on that specific line. Finding points on these lines
323 and determining their RMSE values could help us determine points on this line
324 with lower corresponding RMSE values than others. Doing this would lead us
325 to more specific regions with the true values of the activation energies and the
326 pre-exponential factors.

327

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