

Outline

- 1 Background
- 2 MRI Method Development
- 3 Multirate temporal adaptivity
- 4 Results
- 5 Conclusions & future work

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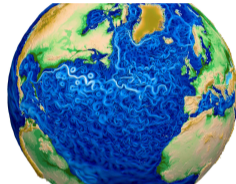
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Multiphysics Simulations

Multiphysics simulations couple different models either in the bulk or across interfaces.

Climate:

- Atmospheric simulations combine fluid dynamics with local “physics” models for chemistry, condensation,
- Atmosphere is coupled at interfaces to myriad other processes (ocean, land/sea ice, . . .), each using distinct models.

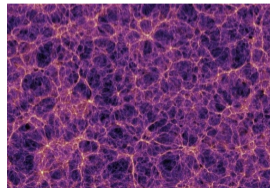


Above: <https://e3sm.org>.

Astrophysics/cosmology:

- Dark matter modeled using particles that give rise to large-scale gravitational structures (at right).
- Baryonic matter modeled by combining fluid dynamics, gravity, radiation transport, and reaction networks for chemical ionization states.

Below: <http://svs.gsfc.nasa.gov>.



Multiphysics Challenges

[Keyes et al., 2013]

Since multiphysics simulations combine multiple physical processes, they can challenge these textbook methods:

- “Multirate” processes evolve on different time scales but prohibit analytical reformulation.
- Stiff components disallow fully explicit methods.
- Nonlinearity and low differentiability challenge fully implicit methods.
- Parallel scalability demands optimal algorithms – while robust/scalable algebraic solvers exist for parts (e.g., FMM for particles, multigrid for diffusion), none are optimal for the whole.

We may consider a prototypical problem as having m coupled evolutionary processes:

$$y'(t) = f^{\{1\}}(t, y) + \dots + f^{\{m\}}(t, y), \quad t \in [t_0, t_f], \quad y(t_0) = y_0.$$

Each component $f^{\{k\}}(t, y)$:

- may act on all of y (in the bulk), or on only a subset of y (within a subdomain),
- may evolve on a different characteristic time scale,
- may be “stiff” or “nonstiff,” thereby desiring implicit or explicit treatment.

Implicit-Explicit Additive Runge–Kutta Methods

[Ascher et al., 1997; Kennedy & Carpenter, 2003; ...]

IMEX-ARK methods allow high-order adaptive ImEx time integration for additively-split *single rate* simulations:

$$\dot{y}(t) = f^E(t, y) + f^I(t, y), \quad t \in [t_0, t_f], \quad y(t_0) = y_0,$$

- $f^E(t, y)$ contains the nonstiff terms to be treated explicitly,
- $f^I(t, y)$ contains the stiff terms to be treated implicitly.

Combine two s -stage RK methods; denoting $h_n = t_{n+1} - t_n$, $t_{n,j}^E = t_n + c_j^E h_n$, $t_{n,j}^I = t_n + c_j^I h_n$:

$$z_i = y_n + h_n \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{i,j}^E f^E(t_{n,j}^E, z_j) + h_n \sum_{j=1}^i a_{i,j}^I f^I(t_{n,j}^I, z_j), \quad i = 1, \dots, s,$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + h_n \sum_{j=1}^s \left[b_j^E f^E(t_{n,j}^E, z_j) + b_j^I f^I(t_{n,j}^I, z_j) \right] \quad (\text{solution})$$

$$\tilde{y}_{n+1} = y_n + h_n \sum_{j=1}^s \left[\tilde{b}_j^E f^E(t_{n,j}^E, z_j) + \tilde{b}_j^I f^I(t_{n,j}^I, z_j) \right] \quad (\text{embedding})$$

Solving each stage z_i , $i = 1, \dots, s$

[Ascher et al., 1997; Kennedy & Carpenter, 2003; ...]

At each stage we must solve a root-finding problem:

$$0 = F_i(z) := \left[z - h_n a_{i,i}^I f^I(t_{n,i}, z) \right] - \left[y_n + h_n \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \left(a_{i,j}^E f^E(t_{n,j}, z_j) + a_{i,j}^I f^I(t_{n,j}, z_j) \right) \right]$$

- If $f^I(t, y) = J(t)y$ (i.e., f^I is *linear* in y) then this is a large-scale linear system for each z_i :

$$\left(I - h_n a_{i,i}^I J(t_{n,i}) \right) z_i = rhs_i.$$

- Else this requires an iterative solver (e.g., Newton, accelerated fixed-point, or problem-specific), that itself may require solution of multiple linear systems.
- All operators in $f^E(t, y)$ are treated explicitly (do not affect algebraic solver convergence).

IMEX-ARK methods are defined by compatible *explicit* $\{c^E, A^E, b^E, \tilde{b}^E\}$ and *implicit* $\{c^I, A^I, b^I, \tilde{b}^I\}$ tables. These are derived in unison to satisfy order conditions, stability, ...

Multirate Infinitesimal (MRI) methods

[Schlegel et al., 2009; Sandu, 2019; ...]

MRI methods provide a rigorous and highly accurate approach to “subcycling” for multirate problems:

$$\dot{y}(t) = f^S(t, y) + f^F(t, y), \quad t \in [t_0, t_f], \quad y(t_0) = y_0.$$

- $f^S(t, y)$ contains the “slow” dynamics, naturally evolved with large steps H .
- $f^F(t, y)$ contains the “fast” dynamics, that evolves with small steps $h \ll H$.
- It is generally assumed that $f^S(t, y)$ is *considerably more costly to evaluate* than $f^F(t, y)$, and thus a method which evaluates $f^S(t, y)$ infrequently is desirable.
- Extremely efficient – fourth order is attainable with *only a single traversal* of $[t_n, t_{n+1}]$; fifth order is attainable with only slightly higher cost.

MRI Algorithm Outline

Denoting $y_n \approx y(t_n)$, a single explicit MRI step $t_n \rightarrow t_n + H$ proceeds as:

1. Let: $z_1 = y_n$
 2. For $i = 2, \dots, s$:
 - a. Solve: $v_i'(t) = f^F(t, v_i(t)) + r_i(t)$, for $t \in [t_{n,i-1}, t_{n,i}]$ with $v_i(t_{n,i-1}) = z_{i-1}$.
 - b. Let: $z_i = v_i(t_{n,i})$.
 3. Solve: $\tilde{v}_s'(t) = f^F(t, \tilde{v}_s(t)) + \tilde{r}_s(t)$, for $t \in [t_{n,s-1}, t_{n+1}]$ with $\tilde{v}_s(t_{n,s-1}) = z_{s-1}$.
 4. Let: $y_{n+1} = z_s$ (solution) and $\tilde{y}_{n+1} = \tilde{v}_s(t_{n+1})$ (embedding).
- MRI methods are uniquely defined by: stage times $t_{n,i} = t_n + c_i H$ and forcing functions $r_i(t)$, $\tilde{r}_s(t)$, that are linear combinations of $\{f^S(t_{n,j}, z_j)\}$ and propagate information from slow to fast scales.
 - Implicit versions are possible, that replace step 2a with a DIRK-like solve during implicit stages.
 - The original MIS methods [Schlegel et al., 2009] used constant $r_i(t)$ and achieved up to $\mathcal{O}(H^3)$.
 - Sandu's MRI-GARK [2019] extended these to $\mathcal{O}(H^4)$ via polynomial $r_i(t)$, and introduced embeddings.

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Implicit-Explicit Multirate Infinitesimal GARK Methods

[Chinomona & R., *SISC*, 2021]

Extended Sandu's MRI-GARK methods to support implicit-explicit treatment of the slow time scale:

$$\dot{y}(t) = f^I(t, y) + f^E(t, y) + f^F(t, y), \quad t \in [t_0, t_f], \quad y(t_0) = y_0.$$

These define an ImEx forcing function

$$r_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^i \gamma_{i,j} \left(\frac{t-t_n}{(c_i-c_{i-1})H} \right) f^I(t_{n,j}, z_j) + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \omega_{i,j} \left(\frac{t-t_n}{(c_i-c_{i-1})H} \right) f^E(t_{n,j}, z_j),$$

- Order conditions up to $\mathcal{O}(H^4)$ leverage the GARK framework [Sandu & Günther, *SINUM*, 2015].
- *However, these inherited the MRI-GARK requirement for sorted abscissae ($0 = c_1 \leq c_2 \leq \dots \leq c_s = 1$), thus we were unable to derive embedded IMEX-MRI-GARK methods, and struggled to derive 4th order methods with good stability.*
- Information on their construction and computational results are available in the ([Appendix](#)).



Multirate Exponential Runge–Kutta (MERK) and Rosenbrock (MERB) Methods

[Luan, Chinomona & R., *SISC*, 2020; Luan, Chinomona & R., *J. Sci. Comput.*, 2022]]

To circumvent the explosion in GARK order conditions, we leveraged exponential method theory, replacing the action of the φ_j fcn. with “infinitesimal” IVP solves.



We apply multirate IVP splittings of the form

$$y'(t) = F(t, y) = \mathcal{J}_n y + \mathcal{V}_n t + \mathcal{N}_n(t, y), \quad t \in [t_n, t_n + H], \quad y(t_n) = y_n \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- “Fast” scale corresponds to $\mathcal{J}_n y$: for MERK \mathcal{J}_n may be arbitrary, for MERB $\mathcal{J}_n = \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}(t_n, y_n)$.
- “Slow” scale corresponds to $\mathcal{V}_n t + \mathcal{N}_n$ with $\mathcal{V}_n = \frac{\partial F}{\partial t}(t_n, y_n)$ and $\mathcal{N}_n = F - \mathcal{J}_n y - \mathcal{V}_n t$.
- Due to their exponential structure, MERK and MERB only support explicit treatment of f^S .
- Their implementations are nearly identical to IMEX-MRI-SR, albeit without any implicit solves.
- We have embedded MERK up to $\mathcal{O}(H^5)$, and non-embedded MERB up to $\mathcal{O}(H^6)$.
- Computational results are available in the ([Appendix](#)).

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Single rate control

[Gustafsson, 1991; Söderlind, 2006]

- Traditional adaptivity controls *local error*, $\ell_n := y(t_n + H_n) - y_{n+1}$, assuming y_n is exact, adapting H_n to ensure $\varepsilon_n := \|\ell_n\| \leq 1$ where the norm incorporates the user tolerances, among other objectives.
- A “controller” \mathcal{C} typically depends on a few (H_k, ε_k) pairs, i.e.,

$$\tilde{H} = \mathcal{C}(H_n, \varepsilon_n, H_{n-1}, \varepsilon_{n-1}, \dots, p),$$

where p is the global method order, i.e., $\varepsilon_n \leq c(t) H_n^{p+1}$, for some $c(t)$ independent of H_n .

- The simple *l controller* assumes equality above, and a piecewise constant $c = \frac{\varepsilon_n}{H_n^{p+1}}$, to predict \tilde{H} :

$$1 = c\tilde{H}^{p+1} = \varepsilon_n \frac{\tilde{H}^{p+1}}{H_n^{p+1}} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \tilde{H} = \frac{H_n}{\varepsilon_n^{1/(p+1)}}.$$

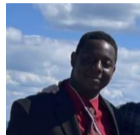
- More advanced options exist, that typically use additional (H_k, ε_k) values to build higher-degree piecewise polynomial approximations of the principal error function.

For multirate control, we thus require both a strategy to estimate local temporal errors ε_n^S and ε_n^F ([Appendix](#)), and algorithms for selecting step sizes H and h .

MRI time step control – Decoupled (*Dec*) controllers

The simplest approach to MRI adaptivity uses decoupled single-rate controllers:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{H} &= \mathcal{C}^S(H_n, \varepsilon_n^S, H_{n-1}, \varepsilon_{n-1}^S, \dots, P), \\ \tilde{h} &= \mathcal{C}^F(h_{n,m}, \varepsilon_{n,m}^F, h_{n,m-1}, \varepsilon_{n,m-1}^F, \dots, p),\end{aligned}$$



where (H_k, ε_k^S) are the stepsize and local error estimates for time step k at the slow time scale, and $(h_{k,l}, \varepsilon_{k,l}^F)$ are the stepsize and local error estimates for the fast substep l within the slow step k .

- \mathcal{C}^S and \mathcal{C}^F are independent of one another, so selection of \tilde{H} and \tilde{h} occurs independently.
- We expect this to work well for problems with weakly coupled time scales.
- Due to its decoupled nature, this trivially extends to an arbitrary number of time scales, allowing adaptivity for so-called “telescopic” MRI methods.

MRI time step control – Step-tolerance (H - Tol) controllers

For problems with more strongly coupled scales, we may want tighter accuracy from the inner solver. When called over fast intervals $[\tau_{0,i}, \tau_{F,i}]$, $\tau_{F,i} - \tau_{0,i} \leq H$, we assume its accumulated error satisfies

$$\varepsilon_i^F = \chi(t) H_n \left(\text{reltol}_n^F \right),$$

where reltol_n^F is the requested relative tolerance for the inner solver, and $\chi(t)$ is independent of reltol_n^F .

This matches the single-rate controller assumption $\varepsilon_n = c(t)h^{p+1}$, where $\chi(t_n)H_n$ is $c(t)$, reltol_n^F is h , and $p = 0$. Thus a single-rate controller could adjust reltol_n^F between slow step attempts.

Thus to construct an “ H - Tol ” controller, we leverage three separate single-rate controllers:

- $\mathcal{C}^{S,H}$ – single-rate controller to adapt H_n within the slow integrator.
- $\mathcal{C}^{S,Tol}$ – single-rate controller to adapt reltol_n^F above.
- \mathcal{C}^F – single rate controller to adapt $h_{n,m}$ within the fast integrator to achieve reltol_n^F .

This class of controllers also support telescopic multirate methods.

MRI time step control – Coupled ($H-h$) controllers

[Fish & R., SISC, 2023]

These extend the single-rate derivations of [Gustafsson, 1994] by approximating both slow and fast principal error functions using piecewise polynomials. Four MRI controllers were proposed that simultaneously adapt H_n and $M_n = H_n/h_n$:

- *constant-constant*: $H_{n+1} = H_n (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^\alpha$, $M_{n+1} = M_n (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\beta_1} (\varepsilon_{n+1}^F)^{\beta_2}$,

- *linear-linear*: $H_{n+1} = H_n \left(\frac{H_n}{H_{n-1}} \right) (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\alpha_1} (\varepsilon_n^S)^{\alpha_2}$,

$$M_{n+1} = M_n \left(\frac{M_n}{M_{n-1}} \right) (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\beta_{11}} (\varepsilon_n^S)^{\beta_{12}} (\varepsilon_{n+1}^F)^{\beta_{21}} (\varepsilon_n^F)^{\beta_{22}}.$$

- *PIMR* (a multirate extension of the PI single-rate controller):

$$H_{n+1} = H_n (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\alpha_1} (\varepsilon_n^S)^{\alpha_2}, \quad M_{n+1} = M_n (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\beta_{11}} (\varepsilon_n^S)^{\beta_{12}} (\varepsilon_{n+1}^F)^{\beta_{21}} (\varepsilon_n^F)^{\beta_{22}}.$$

- *PIDMR* (a multirate extension of the PID single-rate controller):

$$H_{n+1} = H_n (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\alpha_1} (\varepsilon_n^S)^{\alpha_2} (\varepsilon_{n-1}^S)^{\alpha_3},$$

$$M_{n+1} = M_n (\varepsilon_{n+1}^S)^{\beta_{11}} (\varepsilon_n^S)^{\beta_{12}} (\varepsilon_{n-1}^S)^{\beta_{13}} (\varepsilon_{n+1}^F)^{\beta_{21}} (\varepsilon_n^F)^{\beta_{22}} (\varepsilon_{n-1}^F)^{\beta_{23}}.$$

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Kværno-Prothero-Robinson (KPR) test problem

$$\begin{pmatrix} u'(t) \\ v'(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} G & e \\ e & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (u^2 - p - 2)/(2u) \\ (v^2 - q - 2)/(2v) \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} p'(t)/(2u) \\ q'(t)/(2v) \end{pmatrix},$$

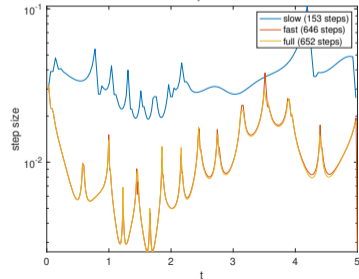
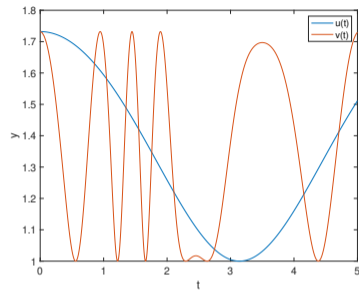
over $0 \leq t \leq 5$, where $p(t) = \cos(t)$ and $q(t) = \cos(\omega t(1 + e^{-(t-2)^2}))$.

The analytical solution is $u(t) = \sqrt{2 + p(t)}$ and $v(t) = \sqrt{2 + q(t)}$.

- e that determines the strength of coupling between the time scales,
- $G < 0$ determines the stiffness at slow time scale,
- ω that determines the time-scale separation factor.

Top right: analytical solutions with $G = -10$, $e = 1/10$, $\omega = 5$.

Bottom right: internal single-rate time steps.



Stiff Brusselator test problem

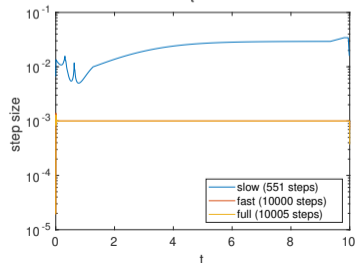
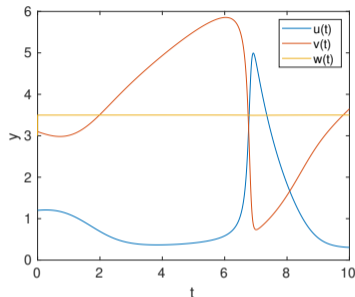
$$\begin{pmatrix} u'(t) \\ v'(t) \\ w'(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a - (w+1)u + vu^2 \\ wu - vu^2 \\ \frac{b-w}{\epsilon} - wu \end{pmatrix}, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 10.$$

Initial condition $(1.2 \quad 3.1 \quad 3)^T$; parameters $a = 1, b = 3.5$.

- ϵ is the stiffness parameter. MRI methods may be used to circumvent implicit solves using explicit substepping.
- Sharp solution transition at $t \approx 6.5$ stresses temporal adaptivity (particularly at the slow time scale).

Top right: example solution with $\epsilon = 1/2500$.

Bottom right: internal single-rate time steps.



Embedded MRI methods

We test MRI adaptivity using 15 embedded MRI methods of varying order and type:

- MRI-GARK methods from [Sandu, 2019]:
 - Explicit MRI_ERK22a, MRI_ERK22b, MRI_ERK33a, and MRI_ERK45a methods (orders 2, 2, 3, 4);
 - Implicit MRI_IRK21a, MRI_ESDIRK34a, and MRI_ESDIRK46a methods (orders 2, 3, 4);
- MRI_RALSTON2 explicit MRI-GARK method (order 2) from [Roberts, 2022];
- MRISR21, MRISR32, and MRISR43 IMEX-MRI-SR methods (orders 2, 3, 4) from [Fish et al., 2024];
- MERK21, MERK32, MERK43, and MERK54 explicit MERK methods (orders 2, 3, 4, 5) from [Luan et al., 2020] (custom embeddings).

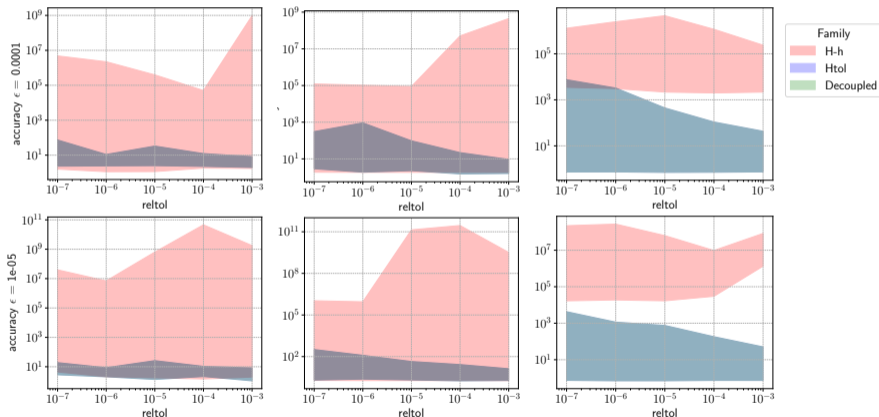
Each of the above methods include an embedding with order of accuracy one lower.

MRI adaptive accuracy – Stiff Brusselator

We repeat the previous experiment for the stiff Brusselator test:

H-Tol and *Dec*
robust for all but
MRI_ESDIRK34a,
MRI_ESDIRK46a

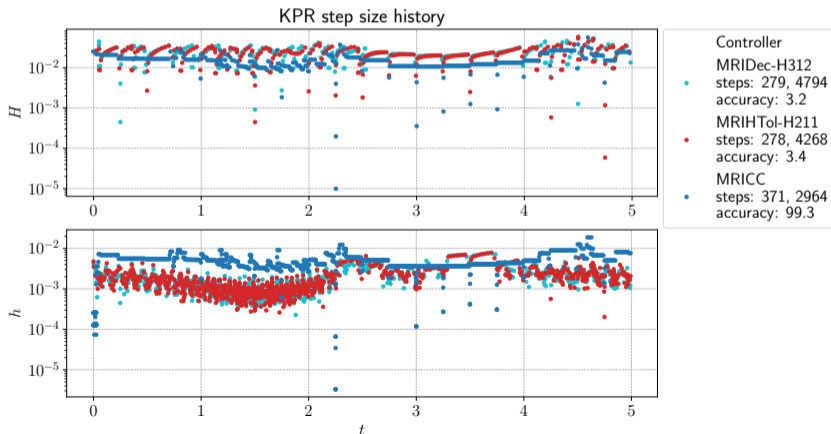
H-h fails for all
but MERK21 and
MERK32.



MRI adaptive step histories – KPR

We plot the slow and fast step size histories for a few adaptivity controllers using MRI_ERK33a at $\text{reltol} = 10^{-5}$, listing the total numbers of slow and fast time steps, and accuracy ratio.

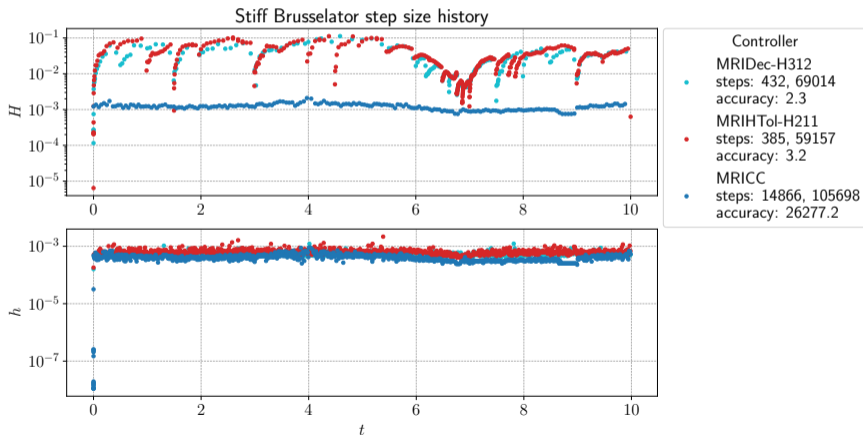
$H\text{-Tol}$ is slightly more efficient than Dec , but MRICC does not allow sufficient time scale separation.



MRI adaptive step histories – stiff Brusselator

We repeat the previous experiment for the stiff Brusselator problem.

H -Tol is again slightly more efficient than Dec , while MRICC is wildly inaccurate.



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Conclusions and future work

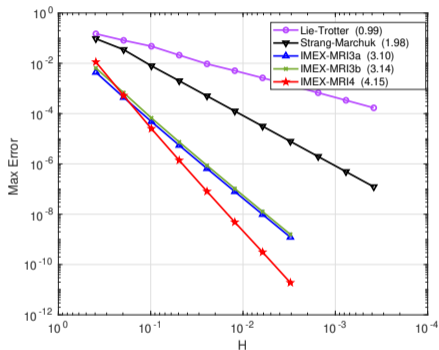
- To match today's rich ecosystem of scientific applications, we require an equally rich “toolkit” of time integration methods.
- I aim to expand this toolkit to higher order, increased flexibility, and robust temporal adaptivity.
- With respect to multirate adaptivity:
 - Both the *Dec* and *H-Tol* families show robust adaptive control across a wide range of problem types, tolerances, and MRI methods.
 - Of the two, *H-Tol* shows slightly better computational efficiency.
 - *H-h*, however, struggled significantly, since it seems to artificially constrain the step size ratio $M_n = H_n/h_n$.
- All MRI methods in this talk (except MERB), along with *Dec* and *H-Tol* families, are available within the ARKODE solver from the **SUNDIALS** library.
- We are currently incorporating these methods within large-scale application codes, including *Perturbo* (solid state physics) and *BOUT++* (fusion).

6 Appendix

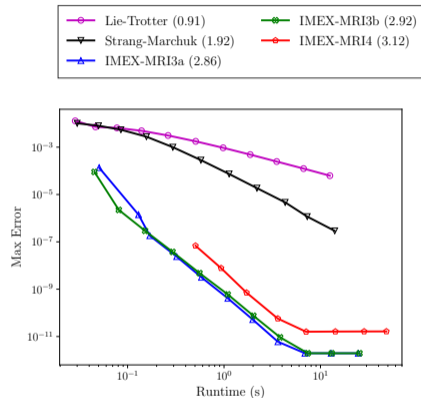
Begin with an IMEX-ARK pair $\{A^I, b^I, c^I; A^E, b^E, c^E\}$ where $c^I = c^E \equiv c$ with $0 = c_1 \leq \dots \leq c_s \leq 1$.

- Convert to solve-decoupled form: insert redundant stages such that $\Delta c_i A_{ii}^I = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, s$.
- Extend A^I , A^E and c to ensure “stiffly-accurate” condition: $c_s = 1$, $A_{s,:}^I = b^I$, $A_{s,:}^E = b^E$.
- Generate $\Gamma^{(k)}$ and $\Omega^{(k)}$ for $k = 0, \dots, k_{max}$, to satisfy ARK consistency (s^2 conditions), internal consistency ($2s(k_{max} + 1)$ conditions), plus order conditions:
 - $\mathcal{O}(H^1)$ and $\mathcal{O}(H^2)$: no additional order conditions,
 - $\mathcal{O}(H^3)$: 2 additional order conditions,
 - $\mathcal{O}(H^4)$: 16 additional order conditions.
- With any additional degrees of freedom, we maximized “joint linear stability”.

Note: we found it challenging to construct embedded IMEX-MRI-GARK methods, largely due to our reliance on IMEX-ARK base methods and the “sorted” abscissa requirement.



Nonlinear Kværnø-Prothero-Robinson
test problem convergence.



Stiff Brusselator PDE test runtime efficiency.
Largest two step sizes were unstable for IMEX-MRI4.

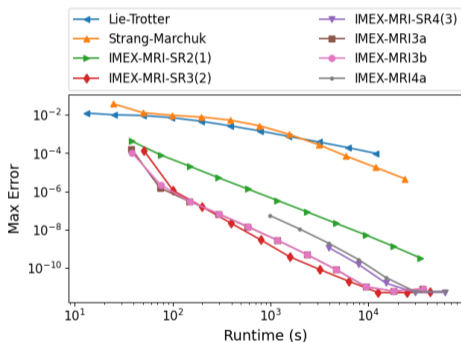
Again take an an IMEX-ARK pair $\{A^I, b^I, c^I; A^E, b^E, c^E\}$ where $c^I = c^E \equiv c$ (not necessarily sorted).

- Extend A^I , A^E and c to ensure “stiffly-accurate” condition: $c_s = 1$, $A_{s,:}^I = b^I$, $A_{s,:}^E = b^E$.
- Generate Γ and $\Omega^{(k)}$ for $k = 0, \dots, n_\Omega$, to satisfy IMEX-ARK consistency (s^2 conditions), internal consistency ($s(2 + n_\Omega)$ conditions), plus order conditions:
 - $\mathcal{O}(H^1)$ and $\mathcal{O}(H^2)$: no additional order conditions,
 - $\mathcal{O}(H^3)$: 1 additional order condition,
 - $\mathcal{O}(H^4)$: 6 additional order conditions.
- With remaining degrees of freedom, maximize [joint linear stability](#) for the method and minimize leading order error for embedding.

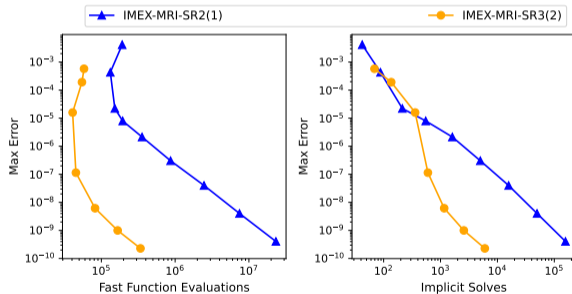
IMEX-MRI-SR Convergence/Efficiency – Stiff Brusselator PDE

[Fish, R., & Roberts, *JCAM*, 2024]

Fixed step size runtime efficiency: IMEX-MRI-SR, IMEX-MRI-GARK, and IMEX-MRI versions of Lie–Trotter and Strang–Marchuk methods.



Adaptive IMEX-MRI-SR efficiency: modified problem with time-dependent advection, diffusion and reaction coefficients, using tolerances 10^{-k} with $k = 1, \dots, 9$:



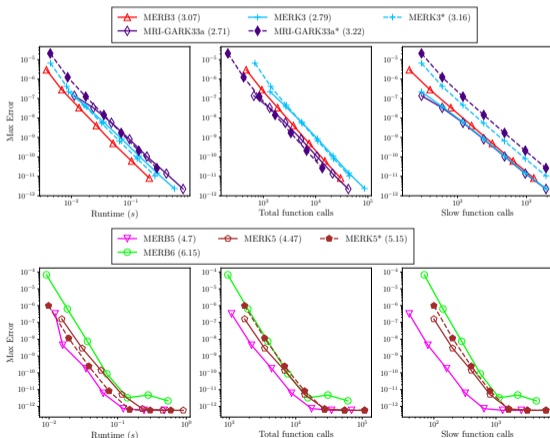
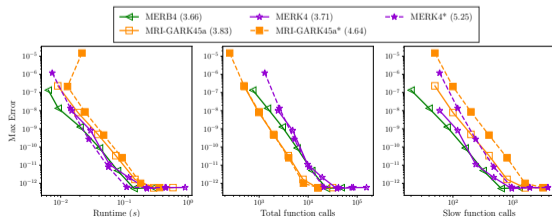
MERK and MERB Convergence/Efficiency – Reaction-Diffusion PDE

[Luan, Chinomona & R., *SISC*, 2020; Luan, Chinomona & R., *J. Sci. Comput.*, 2022]]

Problem: $u_t = \epsilon u_{xx} + \gamma u^2(1 - u)$, $x \in (0, 5)$, $t \in [0, 5]$,
 with $\gamma = 0.1$, $\epsilon = 10^{-2}$, $\lambda = \sqrt{5}$, $u(x, 0) = (1 + \exp(\lambda(x - 1)))^{-1}$, and $u_x(0, t) = u_x(5, t) = 0$.

Efficiency plots (runtime, RHS calls, \mathcal{N}_n calls):

- Top-right: $\mathcal{O}(H^3)$ methods
- Bottom-left: $\mathcal{O}(H^4)$ methods
- Bottom-right: $\mathcal{O}(H^5)$ and $\mathcal{O}(H^6)$ methods
- Methods* use a “natural” splitting; others use dynamic linearization.



MRI temporal error estimation – ε_n^S and ε_n^F

Slow error may be estimated as usual for embedded methods, $\varepsilon_n^S = \|y_n - \tilde{y}_n\|$, but non-intrusive estimates for ε^F are more challenging. We consider four strategies:

- Three assume that at each sub-step $t_{n,m}$ the fast integrator computes a local error estimate, $\varepsilon_{n,m}^F$, and itself is temporally adaptive with relative tolerance, reitol^F . We accumulate these via:

$$\varepsilon_{n,max}^F = \text{reitol}^F \max_{m \in M} \varepsilon_{n,m}^F \quad \text{“Maximum accumulation,”}$$

$$\varepsilon_{n,add}^F = \text{reitol}^F \sum_{m \in M} \varepsilon_{n,m}^F \quad \text{“Additive accumulation,” or}$$

$$\varepsilon_{n,avg}^F = \varepsilon_{n,add}^F / |M| \quad \text{“Average accumulation,”}$$

where M is the set of all steps since the fast error accumulator has been reset.

- The fourth uses fixed fast steps h and kh to compute y_h^F and y_{kh}^F , estimating

$$\varepsilon_{n,dbl}^F = \frac{\|y_h^F - y_{kh}^F\|}{|k^p - 1|} \quad \text{“Double-step accumulation,”}$$

where p is the global order of accuracy for the fast method.

Accumulated error comparisons

We partition time into 20 subintervals. We evolve over each $[t_k, t_{k+1}]$ with the initial condition reset to the reference $y(t_k) = y_{ref}(t_k)$. We compare the estimated ε_X^F against the “true” error, $\varepsilon_{ref}^F(t_{k+1})$ via

$$\text{ratio}_X(t_{k+1}) = \frac{\varepsilon_{ref}^F(t_{k+1})}{\varepsilon_X^F(t_{k+1})},$$

- Left adaptive, right fixed-step.
- Top KPR, bottom stiff Brusselator.
- Adaptive: both the Average and Maximum accumulators work well for all test problems and tolerances.
- Fixed-step: no accumulator works well across all tests.

