

# 1 Ordinary differential equations

Many physical problems can be reformulated in terms of a system of *ordinary differential equations* (ODEs),

$$\mathbf{y}'(x) = \mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y}), \quad (1)$$

with an initial condition

$$\mathbf{y}(x_0) = \mathbf{y}_0, \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{f}(x, \mathbf{y})$  are generally understood as column-vectors.

## 1.1 Runge-Kutta methods

Runge-Kutta methods are one-step methods where the solution  $\mathbf{y}$  is advanced by one step  $h = x_1 - x_0$  as

$$\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{y}_0 + h\mathbf{k}, \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{k}$  is a cleverly chosen (vector) constant. The Runge-Kutta methods are distinguished by their *order*: a method has order  $p$  if its error is  $O(h^{p+1})$  for small  $h$ , or, in other words, if the solution of an ODEs is a polynomial of the order  $p$  the ODEs is integrated exactly by the method.

The first order Runge-Kutta method is simply the Euler's method

$$\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{f}(x_0, \mathbf{y}_0). \quad (4)$$

Second order Runge-Kutta method advances the solution by an auxiliary evaluation of the derivative, e.g. the *half-step method*,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{k}_0 &= \mathbf{f}(x_0, \mathbf{y}_0), \\ \mathbf{y}_{1/2} &= \mathbf{y}_0 + \frac{h}{2}\mathbf{k}_0, \\ \mathbf{k}_{1/2} &= \mathbf{f}(x_{1/2}, \mathbf{y}_{1/2}), \\ \mathbf{k} &= \mathbf{k}_{1/2}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

or the *two-point method*,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{k}_0 &= \mathbf{f}(x_0, \mathbf{y}_0), \\ \mathbf{k}_1 &= \mathbf{f}(x_1, \mathbf{y}_0 + h\mathbf{k}_0), \\ \mathbf{k} &= \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{k}_0 + \mathbf{k}_1). \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

These two methods can be combined into a third order method,

$$\mathbf{k} = \frac{1}{6}\mathbf{k}_0 + \frac{4}{6}\mathbf{k}_{1/2} + \frac{1}{6}\mathbf{k}_1. \quad (7)$$

Higher order Runge-Kutta methods have been devised, with the most commonly used being the famous Runge-Kutta-Fehlberg fourth-fifth order method implemented in the renowned **rkf45** (now superseded by `netlib.org/ode/rksuite`).

## 1.2 Multi-step and predictor-corrector methods

Multi-step methods try to use the information about the function gathered at the previous steps. They are generally not *self-starting* as there are no previous points at the start of the integration. The first step should be done with a one-step method.

Predictor-corrector methods use extra iterations to improve the solution.

### 1.2.1 A two-step method

For example, having the two points,  $\mathbf{y}_0$  and  $\mathbf{y}_1$ , the sought function  $\mathbf{y}$  can be approximated in the vicinity of the point  $x_1$  as

$$\bar{\mathbf{y}}(x) = \mathbf{y}_1 + \mathbf{y}'_1 \cdot (x - x_1) + \mathbf{c} \cdot (x - x_1)^2, \quad (8)$$

where the coefficient  $\mathbf{c}$  can be found from the condition  $\mathbf{y}(x_0) = \mathbf{y}_0$ ,

$$\mathbf{c} = \frac{\mathbf{y}_0 - \mathbf{y}_1 - \mathbf{y}'_1 \cdot (x_0 - x_1)}{(x_0 - x_1)^2}. \quad (9)$$

Now  $\mathbf{y}_2$  can be calculated as  $\bar{\mathbf{y}}(x_2)$  from (8).

### 1.2.2 A predictor-corrector method

Having the two-step approximation  $\bar{\mathbf{y}}(x)$  one can estimate  $\bar{\mathbf{f}}_2 = \mathbf{f}(x_2, \bar{\mathbf{y}}(x_2))$ . Using this new information one can improve the approximation (8) by one order, namely

$$\bar{\bar{\mathbf{y}}}(x) = \bar{\mathbf{y}}(x) + \mathbf{d} \cdot (x - x_1)^2(x - x_0). \quad (10)$$

The coefficient  $\mathbf{d}$  can be found from the condition  $\bar{\bar{\mathbf{y}}}'(x_2) = \bar{\mathbf{f}}_2$ ,

$$\mathbf{d} = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{f}}_2 - \mathbf{y}'_1 - 2\mathbf{c} \cdot (x_2 - x_1)}{2(x_2 - x_1)(x_2 - x_0) + (x_2 - x_1)^2}. \quad (11)$$

Equation (10) gives a better estimate,  $\mathbf{y}_2 = \bar{\bar{\mathbf{y}}}(x_2)$ , of the function at the point  $x_2$ .

In this context the formula (8) is referred to as *predictor*, and (10) as *corrector*. The difference between the two gives an estimate of the error.

## 1.3 Step-size control

The *tolerance*  $\tau$  is the maximal accepted error on the given integration step consistent with the required absolute ( $\delta$ ) and relative ( $\epsilon$ ) accuracies to be achieved in the integration of an ODEs. Under assumption of random distribution of errors on the integration steps from  $a$  to  $b$  the tolerance, according to the central limit theorem, scales as a square root of the step-size  $h$ ,

$$\tau = (\epsilon||y|| + \delta) \sqrt{\frac{h}{b-a}}. \quad (12)$$

The error of the integration method on a given step can be estimated e.g. by comparing the solutions for a full-step and two half-steps (the *Runge principle*),

$$\text{err} = \frac{||y_{\text{full-step}} - y_{\text{two-half-steps}}||}{2^p - 1}, \quad (13)$$

where  $p$  is the order of the algorithm used.

The step is accepted if the error is smaller than tolerance. The next step can be estimated according to the (empirical) prescription

$$h_{\text{next}} = h_{\text{previous}} \times \left( \frac{\text{tol}}{\text{err}} \right)^{\text{Power}} \times \text{Safety}, \quad (14)$$

where power  $\approx 0.25$ , Safety  $\approx 0.95$ . It is better to pick such formula, that the full-step and two half-step calculations share the evaluations of the function  $\mathbf{f}(x, y)$  which would increase the efficiency of the algorithm.