

Ordinary differential equations

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = f(y, t) \quad , \quad \begin{aligned} f: \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N \\ y: \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N \end{aligned}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} f = f(y, t) \rightarrow \text{non-autonomous} \\ f = f(y) \rightarrow \text{autonomous} \end{array} \right\} \text{system}$$

Note: It is always possible to rewrite an non-autonomous system of dimension N as autonomous by adding an extra variable.

$$f(y, t) \rightarrow \tilde{f}(\tilde{y}), \text{ where } \begin{aligned} \dot{\tilde{y}}_1 &= \tilde{f}_1(y_1, \dots, y_N, y_{N+1}) \\ \vdots & \\ \dot{\tilde{y}}_N &= \tilde{f}_N(y_1, \dots, y_N, y_{N+1}) \\ \dot{\tilde{y}}_{N+1} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Next to the ODE, we require initial conditions $y_0 = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{N+1})^T$. (If we converted a non-autonomous eq. to the autonomous form y_{N+1} has to be t_0).

In the general case, the ODE will be of high order

$$y^{(n)} = \phi(y, \dot{y}, \ddot{y}, \dots, \ddot{y}^{(n-1)}).$$

Here y may be scalar, but a vector as well, e.g. the motion of a point-like mass:

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{F(x)}{m}, \quad [x^{(2)} = \phi(x, \dot{x}, \ddot{x}, t)]$$

where x may be a scalar or a vector.

Every high order equation can be formulated as a system of first order ODEs, hence most numerical methods focus on the solution of such systems.

Reformulation is done in the following way:

- 1) $x^{(n)} = \phi(x, \dot{x}, \dots, x^{(n-1)}) \rightarrow \text{ODE of order } n$

- 2) create vector y of dimension n and formally identify:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \dot{x} \\ \ddot{x} \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n-1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

- 3) The derivative $\frac{dy}{dt}$ is $\frac{dy}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \ddot{x} \\ \vdots \\ x^{(n)} \end{pmatrix}$, where we now make use of the original equation

$x^{(n)} = \phi(x, \dots, x^{(n-1)}) = \phi(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ to obtain the first order system

$$\begin{bmatrix} \overset{\circ}{y}_1 \\ \overset{\circ}{y}_2 \\ \overset{\circ}{y}_3 \\ \vdots \\ \overset{\circ}{y}_{n-1} \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \\ \phi(y_1, \dots, y_n) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Mini-examples: a) $\ddot{x} + x = 0 \Rightarrow y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ \dot{x} \end{pmatrix}, \frac{dy}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} \overset{\circ}{y}_1 \\ \overset{\circ}{y}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \ddot{x} \\ x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -y_2 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix}$,

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = v = \frac{P}{m\gamma}$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = q(E + v \times B)$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{dy}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} P/m\gamma \\ q(E + \frac{P}{m\gamma} \times B) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_2/m\gamma \\ q(E + \frac{y_1}{m\gamma} \times B) \end{pmatrix}$$

Euler methods

Assume scalar ODE $\frac{dy}{dt} = f(y, t)$. Integration gives

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} \frac{dy}{dt} dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(y(t), t) dt \Leftrightarrow y(t_1) - y(t_0) = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(y(t), t) dt$$

The integral may be approximated as :

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} f(y(t), t) dt \approx \begin{cases} f(y(t_0), t_0) \Delta t \\ f(y(t_1), t_1) \Delta t \end{cases}, \text{ where } \Delta t = t_1 - t_0.$$

This yields the two Euler methods:

$$\text{Forward Euler : } y(t_1) = f(y(t_0), t_0) \Delta t + y_0$$

$$\text{Backward Euler : } y(t_1) = f(y(t_1), t_1) \Delta t + y_1$$

Forward Euler is an explicit method, $y(t_1)$ may be directly calculated upon knowledge of $y(t_0)$. Backward Euler is an implicit method, since it only gives an implicit equation for $y(t_1)$.

The order of the error we make in every step can be inferred from another way of looking at the problem.
In the case of Euler forward:

$$y(t_0 + \Delta t) = y(t_0) + \Delta t y'(t_0) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta t^2 y''(t_0) + O(\Delta t^3)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y(t_0 + \Delta t) - y(t_0)}{\Delta t} = y'(t_0) + O(\Delta t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y(t_1) - y(t_0)}{\Delta t} = f(y(t_0), t_0) + O(\Delta t)$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t_1) = \Delta t f(y(t_0), t_0) + y(t_0) + O(\Delta t^2)$$

From here we draw the conclusions:

a) $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{y(t+\Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t} + O(\Delta t)$

b) In each step Δt we make a local truncation error

$$\frac{1}{2} \Delta t^2 y''(t_0) + O(\Delta t^3) = O(\Delta t^2)$$

For Euler backward we find $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{y(t) - y(t-\Delta t)}{\Delta t} + O(\Delta t)$

and the same order of error for each step.

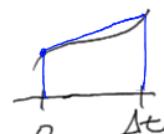
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} y(t-\Delta t) = y(t) - \Delta t f'(t) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta t^2 f''(t) + O(\Delta t^3) \\ \Rightarrow \frac{y(t) - y(t-\Delta t)}{\Delta t} = f'(t) - \frac{1}{2} \Delta t f''(t) + O(\Delta t^3) \end{array} \right]$$

Integration from $t_0=0$ to $t_{\text{end}}=T$ will take a number of small steps. Assuming a constant step-size Δt , we have to take $N = \frac{T}{\Delta t}$ steps. In each step we have a local error $O(\Delta t^2)$, but after N steps we may have accumulated $N O(\Delta t^2) = \frac{N}{\Delta t} O(\Delta t^2) = O(\Delta t)$. Thus, both Euler methods are said to be of order Δt .

To increase accuracy, obviously the local error has to be reduced. Two ways to do this are the mid-point and the trapezoidal rule, respectively.

Mid-point: $\int_0^{\Delta t} f(y, t) dt \approx f(y(\Delta t_{\frac{1}{2}}), \frac{\Delta t}{2}) \Delta t$

Trapezoidal: $\int_0^{\Delta t} f(y, t) dt \approx \frac{1}{2} [f(y(0), 0) + f(y(\Delta t), \Delta t)] \Delta t$



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This results in:

$$y(t+\Delta t) = y(t) + f(y(t+\frac{\Delta t}{2}), \frac{\Delta t}{2}) \Delta t \quad (\text{Midpoint})$$

$$y(t+\Delta t) = y(t) + \frac{1}{2} [f(y(t+\Delta t), t+\Delta t) + f(y(t), t)] \Delta t \quad (\text{Trapezoidal})$$

While for the trapezoidal rule it is clear that it is an implicit method, is the midpoint rule has two variations. How to evaluate $f(y(t+\frac{\Delta t}{2}), t+\frac{\Delta t}{2})$?

Explicit: $y(t+\frac{\Delta t}{2}) \approx y(t) + \frac{\Delta t}{2} f(y(t), t)$

Implicit: $y(t+\frac{\Delta t}{2}) \approx \frac{1}{2} [y(t) + y(t+\Delta t)]$

Introducing the notation $t_n = n \Delta t$, $y(t_n) = y_n$, we have

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \frac{1}{2} \Delta t [f(y_n, t_n) + f(y_{n+1}, t_{n+1})] \quad (\text{Trapezoidal})$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \Delta t f(y_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} f(y_n, t_n), t_{n+1}) \quad (\text{explicit midpoint})$$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + \Delta t f\left(\frac{y_n + y_{n+1}}{2}, t_{n+1}\right) \quad (\text{implicit midpoint})$$

These three methods have a local error of $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3)$ and thus a global error $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$.

All of the above methods are single-step methods, since starting from the knowledge of y_n and the ODE itself, we can compute y_{n+1} . For multi-step methods values y_{n-1}, y_{n-2}, \dots have to be known in order to determine y_{n+1} .

Runge-Kutta methods

RK methods are the most popular single-step methods.

Idea: Evaluate $f(y, t)$ not only at left or right boundary of interval $[t, t + \Delta t]$, but use also intermediate evaluations.

A m -stage RK method has the form

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \vec{k}_i,$$

$$\vec{k}_i = f(\vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} \vec{k}_j, t_n + c_i \Delta t), \quad i=1, \dots, m$$

The parameters b_i, c_i, a_{ij} are determined in such a way, that for given m we obtain the largest order p .

To find the coefficients, the numerical solution \vec{y}_{n+1} and the analytical solution $\vec{y}_{\text{ana}}(t + \Delta t)$ are Taylor expanded.

Comparison of the coefficients leads to nonlinear equations for the parameters. Usually, the solution to the equations is not unique. Each solution is a different RK method.

Setting $c_i = 0, a_{ij} = 0$ for $j \neq i$ results in an explicit method.

For the calculation of \vec{k}_i only previous values $\vec{k}_1, \vec{k}_2, \dots, \vec{k}_{i-1}$ are used.

Example: $p=m=1, b_1=1, b_i=0 \ (i>1), c_i=0, a_{ij}=0$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \vec{k}_1, \quad \vec{k}_1 = f(\vec{y}_n, t_n)$$

This is the Euler forward method.

The popular fourth-order RK method (RK4) is

$$\vec{k}_1 = f(\vec{y}_n, t_n)$$

$$\vec{k}_2 = f\left(\vec{y}_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \vec{k}_1, t_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2}\right)$$

$$\vec{k}_3 = f\left(\vec{y}_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \vec{k}_2, t_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2}\right)$$

$$\vec{k}_4 = f(\vec{y}_n + \Delta t \vec{k}_3, t_n + \Delta t)$$

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \frac{\Delta t}{6} (\vec{k}_1 + 2\vec{k}_2 + 2\vec{k}_3 + \vec{k}_4) + O(\Delta t^5)$$

In general the coefficients are most easily summarized in a Butcher tableau. For an explicit m -stage method it has the form

c_1				0
c_2	a_{21}			$\frac{1}{2}$
:				$\frac{1}{2}$
c_m	a_{m1}	a_{m2}	\dots	$a_{m,m-1}$
	b_1	b_2	\dots	b_{m-1}
				b_m

0				0
$\frac{1}{2}$				$\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	0			$\frac{1}{2}$
1	0	0		1
	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{2}{6}$	$\frac{2}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$

Order p can not be obtained with less than p stages.

RK4 is the highest order for which $m=p$. Methods with higher order have $m>p$.

Other RK methods in Butcher notation:

0	0
1	

Euler forward, $O(\Delta t)$

0		
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	

explicit
mid-point
 $O(\Delta t^2)$

1	1
1	

Euler backward, $O(\Delta t)$

0		
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$

implicit
mid-point
 $O(\Delta t^2)$

0		
1	1	
	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$

Heun's method, $O(\Delta t^2)$

Dense output

With the RK methods above we obtain solutions \vec{y}_n , $n=1, \dots, N$, but we might be interested in the solution at time t^* . t^* might even be not known in advance, it may be implicitly dependent on the computed solution via a function $g(\vec{y}(t^*), t^*) = 0$ (for example t^* is defined as the point in time for which one component of \vec{y} is zero and we need to know the other components).

In this case the solution at a point in the interval $[t_n, t_{n+1}]$ can be approximated by an interpolating function.

In general $\vec{y}_{n+\theta} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^{m^*} b_i(\theta) \vec{k}_i$, $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$, $m^* \geq m$.

In the case of RK4 an interpolation of order 3 can be obtained by

$$b_1(\theta) = \theta - \frac{3\theta^2}{2} + \frac{2\theta^3}{3}, \quad b_2(\theta) = b_3(\theta) = \theta^2 - \frac{2\theta^3}{3}, \quad b_4(\theta) = -\frac{\theta^2}{2} + \frac{2\theta^3}{3}.$$

Here we have $m^* = m$, which results in a lower order of interpolation.

Richardson extrapolation

We may increase the order of the global error by one if we compute each time-step twice using the same integration scheme. If the order of the method is p we find:

1 step of size Δt : $\vec{y}(x_n) = \vec{y}_n + C \Delta t^{p+1} + O(\Delta t^{p+2})$

2 steps of size $\frac{\Delta t}{2}$: $\vec{y}(x_n) = \tilde{\vec{y}}_n + 2C \left(\frac{\Delta t}{2}\right)^{p+1} + O\left(\Delta t^{p+2}\right)$

(Here $\vec{y}(x_n)$ is the true solution and we suppose small enough Δt for C to be the same in both cases).

Now we multiply eq. ② by 2^p and subtract ①

$$② \quad 2^p \tilde{y}_n(x_n) = 2^p \tilde{\bar{y}}_n + C\Delta t^{p+1} + O(\Delta t^{p+2})$$

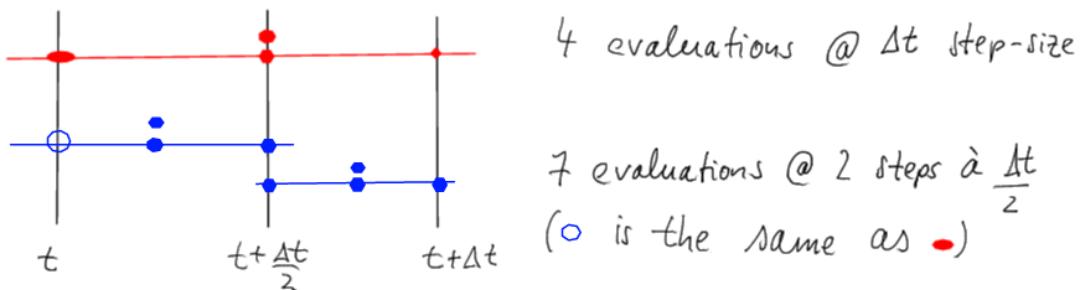
$$② - ① \quad (2^p - 1)\tilde{y}_n(x_n) = 2^p \tilde{\bar{y}}_n - \bar{y}_n + O(\Delta t^{p+2})$$

This results in

$$\tilde{y}_n(x_n) = \frac{2^p \tilde{\bar{y}}_n - \bar{y}_n}{2^p - 1} + O(\Delta t^{p+2}),$$

which is one order better than the original expression.

How many evaluations of $f(\tilde{y}, t)$ are needed in case of RK4 using Richardson extrapolation?



In total 11 evaluations are required to achieve $O(\Delta t^5)$ using RK4.

Embedded RK methods

m -stage RK method of order p :

$$\tilde{y}_{n+1} = \tilde{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \tilde{k}_i + O(\Delta t^{p+1})$$

A second method of different order \hat{p} may share the \tilde{k}_i :

$$\hat{\tilde{y}}_{n+1} = \tilde{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=0}^m \hat{b}_i \tilde{k}_i + O(\Delta t^{\hat{p}+1})$$

If $\hat{\tilde{y}}_{n+1}$ and \tilde{y}_{n+1} share the majority of the \tilde{k}_i , then we obtain two results of different orders, where the more precise result demands little extra effort to compute.

We may use $\|\Delta\| = \|\tilde{y}_{n+1} - \hat{\tilde{y}}_{n+1}\|$ as a local error estimate.

A well known embedded method is the Dormand-Prince method, which combines a 4th and a 5th order RK.

Butcher Tableau for Dormand-Prince 4(5) method.					
0					
1/5	1/5				
3/10	3/40	9/40			
4/5	44/45	-56/15	32/9		
8/9	19372/6561	-25360/2187	64448/6561	-212/729	
1	9017/3168	-355/33	46732/5247	49/176	-5103/18656
1	35/384	0	500/1113	125/192	-2187/6784
	35/384	0	500/1113	125/192	11/84
	5179/57600	0	7571/16695	393/640	-92097/339200
			187/2100	1/40	

Once we have results of different accuracy (either obtained via extrapolation or from embedded methods), we have the possibility to control the step-size Δt in every step. In places where $f(\vec{y}, t)$ is changing slowly we may take larger steps and in the case of rapid variations we reduce the step-size.

Assume two numerical solutions of order p and $p+1$:

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}(t_{n+1}) + \vec{c} \Delta t^{p+1} + O(\Delta t^{p+2})$$

$$\hat{\vec{y}}_{n+1} = \vec{y}(t_{n+1}) + O(\Delta t^{p+2})$$

We may use $\chi(\Delta t) = \|\vec{y}_{n+1} - \hat{\vec{y}}_{n+1}\|$ as an approximation to the error of the low order method.

We specify an error ε which we are willing to tolerate, what we need to find is a step-size Δt_{new} which we have to use to achieve $\chi(\Delta t_{\text{new}}) < \varepsilon$.

$$\underbrace{\frac{\chi(\Delta t)}{\chi(\Delta t_{\text{new}})}}_{= \varepsilon} = \frac{\Delta t^5}{\Delta t_{\text{new}}^5} \Rightarrow \Delta t_{\text{new}} = \frac{\Delta t}{\chi(\Delta t)^{1/5}} \varepsilon^{1/5}$$

Since Δt_{new} will be only used in the next step, a safety-factor $q \approx 0.1 - 0.9$ is usually used, i.e.

$$\Delta t_{\text{new}} = q \Delta t \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\chi(\Delta t)} \right)^{1/5}.$$

Multistep methods

$$(\vec{y}_n, t_n) \xrightarrow[\text{single-step method}]{\quad} \vec{y}_{n+1} \quad (\vec{y}_{n-k+1}, \dots, \vec{y}_n) \xrightarrow[\text{multi-step method}]{\quad} \vec{y}_{n+1}$$

How to obtain formulas for multi-step methods:

- Integrate ODE to obtain $\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} f(\vec{y}, t) dt$
- Approximate $f(\vec{y}, t)$ by Newton interpolation polynomials at the k points where \vec{y} is already known, i.e. $\{t_i \mid i=n-k+1, \dots, n\}$.
Here we can evaluate f_i . The interpolation polynomial $p(t)$ is then

$$p(t) = p(t_n + s \Delta t) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (-1)^j \binom{-s}{j} \nabla^j f_n,$$

$$\text{where } \nabla^{j+1} f_n = \nabla^j f_n - \nabla^j f_{n-1}, \quad \nabla^0 f_n = f_n.$$

($s \in [0, 1]$ since $p(t)$ is used to interpolate $f(\vec{y}, t)$ in $[t_n, t_{n+1}]$.

We require k points t_i to have an interpolation polynomial of order k)

- Now we may use $p(t)$ to approximate

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{y}_{n+1} &= \vec{y}_n + \int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} f(\vec{y}, t) dt \approx \vec{y}_n + \int_{t_n}^{t_{n+1}} p(t) dt \\ &= \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \gamma_j \nabla^j f_n, \quad \gamma_j = (-1)^j \int_0^1 \binom{-s}{j} ds \end{aligned}$$

These schemes are known as explicit Adams (or Adams-Basforth) methods.

$$k=1: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t f_n \quad (\text{Euler forward})$$

$$k=2: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\frac{3}{2} f_n - \frac{1}{2} f_{n-1} \right]$$

$$k=3: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\frac{23}{12} f_n - \frac{16}{12} f_{n-1} + \frac{5}{12} f_{n-2} \right]$$

$$k=4: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\frac{55}{24} f_n - \frac{59}{24} f_{n-1} + \frac{37}{24} f_{n-2} - \frac{9}{24} f_{n-3} \right] \quad \checkmark$$

Implicit Adams methods are obtained by formulating the above Newton interpolations including the yet unknown value \vec{y}_{n+1} .

One obtains for the smallest k :

$$k=0: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t f_{n+1} \quad (\text{implicit Euler})$$

$$k=1: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\frac{1}{2} f_{n+1} + \frac{1}{2} f_n \right] \quad (\text{implicit trapezoidal})$$

$$k=2: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\frac{5}{12} f_{n+1} + \frac{8}{12} f_n - \frac{1}{12} f_{n-1} \right]$$

$$k=3: \quad \vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\frac{9}{24} f_{n+1} + \frac{19}{24} f_n - \frac{5}{24} f_{n-1} + \frac{1}{24} f_{n-2} \right]$$

In order to find \vec{y}_{n+1} from these implicit equations one may use a fixed-point iteration:

$$\vec{y}_{n+1}^{(l)} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \left[\beta_k f(y_{n+1}^{(l-1)}, t_{n+1}) + \beta_{k-1} f(y_n, t_n) + \dots + \beta_0 f_{n-k+1} \right].$$

For Δt small enough $\vec{y}_{n+1}^{(l)}$ converges to \vec{y}_{n+1} as $l \rightarrow \infty$.

In practice $y_{n+1}^{(0)}$ is obtained by one of the explicit formulas and then used for one step of the implicit method (Predictor - Corrector methods).

Pred. - corr. Example:

Fwd. Euler for prediction : $\vec{y}_{n+1}^* = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t f(\vec{y}_n, t_n)$

Corrector step using the implicit trapezoidal rule:

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \left[f(\vec{y}_n, t_n) + f(\vec{y}_{n+1}, t_{n+1}) \right] \approx \vec{y}_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \left[f(\vec{y}_n, t_n) + f(\vec{y}_{n+1}^*, t_{n+1}) \right]$$

Note: This actually is a RK method (Heun's method) of order $O(\Delta t^2)$

$$\vec{k}_1 = f(y_n, t_n)$$

$$\vec{k}_2 = f(y_n + \Delta t \vec{k}_1, t_n + \Delta t)$$

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \frac{\Delta t}{2} [\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2]$$

Butcher-Tableau:

0	
1	1
	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$

Partitioned Runge Kutta Methods

Suppose $\dot{\vec{y}} = f(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$, $\dot{\vec{z}} = g(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$ is a partitioned set of ODEs. We may treat the two systems by two different RK methods.

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=0}^m b_i \vec{k}_i, \quad \vec{z}_{n+1} = \vec{z}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=0}^m \hat{b}_i \vec{l}_i$$

$$\vec{l}_i = g\left(\vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} \vec{k}_j, \vec{z}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{a}_{ij} \vec{l}_j\right)$$

$$\vec{k}_i = f\left(\vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} \vec{k}_j, \vec{z}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{a}_{ij} \vec{l}_j\right)$$

The symplectic Euler method ($b_1 = 1, a_{11} = 1, \hat{b}_1 = 1, \hat{a}_{11} = 0$) is a combination of implicit and explicit Euler.

Nystrom methods

$$\text{Partition } \ddot{\vec{y}} = f(\vec{y}, \vec{z}, t) \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \dot{\vec{y}} &= \vec{z} \\ \dot{\vec{z}} &= f(t, \vec{y}, \vec{z}). \end{aligned}$$

A partitioned RK method yields

$$\vec{k}_i = \vec{z}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{a}_{ij} \vec{l}_j$$

$$\vec{l}_i = f\left(t_n + c_i \Delta t, \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} \vec{k}_j, \vec{z}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=1}^m \hat{a}_{ij} \vec{l}_j\right)$$

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^m b_i \vec{k}_i, \quad \vec{z}_{n+1} = \vec{z}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{b}_i \vec{l}_i$$

For $f(\vec{y}, \vec{z}, t) = f(\vec{y}, t)$ we recover Newton's law of motion which is an important sub-class of problems. Now \hat{a}_{ij} does not have to be specified and we obtain

$$\vec{l}_i = f\left(t_n + c_i \Delta t, \vec{y}_n + c_i \Delta t \dot{\vec{y}}_n + \Delta t^2 \sum_{j=0}^m \hat{a}_{ij} \vec{l}_j, \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \sum_{j=0}^m \hat{a}_{ij} \vec{l}_j\right)$$

$$\vec{y}_{n+1} = \vec{y}_n + \Delta t \dot{\vec{y}}_n + \Delta t^2 \sum_{i=1}^m \vec{b}_i \vec{l}_i, \quad \dot{\vec{y}}_{n+1} = \dot{\vec{y}}_n + \Delta t \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{b}_i \vec{l}_i$$

