

# List of Runge–Kutta methods

**Runge–Kutta methods** are methods for the numerical solution of the ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = f(t, y).$$

Explicit Runge–Kutta methods take the form

$$\begin{aligned} y_{n+1} &= y_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i k_i \\ k_1 &= f(t_n, y_n), \\ k_2 &= f(t_n + c_2 h, y_n + h(a_{21} k_1)), \\ k_3 &= f(t_n + c_3 h, y_n + h(a_{31} k_1 + a_{32} k_2)), \\ &\vdots \\ k_i &= f\left(t_n + c_i h, y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} k_j\right). \end{aligned}$$

Stages for implicit methods of  $s$  stages take the more general form, with the solution to be found over all  $s$

$$k_i = f\left(t_n + c_i h, y_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s a_{ij} k_j\right).$$

Each method listed on this page is defined by its Butcher tableau, which puts the coefficients of the method in a table as follows:

$c_1$	$a_{11}$	$a_{12}$	$\dots$	$a_{1s}$
$c_2$	$a_{21}$	$a_{22}$	$\dots$	$a_{2s}$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\ddots$	$\vdots$
$c_s$	$a_{s1}$	$a_{s2}$	$\dots$	$a_{ss}$
	$b_1$	$b_2$	$\dots$	$b_s$

For adaptive and implicit methods, the Butcher tableau is extended to give values of  $b_i^*$ , and the estimated error is then

$$e_{n+1} = h \sum_{i=1}^s (b_i - b_i^*) k_i.$$

## Explicit methods

The explicit methods are those where the matrix  $[a_{ij}]$  is lower triangular.

## Forward Euler

The Euler method is first order. The lack of stability and accuracy limits its popularity mainly to use as a simple introductory example of a numeric solution method.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 0 \\ \hline & 1 \end{array}$$

## Explicit midpoint method

The (explicit) midpoint method is a second-order method with two stages (see also the implicit midpoint method below):

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \\ \hline & 0 & 1 \end{array}$$

## Heun's method

Heun's method is a second-order method with two stages. It is also known as the explicit trapezoid rule, improved Euler's method, or modified Euler's method. (Note: The "eu" is pronounced the same way as in "Euler", so "Heun" rhymes with "coin"):

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{array}$$

## Ralston's method

Ralston's method is a second-order method<sup>[1]</sup> with two stages and a minimum local error bound:

0	0	0
2/3	2/3	0
	1/4	3/4

### Generic second-order method

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

### Kutta's third-order method

0	0	0	0
1/2	1/2	0	0
1	-1	2	0
	1/6	2/3	1/6

### Generic third-order method

See Sanderse and Veldman (2019).<sup>[2]</sup>

for  $\alpha \neq 0, \frac{2}{3}, 1$ :

0	0	0	0
$\alpha$	$\alpha$	0	0
1	$1 + \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha(3\alpha-2)}$	$-\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha(3\alpha-2)}$	0
	$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6\alpha}$	$\frac{1}{6\alpha(1-\alpha)}$	$\frac{2-3\alpha}{6(1-\alpha)}$

## Heun's third-order method

0	0	0	0
1/3	1/3	0	0
2/3	0	2/3	0
	1/4	0	3/4

## Van der Houwen's/Wray third-order method

0	0	0	0
8/15	8/15	0	0
2/3	1/4	5/12	0
	1/4	0	3/4

## Ralston's third-order method

Ralston's third-order method<sup>[1]</sup> is used in the embedded Bogacki–Shampine method.

0	0	0	0
1/2	1/2	0	0
3/4	0	3/4	0
	2/9	1/3	4/9

## Third-order Strong Stability Preserving Runge-Kutta (SSPRK3)

0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0
1/2	1/4	1/4	0
	1/6	1/6	2/3

## Classic fourth-order method

The "original" Runge–Kutta method.<sup>[3]</sup>

0	0	0	0	0
1/2	1/2	0	0	0
1/2	0	1/2	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
	1/6	1/3	1/3	1/6

### 3/8-rule fourth-order method

This method doesn't have as much notoriety as the "classic" method, but is just as classic because it was proposed in the same paper (Kutta, 1901).<sup>[3]</sup>

0	0	0	0	0
1/3	1/3	0	0	0
2/3	-1/3	1	0	0
1	1	-1	1	0
	1/8	3/8	3/8	1/8

### Ralston's fourth-order method

This fourth order method<sup>[1]</sup> has minimum truncation error.

0	0	0	0	0
.4	.4	0	0	0
.45573725	.29697761	.15875964	0	0
1	.21810040	-3.05096516	3.83286476	0
	.17476028	-.55148066	1.20553560	.17118478

## Embedded methods

The embedded methods are designed to produce an estimate of the local truncation error of a single Runge–Kutta step, and as result, allow to control the error with adaptive stepsize. This is done by having two methods in the tableau, one with order p and one with order p-1.

The lower-order step is given by

$$y_{n+1}^* = y_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i^* k_i,$$

where the  $k_i$  are the same as for the higher order method. Then the error is

$$e_{n+1} = y_{n+1} - y_{n+1}^* = h \sum_{i=1}^s (b_i - b_i^*) k_i,$$

which is  $O(h^p)$ . The Butcher Tableau for this kind of method is extended to give the values of  $b_i^*$

$c_1$	$a_{11}$	$a_{12}$	$\dots$	$a_{1s}$
$c_2$	$a_{21}$	$a_{22}$	$\dots$	$a_{2s}$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\ddots$	$\vdots$
$c_s$	$a_{s1}$	$a_{s2}$	$\dots$	$a_{ss}$
	$b_1$	$b_2$	$\dots$	$b_s$
	$b_1^*$	$b_2^*$	$\dots$	$b_s^*$

## Heun–Euler

The simplest adaptive Runge–Kutta method involves combining Heun's method, which is order 2, with the Euler method, which is order 1. Its extended Butcher Tableau is:

0	
1	1
	1/2   1/2
	1   0

The error estimate is used to control the stepsize.

## Fehlberg RK1(2)

The Fehlberg method<sup>[4]</sup> has two methods of orders 1 and 2. Its extended Butcher Tableau is:

0	
1/2	1/2
1	1/256   255/256
	1/512   255/256   1/512
	1/256   255/256   0

The first row of  $b$  coefficients gives the second-order accurate solution, and the second row has order one.

## Bogacki–Shampine

The Bogacki–Shampine method has two methods of orders 2 and 3. Its extended Butcher Tableau is:

0	
1/2	1/2
3/4	0   3/4
1	2/9   1/3   4/9
	2/9   1/3   4/9   0
	7/24   1/4   1/3   1/8

The first row of  $b$  coefficients gives the third-order accurate solution, and the second row has order two.

## Fehlberg

The Runge–Kutta–Fehlberg method has two methods of orders 5 and 4; it is sometimes dubbed RKF45 . Its extended Butcher Tableau is:

0						
1/4	1/4					
3/8	3/32	9/32				
12/13	1932/2197	−7200/2197	7296/2197			
1	439/216	−8	3680/513	−845/4104		
1/2	−8/27	2	−3544/2565	1859/4104	−11/40	
	16/135	0	6656/12825	28561/56430	−9/50	2/55
	25/216	0	1408/2565	2197/4104	−1/5	0

The first row of  $b$  coefficients gives the fifth-order accurate solution, and the second row has order four. The coefficients here allow for an adaptive stepsize to be determined automatically.

## Cash-Karp

Cash and Karp have modified Fehlberg's original idea. The extended tableau for the Cash–Karp method is

0						
1/5	1/5					
3/10	3/40	9/40				
3/5	3/10	−9/10	6/5			
1	−11/54	5/2	−70/27	35/27		
7/8	1631/55296	175/512	575/13824	44275/110592	253/4096	
	37/378	0	250/621	125/594	0	512/1771
	2825/27648	0	18575/48384	13525/55296	277/14336	1/4

The first row of  $b$  coefficients gives the fifth-order accurate solution, and the second row has order four.

## Dormand–Prince

The extended tableau for the Dormand–Prince method is

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	11/84
	35/384	0	500/1113	125/192	−2187/6784	11/84
	5179/57600	0	7571/16695	393/640	−92097/339200	187/2100

The first row of  $b$  coefficients gives the fifth-order accurate solution, and the second row gives the fourth-order accurate solution.

## Implicit methods

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### Backward Euler

The backward Euler method is first order. Unconditionally stable and non-oscillatory for linear diffusion problems.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 1 \\ \hline & 1 \end{array}$$

### Implicit midpoint

The implicit midpoint method is of second order. It is the simplest method in the class of collocation methods known as the Gauss-Legendre methods. It is a symplectic integrator.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ \hline & 1 \end{array}$$

### Crank-Nicolson method

The Crank–Nicolson method corresponds to the implicit trapezoidal rule and is a second-order accurate and A-stable method.

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ \hline & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{array}$$

### Gauss–Legendre methods

These methods are based on the points of Gauss–Legendre quadrature. The Gauss–Legendre method of order four has Butcher tableau:

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} \\ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} & \frac{1}{4} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \hline & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ & \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{array}$$

The Gauss–Legendre method of order six has Butcher tableau:



$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{15}}{10}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{2}{9} - \frac{\sqrt{15}}{15}$	$\frac{5}{36} - \frac{\sqrt{15}}{30}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{36} + \frac{\sqrt{15}}{24}$	$\frac{2}{9}$	$\frac{5}{36} - \frac{\sqrt{15}}{24}$
$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{15}}{10}$	$\frac{5}{36} + \frac{\sqrt{15}}{30}$	$\frac{2}{9} + \frac{\sqrt{15}}{15}$	$\frac{5}{36}$
	$\frac{5}{18}$	$\frac{4}{9}$	$\frac{5}{18}$
	$-\frac{5}{6}$	$\frac{8}{3}$	$-\frac{5}{6}$

## Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta methods

Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta (DIRK) formulae have been widely used for the numerical solution of stiff initial value problems; <sup>[5]</sup> the advantage of this approach is that here the solution may be found sequentially as opposed to simultaneously.

The simplest method from this class is the order 2 implicit midpoint method.

Kraaijevanger and Spijker's two-stage Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

$1/2$	$1/2$	$0$
$3/2$	$-1/2$	$2$
	$-1/2$	$3/2$

Qin and Zhang's two-stage, 2nd order, symplectic Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

$1/4$	$1/4$	$0$
$3/4$	$1/2$	$1/4$
	$1/2$	$1/2$

Pareschi and Russo's two-stage 2nd order Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

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

This Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method is A-stable if and only if  $x \geq \frac{1}{4}$ . Moreover, this method is L-stable if and only if  $x$  equals one of the roots of the polynomial  $x^2 - 2x + \frac{1}{2}$ , i.e. if  $x = 1 \pm \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ . Qin and Zhang's Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method corresponds to Pareschi and Russo's Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method with  $x = 1/4$ .

Two-stage 2nd order Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

$x$	$x$	$0$
$1$	$1 - x$	$x$
	$1 - x$	$x$

Again, this Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method is A-stable if and only if  $x \geq \frac{1}{4}$ . As the previous method, this method is again L-stable if and only if  $x$  equals one of the roots of the polynomial  $x^2 - 2x + \frac{1}{2}$ , i.e. if  $x = 1 \pm \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ .

Crouzeix's two-stage, 3rd order Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}$	0
$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}$	$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}$
	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$

Crouzeix's three-stage, 4th order Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

$\frac{1+\alpha}{2}$	$\frac{1+\alpha}{2}$	0	0
$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{\alpha}{2}$	$\frac{1+\alpha}{2}$	0
$\frac{1-\alpha}{2}$	$1 + \alpha$	$-(1 + 2\alpha)$	$\frac{1+\alpha}{2}$
	$\frac{1}{6\alpha^2}$	$1 - \frac{1}{3\alpha^2}$	$\frac{1}{6\alpha^2}$

with  $\alpha = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \cos \frac{\pi}{18}$ .

Three-stage, 3rd order, L-stable Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method:

$x$	$x$	0	0
$\frac{1+x}{2}$	$\frac{1-x}{2}$	$x$	0
1	$-3x^2/2 + 4x - 1/4$	$3x^2/2 - 5x + 5/4$	$x$
	$-3x^2/2 + 4x - 1/4$	$3x^2/2 - 5x + 5/4$	$x$

with  $x = 0.4358665215$

Nørsett's three-stage, 4th order Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method has the following Butcher tableau:

$x$	$x$	0	0
$1/2$	$1/2 - x$	$x$	0
$1 - x$	$2x$	$1 - 4x$	$x$
	$\frac{1}{6(1-2x)^2}$	$\frac{3(1-2x)^2-1}{3(1-2x)^2}$	$\frac{1}{6(1-2x)^2}$

with  $x$  one of the three roots of the cubic equation  $x^3 - 3x^2/2 + x/2 - 1/24 = 0$ . The three roots of this cubic equation are approximately  $x_1 = 1.06858$ ,  $x_2 = 0.30254$ , and  $x_3 = 0.12889$ . The root  $x_1$  gives the best stability properties for initial value problems.

Four-stage, 3rd order, L-stable Diagonally Implicit Runge–Kutta method

1/2	1/2	0	0	0
2/3	1/6	1/2	0	0
1/2	-1/2	1/2	1/2	0
1	3/2	-3/2	1/2	1/2
	3/2	-3/2	1/2	1/2

## Lobatto methods

There are three main families of Lobatto methods,<sup>[6]</sup> called IIIA, IIIB and IIIC (in classical mathematical literature, the symbols I and II are reserved for two types of Radau methods). These are named after Rehuel Lobatto<sup>[6]</sup> as a reference to the Lobatto quadrature rule, but were introduced by Byron L. Ehle in his thesis.<sup>[7]</sup> All are implicit methods, have order  $2s - 2$  and they all have  $c_1 = 0$  and  $c_s = 1$ . Unlike any explicit method, it's possible for these methods to have the order greater than the number of stages. Lobatto lived before the classic fourth-order method was popularized by Runge and Kutta.

### Lobatto IIIA methods

The Lobatto IIIA methods are collocation methods. The second-order method is known as the trapezoidal rule:

0	0	0
1	1/2	1/2
	1/2	1/2
	1	0

The fourth-order method is given by

0	0	0	0
1/2	5/24	1/3	-1/24
1	1/6	2/3	1/6
	1/6	2/3	1/6
	$-\frac{1}{2}$	2	$-\frac{1}{2}$

These methods are A-stable, but not L-stable and B-stable.

### Lobatto IIIB methods

The Lobatto IIIB methods are not collocation methods, but they can be viewed as discontinuous collocation methods (Hairer, Lubich & Wanner 2006, §II.1.4). The second-order method is given by

0	1/2	0
1	1/2	0
	1/2	1/2
	1	0

The fourth-order method is given by

0	1/6	-1/6	0
1/2	1/6	1/3	0
1	1/6	5/6	0
<hr/>			
	1/6	2/3	1/6
	$-\frac{1}{2}$	2	$-\frac{1}{2}$

Lobatto IIIB methods are A-stable, but not L-stable and B-stable.

### Lobatto IIIC methods

The Lobatto IIIC methods also are discontinuous collocation methods. The second-order method is given by

0	1/2	-1/2
1	1/2	1/2
<hr/>		
	1/2	1/2
	1	0

The fourth-order method is given by

0	1/6	-1/3	1/6
1/2	1/6	5/12	-1/12
1	1/6	2/3	1/6
<hr/>			
	1/6	2/3	1/6
	$-\frac{1}{2}$	2	$-\frac{1}{2}$

They are L-stable. They are also algebraically stable and thus B-stable, that makes them suitable for stiff problems.

### Lobatto IIIC\* methods

The Lobatto IIIC\* methods are also known as Lobatto III methods (Butcher, 2008), Butcher's Lobatto methods (Hairer et al., 1993), and Lobatto IIIC methods (Sun, 2000) in the literature.<sup>[6]</sup> The second-order method is given by

0	0	0
1	1	0
<hr/>		
	1/2	1/2

Butcher's three-stage, fourth-order method is given by

0	0	0	0
1/2	1/4	1/4	0
1	0	1	0
	1/6	2/3	1/6

These methods are not A-stable, B-stable or L-stable. The Lobatto IIIC\* method for  $s = 2$  is sometimes called the explicit trapezoidal rule.

### Generalized Lobatto methods

One can consider a very general family of methods with three real parameters  $(\alpha_A, \alpha_B, \alpha_C)$  by considering Lobatto coefficients of the form

$$a_{i,j}(\alpha_A, \alpha_B, \alpha_C) = \alpha_A a_{i,j}^A + \alpha_B a_{i,j}^B + \alpha_C a_{i,j}^C + \alpha_{C*} a_{i,j}^{C*},$$

where

$$\alpha_{C*} = 1 - \alpha_A - \alpha_B - \alpha_C.$$

For example, Lobatto IIID family introduced in (Nørsett and Wanner, 1981), also called Lobatto IIINW, are given by

0	1/2	1/2
1	-1/2	1/2
	1/2	1/2

and

0	1/6	0	-1/6
1/2	1/12	5/12	0
1	1/2	1/3	1/6
	1/6	2/3	1/6

These methods correspond to  $\alpha_A = 2$ ,  $\alpha_B = 2$ ,  $\alpha_C = -1$ , and  $\alpha_{C*} = -2$ . The methods are L-stable. They are algebraically stable and thus B-stable.

### Radau methods

Radau methods are fully implicit methods (matrix  $A$  of such methods can have any structure). Radau methods attain order  $2s - 1$  for  $s$  stages. Radau methods are A-stable, but expensive to implement. Also they can suffer from order reduction. The first order Radau method is similar to backward Euler method.

### Radau IA methods

The third-order method is given by

0	1/4	-1/4
2/3	1/4	5/12
	1/4	3/4

The fifth-order method is given by

0	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{-1-\sqrt{6}}{18}$	$\frac{-1+\sqrt{6}}{18}$
$\frac{3}{5} - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{10}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{11}{45} + \frac{7\sqrt{6}}{360}$	$\frac{11}{45} - \frac{43\sqrt{6}}{360}$
$\frac{3}{5} + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{10}$	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{11}{45} + \frac{43\sqrt{6}}{360}$	$\frac{11}{45} - \frac{7\sqrt{6}}{360}$
	$\frac{1}{9}$	$\frac{4}{9} + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{36}$	$\frac{4}{9} - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{36}$

## Radau IIA methods

The  $c_i$  of this method are zeros of

$$\frac{d^{s-1}}{dx^{s-1}}(x^{s-1}(x-1)^s).$$

The third-order method is given by

1/3	5/12	-1/12
1	3/4	1/4
	3/4	1/4

The fifth-order method is given by

$\frac{2}{5} - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{10}$	$\frac{11}{45} - \frac{7\sqrt{6}}{360}$	$\frac{37}{225} - \frac{169\sqrt{6}}{1800}$	$-\frac{2}{225} + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{75}$
$\frac{2}{5} + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{10}$	$\frac{37}{225} + \frac{169\sqrt{6}}{1800}$	$\frac{11}{45} + \frac{7\sqrt{6}}{360}$	$-\frac{2}{225} - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{75}$
1	$\frac{4}{9} - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{36}$	$\frac{4}{9} + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{36}$	$\frac{1}{9}$
	$\frac{4}{9} - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{36}$	$\frac{4}{9} + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{36}$	$\frac{1}{9}$

## Notes

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6. See Laurent O. Jay (N.D.). "Lobatto methods" (<http://homepage.math.uiowa.edu/~ljay/publications.dir/Lobatto.pdf>). University of Iowa
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