

Sensitivity to Numerical Integration Scheme in Calculation of Transport Barriers

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Abstract

Sammendrag

Preface

Table of Contents

List of Figures	vi
List of Tables	vii
Notation	viii
1 Theory	1
1.1 Solving systems of ordinary differential equations	1
1.1.1 The Runge-Kutta family of numerical methods	1
1.1.2 The Runge-Kutta methods under consideration	4
1.2 The type of flow systems considered	10
1.3 Definition of LCSs for two-dimensional flows	11
1.3.1 Hyperbolic LCSs	11
1.4 FTLE fields as predictors for LCSs	13
2 Method	14
2.1 The double gyre model	14
2.2 Advecting a set of initial conditions	15
2.2.1 Generating a set of initial conditions	15
2.2.2 On the choice of numerical step lengths and tolerance levels . .	17
3 Introduction	18
3.1 Complex systems -> Need shortcuts	18
3.2 Intuitively, what is an LCS?	18
3.3 LCS definition	18
3.4 Different types of LCSs	18
3.5 Hyperbolic LCSs	18
4 Theory	18
4.1 Solving ODE systems	18
4.2 Flowmaps	18
4.3 LCS definition	19
4.4 FTLE as LCS predictor	19
4.5 Identify hyperbolic LCS from variational theory	19
5 Tool!	19
5.1 Adveksjon	19
5.2 CG tensors	19
5.3 Eigenvalues/Eigenvectors	19
5.4 Identify AB domain	19
5.5 Compute strainlines	19

5.6	Identify intersections	20
5.7	Identify neighbors	20
5.8	Select LCSs	20
6	Experiments	20
	References	21
APPENDIX A	Haller er en dust	22

List of Figures

2.1	Illustration of the set of initial conditions	16
2.2	Illustration of the concept of auxiliary tracers	17

List of Tables

1.1	Butcher tableau representation of a general s -stage Runge-Kutta method . . .	2
1.2	Butcher tableau representation of general, embedded, explicit Runge-Kutta methods	3
1.3	Butcher tableau representation of the explicit Euler method	4
1.4	Butcher tableau representation of the explicit Heun method	4
1.5	Butcher tableau representation of the explicit Kutta method	5
1.6	Butcher tableau representation of the explicit, classical Runge-Kutta method .	5
1.7	Butcher tableau representation of the Bogacki-Shampine 3(2) embedded Runge-Kutta method	6
1.8	Butcher tableau representation of the Bogacki-Shampine 5(4) embedded Runge-Kutta method	7
1.9	Butcher tableau representation of the Dormand-Prince 5(4) embedded Runge-Kutta method	8
1.10	Butcher tableau representation of the Dormand-Prince 8(7) embedded Runge-Kutta method	9

Notation

Newton's notation is used for differentiation with respect to time, i.e.:

$$\dot{f}(t) \equiv \frac{df(t)}{dt}$$

Vectors are denoted by upright, bold letters, like this:

$$\boldsymbol{\xi} = (\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n)$$

Matrices and matrix representations of rank-2 tensors are denoted by bold, italicized letters, like this:

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \dots & a_{1,n} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \dots & a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m,1} & a_{m,2} & \dots & a_{m,n} \end{pmatrix}$$

1 Theory

1.1 SOLVING SYSTEMS OF ORDINARY DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

In physics, like other sciences, modeling a system often equates to solving an initial value problem. An initial value problem can be described in terms of a differential equation of the form

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(t, x(t)), \quad x(t_0) = x_0, \quad (1.1)$$

where x is an unknown function (scalar or vector) of time t . The function f is defined on an open subset Ω of $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n$. The initial condition (t_0, x_0) is a point in the domain of f , i.e., $(t_0, x_0) \in \Omega$. In higher dimensions (i.e., $n > 1$) the differential equation (1.1) is replaced by a family of equations

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_i(t) &= f_i(t, x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)), \quad x_i(t_0) = x_{i,0}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \\ \mathbf{x}(t) &= (x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)) \end{aligned} \quad (1.2)$$

The system is nonlinear if the function f in equation (1.1), alternatively, if at least one of the functions f_i in equation (1.2), is nonlinear in one or more of its arguments.

1.1.1 The Runge-Kutta family of numerical methods

For nonlinear systems, analytical solutions frequently do not exist. Thus, such systems are often analyzed by means of numerical methods. In numerical analysis, the Runge-Kutta family of methods are a frequently used collection of implicit and explicit iterative methods, used in temporal discretization in order to obtain numerical approximations of the *true* solutions of systems like (1.1). The German mathematicians C. Runge and M. W. Kutta developed the first of the family's methods at the turn of the twentieth century (Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner 1993, p.134 in the 2008 printing). The general scheme of what is now known as a Runge-Kutta method is as follows:

Definition 1. Let s be an integer and $a_{1,1}, a_{1,2}, \dots, a_{1,s}, a_{2,1}, a_{2,2}, \dots, a_{2,s}, \dots, a_{s,1}, a_{s,2}, \dots, a_{s,s}, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_s$ and c_1, c_2, \dots, c_s be real coefficients. Let h be the numerical step length used in the temporal discretization. Then, the method

$$\begin{aligned} k_i &= f\left(t_n + c_i h, x_n + h \sum_{j=1}^s a_{i,j} k_j\right), \quad i = 1, \dots, s \\ x_{n+1} &= x_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i k_i \end{aligned} \quad (1.3)$$

is called an *s-stage Runge-Kutta method* for the system (1.1).

The main reason to include multiple stages s in a Runge-Kutta method, cf. definition 1, is to improve the numerical accuracy of the computed solutions. Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner (1993, p.2 in the 2010 printing) define the *order* of a Runge-Kutta method as follows:

Definition 2. A Runge-Kutta method (1.3) is said to be of *order* p if, for sufficiently smooth systems (1.1),

$$\|x_{n+1} - x(t_{n+1})\| \leq Kh^{p+1}, \quad (1.4)$$

where K is a numerical constant, i.e., if the Taylor series for the exact solution $x(t_{n+1})$ and the numerical solution x_{n+1} coincide up to (and including) the term h^p .

It is easy to show that if the local error of a Runge-Kutta method is of order p , cf. definition 2, the global error, i.e., the total accumulated error resulting of applying the algorithm a number of times, is expected to scale as h^p . Showing this is left as an exercise for the interested reader.

In definition 1, the matrix $(a_{i,j})$ is commonly called the *Runge-Kutta matrix*, while b_i and c_i are known as the *weights* and *nodes*, respectively. Since the 1960s, it has been customary to represent Runge-Kutta methods (1.3) symbolically, by means of mnemonic devices known as Butcher tableaus (Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner 1993, p.134 in the 2008 printing). The Butcher tableau for a general s -stage Runge-Kutta method, introduced in definition 1, is presented in table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Butcher tableau representation of a general s -stage Runge-Kutta method.

c_1	$a_{1,1}$	$a_{1,2}$	\dots	$a_{1,s}$
c_2	$a_{2,1}$	$a_{2,2}$	\dots	$a_{2,s}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots	\vdots
c_s	$a_{s,1}$	$a_{s,2}$	\dots	$a_{s,s}$
	b_1	b_2	\dots	b_s

For explicit Runge-Kutta methods, the Runge-Kutta matrix $(a_{i,j})$ is lower triangular. Similarly, for fully implicit Runge-Kutta methods, the Runge-Kutta matrix is upper triangular. Unlike explicit methods, implicit methods require the solution of a linear system at every time level, making them more computationally demanding than their explicit siblings. The main selling point of implicit methods is that they are more numerically stable than explicit methods. This property means that implicit methods are particularly well-suited for *stiff* systems, i.e., physical systems with highly disparate time scales (Hairer and Wanner 1996, p.2 in the 2010 printing). For such systems, most explicit methods are highly numerically unstable, unless the numerical

step size is made exceptionally small, rendering most explicit methods practically useless. For *nonstiff* systems, however, implicit methods behave similarly to their explicit analogues in terms of numerical accuracy and convergence properties.

During the first half of the twentieth century, a substantial amount of research was conducted in order to develop numerically robust, high-order, explicit Runge-Kutta methods. The idea was that using such methods would mean one could resort to larger time increments h without sacrificing precision in the computational solution. However, the number of stages s grows quicker than linearly as a function of the required order p . It has been proven that, for $p \geq 5$, no explicit Runge-Kutta method of order p with $s = p$ stages exists (Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner 1993, p.173 in the 2008 printing). This is one of the reasons for the attention shift from the latter half of the 1950s and onwards, towards so-called *embedded* Runge-Kutta methods.

The basic idea of embedded Runge-Kutta methods is that they, aside from the numerical approximation x_{n+1} , yield a second approximation \widehat{x}_{n+1} . The difference between the two approximations then yields an estimate of the local error of the less precise result, which can be used for automatic step size control. The trick is to construct two independent, explicit Runge-Kutta methods which both use the *same* function evaluations. This results in practically obtaining the two solutions for the price of one, in terms of computational complexity. The Butcher tableau of an embedded, general, explicit Runge-Kutta method is illustrated in table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Butcher tableau representation of general, embedded, explicit Runge-Kutta methods.

0					
c_2	$a_{2,1}$				
c_3	$a_{3,1}$	$a_{3,2}$			
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots		
c_s	$a_{s,1}$	$a_{s,2}$	\dots	$a_{s,s-1}$	
	b_1	b_2	\dots	b_{s-1}	b_s
	\widehat{b}_1	\widehat{b}_2	\dots	\widehat{b}_{s-1}	\widehat{b}_s

For embedded methods, the coefficients are tuned such that

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s b_i k_i \quad (1.5a)$$

is of order p , and

$$\widehat{x}_{n+1} = x_n + h \sum_{i=1}^s \widehat{b}_i k_i \quad (1.5b)$$

is of order \widehat{p} , typically with $\widehat{p} = p \pm 1$. Which of the two approximations x_{n+1} or \widehat{x}_{n+1} varies

depending on the embedded method in question. Continuing the integration with the higher order result is commonly referred to as *local extrapolation*. The details on how to implement adaptive stepsize control are not immediately relevant for the topic of this project, but can be found in Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner (1993, pp.167-168 in the 2008 printing).

1.1.2 The Runge-Kutta methods under consideration

Naturally, an abundance of Runge-Kutta methods exist. Many of them are fine-tuned for specific constraints, such as problems of varying degrees of stiffness. It is neither possible nor meaningful to investigate them all in the context of general flow dynamics. For this reason, I consider two classes of explicit Runge-Kutta methods, namely singlestep and adaptive stepsize methods. From both classes, I include four different general-purpose ODE solvers of varying order.

Singlestep methods

The singlestep methods under consideration are the classical, explicit Runge-Kutta methods of orders one through to four, i.e., the *Euler*, *Heun*, *Kutta* and *classical Runge-Kutta* methods. The Euler method is 1st order accurate, and requires a single function evaluation of the right hand side of the ordinary differential equation (1.1) or (1.2) at each time step. Its Butcher tableau representation can be found in table 1.3. It is the simplest explicit method for numerical integration of ordinary differential equations. The Euler method is often used as a basis to construct more complex methods, such as the Heun method, which is also known as the *improved Euler method* or the *explicit trapezoidal rule*. The Heun method is 2nd order accurate, and requires two function evaluations at each time step. Its Butcher tableau representation can be found in table 1.4.

Table 1.3: Butcher tableau representation of the explicit Euler method.

0	
	1

Table 1.4: Butcher tableau representation of the explicit Heun method.

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

The Kutta method is 3rd order accurate, and requires three function evaluations of the right hand side of the ordinary differential equation (1.1) or (1.2) at each time step. Its Butcher tableau representation can be found in table 1.5. The classical Runge-Kutta method is 4th order accurate,

and perhaps the most well-known and frequently used of the four singlestep schemes discussed in this project. One reason for its popularity is that it is exceptionally stable numerically (i.e., of the aforementioned singlestep methods, the classical Runge-Kutta method has the largest numerical stability domain). Another is that, as mentioned previously, for $p \geq 5$, no explicit Runge-Kutta method of order p with $s = p$ stages exist (Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner 1993, p.173 in the 2008 printing) – which means that the required number of function evaluations grows at a disproportional rate with the required accuracy order. For systems with right hand sides which are computationally costly to evaluate, this means that one frequently is able to obtain the desired numerical accuracy more effectively e.g. by using the classical Runge-Kutta method with a finer step length. The Butcher tableau representation of the classical Runge-Kutta method can be found in table 1.6.

Table 1.5: Butcher tableau representation of the explicit Kutta method.

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

Table 1.6: Butcher tableau representation of the explicit, classical Runge-Kutta method.

0				
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$			
$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$		
1	0	0	1	
	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$

Adaptive stepsize methods

The adaptive stepsize methods under consideration are the Bogacki-Shampine 3(2) and 5(4) methods, and the Dormand-Prince 5(4) and 8(7) methods. The digit outside of the parentheses indicates the order of the solution which is used to continue the integration, while the digit within the parentheses indicates the order of the interpolant solution. Note that the concept

of *order* does not translate directly from singlestep methods, as a direct consequence of the adaptive time step. Generally, lower order methods are more suitable than higher order methods for cases where crude approximations of the solution are sufficient. Bogacki and Shampine argue that their methods outperform other methods of the same order (Bogacki and Shampine 1989; Bogacki and Shampine 1996), a notion which, for the 5(4) method, is supported by Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner (1993, p.194 in the 2008 printing).

Butcher tableau representations of the aforementioned adaptive stepsize methods can be found in tables 1.7–1.10, the latter of which has been typeset in landscape orientation for the reader's convenience. Three of the methods, namely the Bogacki-Shampine 3(2) and 5(4) methods, in addition to the Dormand-Prince 5(4) method, possess the so-called *First Same As Last* property. This means that the last function evaluation of an accepted step is exactly the same as the first function evaluation of the next step. This is readily apparent from their Butcher tableaus, where the b coefficients correspond exactly with the last row the Runge-Kutta matrix. The *First Same As Last* property reduces the computational cost of a successive step.

Table 1.7: Butcher tableau representation of the Bogacki- Shampine 3(2) embedded Runge-Kutta method. The b coefficients correspond to a 3rd order accurate solution used to continue the integration. The \hat{b} coefficients correspond to a 2nd order accurate interpolant, which can be used to estimate the error of the numerical approximation, and to dynamically adjust the time step. The *First Same As Last* property is apparent from the fact that the b coefficients correspond exactly to the last row of coefficients in the Runge-Kutta matrix. For reference, see Bogacki and Shampine (1989).

0				
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$			
$\frac{3}{4}$	0	$\frac{3}{4}$		
1	$\frac{2}{9}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{4}{9}$	
	$\frac{2}{9}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{4}{9}$	
	$\frac{7}{24}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{8}$

Table 1.8: Butcher tableau representation of the Bogacki- Shampine 5(4) embedded Runge-Kutta method. The b coefficients correspond to a 5th order accurate solution used to continue the integration. The two rows of \hat{b} coefficients correspond to two independent 4th order accurate interpolants. They can be used to estimate the error of the numerical approximation, and to dynamically adjust the time step. The fact that two independent interpolants are included is a part of the reason for which the method nearly behaves like a 6th order method (Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner 1993, p.194 in the 2008 printing). The *First Same As Last* property is apparent from the fact that the b coefficients correspond exactly to the last row of coefficients in the Runge-Kutta matrix. For reference, see Bogacki and Shampine (1996).

0								
$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$							
$\frac{2}{9}$	0	$\frac{2}{27}$	$\frac{4}{27}$					
$\frac{3}{7}$	$\frac{183}{1372}$	$\frac{-162}{343}$	$\frac{1053}{1372}$					
$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{68}{297}$	$\frac{-4}{11}$	$\frac{42}{143}$	$\frac{1960}{3861}$				
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{597}{22528}$	$\frac{81}{352}$	$\frac{63099}{585728}$	$\frac{58653}{366080}$	$\frac{4617}{20480}$			
1	$\frac{174197}{959244}$	$\frac{-30942}{79937}$	$\frac{8152137}{19744439}$	$\frac{666106}{1039181}$	$\frac{-29421}{29068}$	$\frac{482048}{414219}$		
1	$\frac{587}{8064}$	0	$\frac{4440339}{15491840}$	$\frac{24353}{124800}$	$\frac{387}{44800}$	$\frac{2152}{5985}$	$\frac{7267}{94080}$	
	$\frac{587}{8064}$	0	$\frac{4440339}{15491840}$	$\frac{24353}{124800}$	$\frac{387}{44800}$	$\frac{2152}{5985}$	$\frac{7267}{94080}$	
	$\frac{6059}{80640}$	0	$\frac{8559189}{30983680}$	$\frac{26411}{124800}$	$\frac{-927}{89600}$	$\frac{443}{1197}$	$\frac{7267}{94080}$	
	$\frac{2479}{34992}$	0	$\frac{123}{416}$	$\frac{612941}{3411720}$	$\frac{43}{1440}$	$\frac{2272}{6561}$	$\frac{79937}{1113912}$	$\frac{3293}{556956}$

Table 1.9: Butcher tableau representation of the Dormand-Prince 5(4) embedded Runge-Kutta method. The b coefficients correspond to a 5th order accurate solution used to continue the integration. The \hat{b} coefficients correspond to a 4th order interpolant, which can be used to estimate the error of the numerical approximation, and to dynamically adjust the time step. The *First Same As Last* property is apparent from the fact that the b coefficients correspond exactly to the last row of the Runge-Kutta matrix. For reference, see Hairer, Nørsett, and Wanner (1993, p.178 in the 2008 printing).

0						
$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$					
$\frac{3}{10}$	$\frac{3}{40}$	$\frac{9}{40}$				
$\frac{4}{5}$	$\frac{44}{45}$	$\frac{-56}{15}$	$\frac{32}{9}$			
$\frac{8}{9}$	$\frac{19372}{6561}$	$\frac{-25360}{2187}$	$\frac{64448}{6561}$	$\frac{-212}{769}$		
1	$\frac{9017}{3168}$	$\frac{-355}{33}$	$\frac{46732}{5247}$	$\frac{49}{176}$	$\frac{-5103}{18656}$	
1	$\frac{35}{384}$	0	$\frac{500}{1113}$	$\frac{125}{192}$	$\frac{-2187}{6784}$	$\frac{11}{84}$
	$\frac{35}{384}$	0	$\frac{500}{1113}$	$\frac{125}{192}$	$\frac{-2187}{6784}$	$\frac{11}{84}$
	$\frac{5179}{57600}$	0	$\frac{7571}{16695}$	$\frac{393}{640}$	$\frac{-92097}{339200}$	$\frac{187}{2100}$
						$\frac{1}{40}$

1.2 THE TYPE OF FLOW SYSTEMS CONSIDERED

We consider flow in two-dimensional dynamical systems of the form

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{v}(t, \mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{U}, \quad t \in [t_0, t_1], \quad (1.6)$$

i.e., systems defined for the finite time interval $[t_0, t_1]$, on an open, bounded subset \mathcal{U} of \mathbb{R}^2 . In addition, the velocity field \mathbf{v} is assumed to be smooth in its arguments. Depending on the exact nature of the velocity field \mathbf{v} , analytical particle trajectories, i.e., analytical solutions of system (1.6), may or may not be computed. The flow particles are assumed to be infinitesimally small and massless, i.e., non-interacting *tracers* of the overall circulation.

Letting $\mathbf{x}(t; t_0, \mathbf{x}_0)$ denote the trajectory of a tracer in the system defined by (1.6), the flow map is defined as

$$\mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{x}(t; t_0, \mathbf{x}_0), \quad (1.7)$$

i.e., the flow map describes the mathematical movement of the tracers from one point in time (e.g. the initial condition) to another. Generally, the flow map is as smooth as the velocity field \mathbf{v} in system (1.6) (Farazmand and Haller 2012). For sufficiently smooth velocity fields, the right Cauchy-Green strain tensor field is defined as

$$\mathbf{C}_{t_0}^t(\mathbf{x}_0) = \left(\nabla \mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t(\mathbf{x}_0) \right)^* \nabla \mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad (1.8)$$

where $\nabla \mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t$ denotes the Jacobian matrix of the flow map $\mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t$, and the asterisk refers to the adjoint operation, which, because the Jacobian $\nabla \mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t$ is real-valued, equates to matrix transposition. Component-wise, the Jacobian matrix of a general vector-valued function \mathbf{f} is defined as

$$(\nabla \mathbf{f})_{i,j} = \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j} \quad (1.9)$$

which, for our two-dimensional flow, reduces to

$$\nabla \mathbf{f} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.10)$$

By construction, the Cauchy-Green strain tensor $C_{t_0}^t$ is symmetric and positive definite. Thus, it has two real, positive eigenvalues and orthogonal, real eigenvectors. Its eigenvalues λ_i and corresponding unit eigenvectors ξ_i are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} C_{t_0}^t(\mathbf{x}_0)\xi_i(\mathbf{x}_0) &= \lambda_i\xi_i(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \|\xi_i(\mathbf{x}_0)\| = 1, \quad i = 1, 2, \\ 0 &< \lambda_1(\mathbf{x}_0) \leq \lambda_2(\mathbf{x}_0), \end{aligned} \tag{1.11}$$

where, for the sake of notational transparency, the dependence of λ_i and ξ_i on t_0 and t has been suppressed. As stated by Farazmand and Haller (2012), for incompressible flow, the eigenvalues satisfy

$$\lambda_1(\mathbf{x}_0)\lambda_2(\mathbf{x}_0) = 1 \quad \forall \mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{U} \tag{1.12}$$

where, for our case, incompressibility is equivalent to the velocity field \mathbf{v} being divergence-free (i.e., $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} \equiv 0$), because the tracer particles are massless.

1.3 DEFINITION OF LCSS FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL FLOWS

Lagrangian coherent structures (henceforth abbreviated to LCSs) can be described as time-evolving surfaces which shape coherent trajectory patterns in dynamical systems, defined over a finite time interval (Haller 2010). There are three main types of LCSs, namely *elliptic*, *hyperbolic* and *parabolic*. Roughly speaking, parabolic structures outline cores of jet-like trajectories, elliptic structures describe vortex boundaries, whereas hyperbolic structures illustrate overall attractive or repelling manifolds. As such, hyperbolic LCSs practically act as organizing centers of observable tracer patterns (Onu, Huhn, and Haller 2015). Because hyperbolic LCSs provide the most readily applicable insight in terms of forecasting flow in e.g. oceanic currents, such structures have been the focus of this project.

1.3.1 Hyperbolic LCSs

The use of LCSs for reliable forecasting requires sufficiency and necessity conditions, supported by mathematical theorems. Haller (2010) derived a variational LCS theory based on the Cauchy-Green strain tensor, defined by equation (1.8), from which the aforementioned conditions follow. The immediately relevant parts of Haller's theory are summarized in definitions 3–6.

Definition 3. A *normally repelling material line* over the time interval $[t_0, t_0 + T]$ is a compact material line segment $\mathcal{M}(t)$ which is overall repelling, and on which the normal repulsion rate is greater than the tangential repulsion rate.

A *material line* is a smooth curve $\mathcal{M}(t_0)$ at time t_0 , which is advected by the flow map, cf. equation (1.7), into the dynamic material line $\mathcal{M}(t) = \mathbf{F}_{t_0}^t \mathcal{M}(t_0)$. The required *compactness* of

the material line segment signifies that, in some sense, it must be topologically well-behaved. That the material line is *overall repelling* means that nearby trajectories are repelled from, rather than attracted to, the material line. Lastly, requiring that the *normal repulsion rate* is greater than the *tangential repulsion rate* means that nearby trajectories are in fact driven away from the material line, rather than being stretched *on* it, due to shear stress.

Definition 4. A *repelling LCS* over the time interval $[t_0, t_0 + T]$ is a normally repelling material line $\mathcal{M}(t_0)$ whose normal repulsion admits a pointwise non-degenerate maximum relative to any nearby material line $\widehat{\mathcal{M}}(t_0)$.

Definition 5. An *attracting LCS* over the time interval $[t_0, t_0 + T]$ is defined as a repelling LCS over the *backward* time interval $[t_0 + T, t_0]$.

Definition 6. A *hyperbolic LCS* over the time interval $[t_0, t_0 + T]$ is a *repelling* or *attracting* LCS over the same time interval.

Note that the above definitions associate LCSs with the time interval I over which the dynamical system under consideration is known, or, at the very least, over which information regarding the behaviour of tracers, is sought. Generally, LCSs obtained over a time interval I do not exist over different time intervals (Farazmand and Haller 2012).

For two-dimensional flow, the above definitions can be summarized as a set of mathematical existence criteria, based on the Cauchy-Green strain tensor, cf. equation (1.8) (Haller 2010; Farazmand and Haller 2011). These are given in theorem 1:

Theorem 1 (Sufficient and necessary conditions for LCSs in two-dimensional flows). *Consider a compact material line $\mathcal{M}(t) \subset \mathcal{U}$ evolving over the time interval $[t_0, t_0 + T]$. $\mathcal{M}(t)$ is a repelling LCS over $[t_0, t_0 + T]$ if and only if all the following hold for all initial conditions $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{M}(t_0)$:*

$$\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 > 1 \quad (1.13a)$$

$$\langle \xi_2(\mathbf{x}_0), \mathbf{H}_{\lambda_2}(\mathbf{x}_0) \xi_2(\mathbf{x}_0) \rangle < 0 \quad (1.13b)$$

$$\xi_2(\mathbf{x}_0) \perp \mathcal{M}(t_0) \quad (1.13c)$$

$$\langle \nabla \lambda_2(\mathbf{x}_0), \xi_2(\mathbf{x}_0) \rangle = 0 \quad (1.13d)$$

In theorem 1, $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the Euclidean inner product, and \mathbf{H}_{λ_2} denotes the Hessian matrix of the set of largest eigenvalues of the Cauchy-Green strain tensor. Component-wise, the Hessian matrix of a general, smooth, scalar-valued function f is defined as

$$(\mathbf{H}_f)_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}, \quad (1.14)$$

which, for our two-dimensional flow, reduces to

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.15)$$

Condition (1.13a) ensures that the normal repulsion rate is larger than the tangential stretch due to shear strain along the LCS, cf. definition 3. Conditions (1.13c) and (1.13d) suffice to ensure that the normal repulsion rate attains a local extremum along the LCS, relative to all nearby material lines. Lastly, condition (1.13b) forces this to be a strict local apex.

1.4 FTLE FIELDS AS PREDICTORS FOR LCSS

Finite-time Lyapunov exponent (hereafter abbreviated to FTLE) fields provide a measure of the extent to which particles which start out close to each other, are separated in a given time interval. Mathematically, Lyapunov exponents quantify the asymptotic divergence or convergence of trajectories of tracers which start out infinitesimally close to each other (Strogatz 2014, INSERT PAGE REFERENCE HERE ASAP). The FTLE are intrinsically linked to the Cauchy-Green strain tensor, cf. equation (1.8). When a two-dimensional system is evolved from time t_0 to $t_0 + T$, the FTLE field is defined as

$$\sigma(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{\ln(\lambda_2(\mathbf{x}_0))}{2|T|}, \quad (1.16)$$

where $\lambda_2(\mathbf{x}_0)$ is the largest eigenvalue of the Cauchy-Green strain tensor, cf. equation (1.11). The absolute value of the integration time T is taken because one generally can consider the evolution of a system in either temporal direction. As per definition 5, attracting LCSs are identified as repelling LCSs in backwards time.

Shadden, Lekien, and Marsden (2005) in fact *define* hyperbolic LCSs as ridges of the FTLE field. By *ridges*, they mean gradient lines which are orthogonal to the direction of minimum curvature. Haller (2010) showed, by means of explicit examples, that the sole use of the FTLE field for LCS detection is prone to both false positives and false negatives, even for conceptually simple flows. Furthermore, the FTLE field is generally less well-resolved than the LCSs obtained from Haller's variational formalism. For these reasons, the FTLE field can generally be used as a first-order approximation in terms of where one can reasonably expect LCSs to be found, but it does not represent the blueprint for the actual LCSs of a system in general.

2 Method

In order to investigate the dependence of LCS identification by means of the variational approach as presented in section 1.3.1 on the choice of numerical integration method, cf. section 1.1, a system which has been studied extensively in the literature, was chosen. The system, an unsteady double gyre, has been used frequently as a test case for locating LCSs from different indicators (Farazmand and Haller 2012; Shadden, Lekien, and Marsden 2005). As a result, the LCSs the system exhibit are well known.

2.1 THE DOUBLE GYRE MODEL

The double gyre model is defined as a pair of counter-rotating gyres, with a time-periodic perturbation. The perturbation can be interpreted as a solid, as in impenetrable, wall which oscillates periodically, which causes the gyres to periodically contract and expand. In terms of the cartesian coordinate vector $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$, the system can be expressed mathematically as

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{v}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \pi A \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(\pi f(t, x)) \cos(\pi y) \\ \cos(\pi f(t, x)) \sin(\pi y) \frac{\partial f(t, x)}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} f(t, x) &= a(t)x^2 + b(t)x \\ a(t) &= \epsilon \sin(\omega t) \\ b(t) &= 1 - 2\epsilon \sin(\omega t) \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

and the parameters A , ϵ and ω dictate the nature of the flow pattern. As in the literature, the parameter values

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 0.1 \\ \epsilon &= 0.1 \\ \omega &= \frac{2\pi}{10} \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

were used (Farazmand and Haller 2012; Shadden, Lekien, and Marsden 2005). Moreover, the starting time was $t_0 = 0$, and the integration time was $T = 20$, i.e., forcing two periods of motion, cf. (2.3).

Note that the velocity field $\mathbf{v}(t, \mathbf{x})$ in equation (2.1) can be expressed in terms of a scalar stream function:

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(t, \mathbf{x}) &= A \sin(\pi f(t, x)) \sin(\pi y) \\ \mathbf{v}(t, \mathbf{x}) &= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}\tag{2.4}$$

which means that the velocity field is divergence-free by construction:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}(t, \mathbf{x}) = -\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x \partial y} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y \partial x} = 0\tag{2.5}$$

where the latter equality follows from Schwartz' theorem of mixed partial derivatives, as the stream function is smooth. This means that we expect the property given in equation (1.12) to hold for the double gyre flow.

2.2 ADVECTING A SET OF INITIAL CONDITIONS

The variational model is based upon the advection of non-interacting tracers, cf. section 1.2, by the velocity field defined in equation (2.1). The system has no known analytical solution for the tracer trajectories. Thus, it must be solved numerically, by means of some numerical integration method, e.g. a Runge-Kutta method, cf. section 1.1.1. With the main focus of this project being the dependence on LCSs on the chosen integration method, the advection was performed using all of the numerical integrators introduced in section 1.1.2.

2.2.1 *Generating a set of initial conditions*

The computational domain $\mathcal{U} = [0, 2] \times [0, 1]$ was discretized by a set of linearly spaced tracers, with 1000×500 grid points, effectively creating a nearly uniform grid of approximate spacing $\Delta x \simeq \Delta y \simeq 0.002$. Tracers were placed on, and within, the domain boundaries of \mathcal{U} . The grid was extended artificially, with an additional two rows or columns appended to all of the domain edges, with the same grid spacing as the *main* grid. This was done in order to ensure that the dynamics at the domain boundaries were included in the analysis to follow. The extended grid thus had a total of 1004×504 grid points. The construction of the grid is illustrated in figure 2.1.

In order to increase the resolution of the Cauchy-Green strain tensor, it is necessary to increase the accuracy with which one computes the Jacobian of the flow map, cf. equation (1.8). This

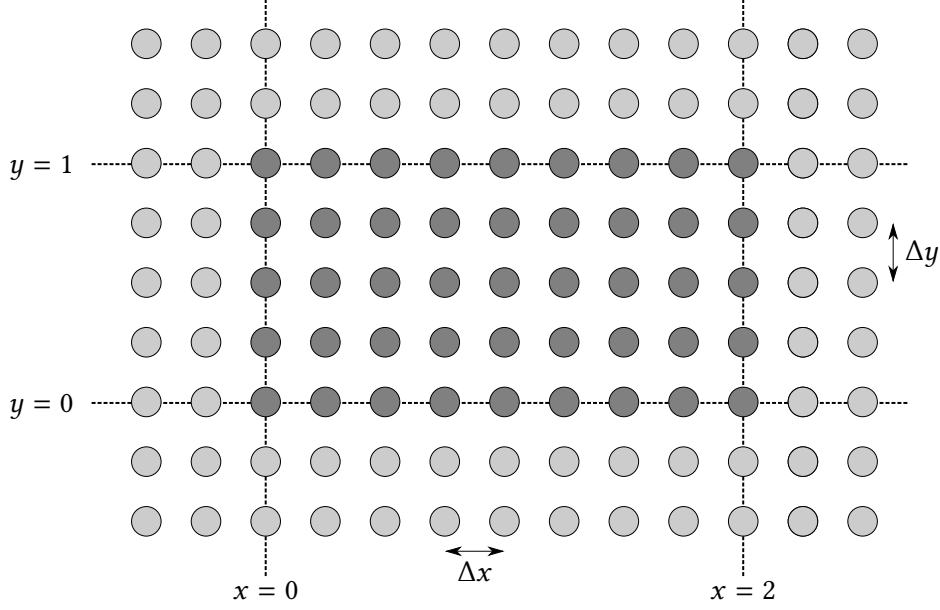


Figure 2.1: Illustration of the set of initial conditions. Dark grey blobs signify the main tracers, i.e., the tracers which discretize the computational domain $[0, 2] \times [0, 1]$. These were linearly spaced in either direction, with twice as many points in the x -direction as the y -direction, in order to generate an approximately equidistant grid. Light grey blobs signify the artificially extended grid, i.e., tracers starting originating outside of the computational domain. These were used in order to properly encapsulate the dynamics at the domain boundaries, in the analysis to follow.

was done by advecting a set of auxiliary tracer points surrounding each main point. To each tracer point $\mathbf{x}_j = (x_j, y_j)$, neighboring points defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_j^r &= (x_j + \delta x, y_j), & \mathbf{x}_j^l &= (x_j - \delta x, y_j) \\ \mathbf{x}_j^u &= (x_j, y_j + \delta y), & \mathbf{x}_j^l &= (x_j, y_j - \delta y) \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

where δx and δy are increments smaller than the grid spacings $\Delta x \simeq \Delta y$, were assigned. Even though this effectively means that five times as many particles have to be advected, the resulting accuracy in computing the Jacobian by means of the auxiliary tracers is determined by the independent variables δx and δy , theoretically allowing for arbitrary precision. The concept of the auxiliary tracers is illustrated in figure 2.2.

Because of the limited number of decimal digits which can be represented by floating point numbers, however, there is a strict lower limit to which it makes sense to lower values of the degrees of freedom δx and δy . In particular, the smallest number which can be resolved by double-precision floating point numbers is of the order 10^{-16} . When decreasing the auxiliary grid spacing, the increase in precision is quickly offset by the fact that one automatically gets allocated a smaller number of decimal digits with which one can calculate the discrete approximation of the derivatives involved in the Jacobian. This is due to the double gyre velocity field, cf. equation (2.1), being well-behaved, leading most tracers which are close

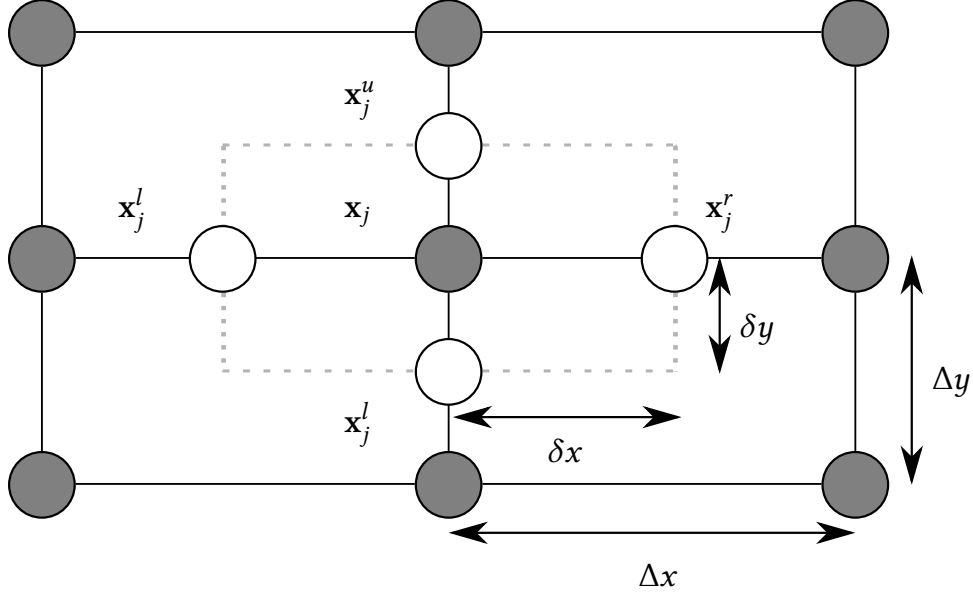


Figure 2.2: Illustration of the concept of auxiliary tracers, used in order to compute the Jacobian of the flow map, and by extension, the Cauchy-Green strain tensor field, cf. equation (1.8), more accurately. Grey blobs represent the original tracers, whereas white blobs represent the auxiliary ones.

together initially to follow very similar trajectories, often ending up with a separation distance comparable to the initial offset. For this reason, the auxiliary grid spacing $\delta x = \delta y = 10^{-5}$ was chosen — three orders of magnitude smaller than the original grid spacing, ensuring that the derivatives in the Jacobian are far more well-resolved than for the main tracers, while also leaving approximately 10 decimal digits for which there can be a difference in the final positions of the auxiliary tracers.

2.2.2 On the choice of numerical step lengths and tolerance levels

For the fixed stepsize integrators, step lengths of 10^{-1} through to 10^{-5} were used. For a step length of 10^{-5} , the total number of integration steps required in order to advect the system from $t_0 = 0$ to $t = 20$ is of order 10^6 . Because the inherent accuracy of double precision floating-point numbers is of order 10^{-16} , as mentioned previously, the total floating point error expected to arise when performing the integration for a step length of 10^{-5} is of order 10^{-10} . The least accurate of the fixed stepsize integrators under consideration, the Euler method, is a 1st order accurate globally, meaning that its local error is of 2nd order in the time step, cf. definition 2. Thus, we expect that the local error of the Euler method to be of order 10^{-10} , i.e., the same order of the accumulated floating-point errors. Reducing the time step further necessarily leads to an increase in the accumulated floating-point errors, meaning that we cannot reasonably expect more accurate results for the Euler method — at the very least, a time step of 10^{-5} appears to be a point after which there is little to be gained in terms of numerical accuracy for the Euler method by lowering the time step further. For the other fixed stepsize integrators, which are of higher order, we expect this breaking point to occur for a (somewhat) larger time step.

While the above logic does not translate directly for the adaptive stepsize integrators, empirical tests indicate that for the Bogacki-Shampine integrators, as well as the Dormand-Prince 5(4) integrator, the accumulated floating point errors caught up to the required tolerance level at some point between the levels 10^{-10} and 10^{-11} , while the Dormand-Prince 8(7) integrator held its ground until about 10^{-13} . For this reason, tolerance levels of 10^{-1} through to 10^{-10} were used for the adaptive stepsize integrators.

As previously mentioned, reference solutions must be obtained by means of a high order fixed stepsize method with a small step length, alternatively a high order adaptive stepsize method with a small tolerance level. In this case, the latter approach was chosen, and the solution obtained via the Dormand-Prince 8(7) integrator with a numerical tolerance of 10^{-12} was used as the reference.

3 Introduction

Only interested in hyperbolic LCSs as they are the only ones relevant for transport barriers.

- 3.1 COMPLEX SYSTEMS → NEED SHORTCUTS
- 3.2 INTUITIVELY, WHAT IS AN LCS?
- 3.3 LCS DEFINITION
- 3.4 DIFFERENT TYPES OF LCSS
- 3.5 HYPERBOLIC LCSS

→ Connect to application

4 Theory

- 4.1 SOLVING ODE SYSTEMS

→ General ODE systems → Numerical integrators dump → Interpolation necessary for discrete systems

- 4.2 FLOWMAPS

→ Introduce system and limitations → Introduce the concept of a flow map

4.3 LCS DEFINITION

→ Different kinds of LCSs (hyperbolic, elliptic and parabolic, cf. LCS tool) → More mathematical definitions? Ask Thör

4.4 FTLE AS LCS PREDICTOR

→ Prone to false positives and negatives → Definition somewhat arbitrary (what is a ridge)?
→ Strogatz' motivation as a simple explanation of why we consider it at all?

4.5 IDENTIFY HYPERBOLIC LCS FROM VARIATIONAL THEORY

→ Mathematically involved.

5 Tool!

5.1 ADVEKSJON

→ Si noe om system, glatte vektorfelt/hastighetsfelt → Integrasjonsteknikker

5.2 CG TENSORS

→ Auxiliary grid → Extended grids i fire retninger → Beregn CG tensors → Centered differencing, consistently for all main particles → Har med gitterpunkter på utsiden av hoveddomenet for å inkludere diskontinuitet i oppførsel i hastighetsfeltet

5.3 EIGENVALUES/EIGENVECTORS

→ Auxiliary grid → Laplacian, extended grid layer 2 for centered differencing

5.4 IDENTIFY AB DOMAIN

→ Klargjør måten vi tolket Laplacian på

5.5 COMPUTE STRAINLINES

→ Define G0 along vertical and horizontal lin → Avoid redundant computations of trajectories
→ Integrate forwards and backwards → (Notice that strainlines "fall out" of AB domain, likely due to num. error) → Special linear interpolation with local direction correction → Higher order spline interpolations are inappropriate because of oriental → discontinuities (in case of vectors) and great variance (in case of evals) → Linear spline interpolation without orientation

fix caused random turns -> at discontinuities. -> Stop criteria -> Alpha scaling introduced by Haller gave unpredictable leaps --> After linear interp? -> Used just one integrator here, because [...] -> Choice of integration step (needs test!) -> Note that this step is very sensitive to the flow map details, -> components in the strain tensors down to the 10^{-15} level. -> LCS results sensitive to continuous failure length, needed to increase --> it in order to replicate results from Haller due to different AB domain

5.6 IDENTIFY INTERSECTIONS

-> Which lines and why (maximize intersections with as few lines as possible) -> Include all intersections between a strainline and a vert / horz linear

5.7 IDENTIFY NEIGHBORS

-> Neighbor length essential for LCS results

5.8 SELECT LCSS

-> Identify LCS as local maxima of λ_2 which are also long enough -> Needs at least one neighbor other than itself -> **Cut tail of strainlines which exit AB domain and do not return** -> That part is no LCS! -> Parts/sections of strainlines may qualify as LCSs

6 Experiments

-> What did we try and why?

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