

More formal symplectic integration

In the neighborhood of a reference trajectory $\vec{\mathbf{X}} = \widehat{\mathbf{X}}(s)$, we can expand the equation of motion about $\widehat{\mathbf{X}}(s)$. Equation of the reference trajectory becomes:

$$\frac{d\widehat{X}_i}{ds} = \sum_{j=1}^6 S_{ij} \frac{\partial H}{\partial X_j}(\widehat{\mathbf{X}}), \quad \text{or in matrix notation:} \quad \frac{d\widehat{\mathbf{X}}}{ds} = \mathbf{S} \nabla_6 H.$$

Expanding both sides in Taylor series yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{ds}(\widehat{X}_i + \Delta X_i) &= \sum_{j=1}^6 S_{ij} \frac{\partial H}{\partial X_j}(\widehat{\mathbf{X}} + \Delta \mathbf{X}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^6 S_{ij} \left[\frac{\partial H}{\partial X_j}(\widehat{\mathbf{X}}) + \sum_{k=1}^6 \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial X_j \partial X_k}(\widehat{\mathbf{X}}) \Delta X_k + \dots \right]. \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d\Delta X_i}{ds} = \sum_{j=1}^6 \sum_{k=1}^6 S_{ij} \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial X_j \partial X_k}(\widehat{\mathbf{X}}) \Delta X_k + \dots$$



The matrix of second derivatives $C_{jk} = \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial X_j \partial X_k}(\hat{X}) = C_{kj}$.

In matrix notation, our 1st order equation is

$$\frac{d\Delta\hat{\mathbf{X}}}{ds} = \mathbf{SC} \Delta\hat{\mathbf{X}}. \quad (\text{Type of equation Sophus Lie invented his algebra for.})$$

So for an infinitesimal step (from s_ν to $s_{\nu+1}$), we have

$$\Delta\hat{\mathbf{X}}_{\nu+1} = \Delta\hat{\mathbf{X}}_\nu + \Delta\hat{\mathbf{X}}_\nu \mathbf{SC} ds = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G} ds) \Delta\hat{\mathbf{X}}_\nu.$$

For the case where \mathbf{C} is constant, the integration gives

$$\mathbf{M}(s) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{SC} \frac{s}{n} \right)^n = e^{\mathbf{SC} s}.$$

If \mathbf{C} is not constant then we must have something more like

$$\mathbf{M}(s) = \lim_{ds \rightarrow 0} e^{\mathbf{SC}(s-ds)ds} \dots e^{\mathbf{SC}(2ds)ds} e^{\mathbf{SC}(ds)ds} e^{\mathbf{SC}(0)ds}.$$

How do we approximate this?



A general $2n \times 2n$ -symmetric matrix has

$$\frac{(2n)^2 - 2n}{2} + 2n = (2n + 1)n$$

degrees of freedom. Since a $n \times n$ -symplectic matrix can be written as the exponentiation of $\mathbf{S}\mathbf{C}$, the symplectic matrices also have $(2n + 1)n$ free parameters.

n	$2n$	d.o.f.
1	2	3
2	4	10
3	6	21
4	8	36

For example any 4×4 symmetric real matrix can be written as

$$\mathbf{S} = \sum_{j=1}^{10} \alpha_j \mathbf{c}_j,$$

where the α_j are real coefficients and the 10 \mathbf{c}_j form a *basis set* of the 4×4 symmetric matrices.



For the 4×4 symmetric matrices, one possible basis is

$$\mathbf{c}_j : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{in the order of } j \text{ from 1 to 10.}$$

The ten products $G_j = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{c}_j$ form a set of generators 4×4 symplectic matrices which may be written in the form

$$\exp \left(\sum_{j=1}^{10} \mathbf{G}_j \alpha_j \right).$$



The product of two exponentials of different matrices can be combined into a single exponential of a third matrix:

$$e^{\mathbf{X}}e^{\mathbf{Y}} = e^{\mathbf{Z}}.$$

If $[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}] = 0$, then we have simply

$$e^{(\mathbf{X}+\mathbf{Y})} = e^{\mathbf{X}} e^{\mathbf{Y}}.$$

However if the matrices \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} do not commute, then \mathbf{Z} can be calculated from the the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff (BCH) formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Z} &= \log(e^{\mathbf{X}}e^{\mathbf{Y}}) \\ &= \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y} + \frac{1}{2}[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}] + \frac{1}{12}([\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}] + [\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}]) + \frac{1}{24}[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}] + \mathcal{O}(5), \end{aligned}$$

where the extended commutator notation indicates multiple commutators nested to the right:

$$[a, b, c] = [a, [b, c]], \quad [a, b, c, d] = [a, [b, [c, d]]].$$



The Zassenhaus formula (sort of like the reverse process of the BCH formula) splits a single exponentiation of the sum of two matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} into a product of two exponentials of the two matrices times higher order exponentials of commutators:

$$e^{(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})h} = e^{\mathbf{A}h} e^{\mathbf{B}h} e^{-[\mathbf{A},\mathbf{B}]h^2/2} e^{(2[\mathbf{B},\mathbf{A},\mathbf{B}]+[\mathbf{A},\mathbf{A},\mathbf{B}])h^3/6} e^{\mathcal{O}(h^4)} \dots \dots,$$

where the parameter h is a small integration step.

To second order in h , this can be written as (see Problem 3–10)

$$e^{(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})h} = e^{\mathbf{A}h/2} e^{\mathbf{B}h} e^{\mathbf{A}h/2} + \mathcal{O}(h^3). \quad (\text{ZH2})$$

To second order an integration step $e^{\mathbf{S}Ch}$ can be expanded into

$$\exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mathbf{G}_j h\right) = \left(\prod_{j=1}^n \exp(\mathbf{G}_j h/2)\right) \left(\prod_{j=n}^1 \exp(\mathbf{G}_j h/2)\right) + \mathcal{O}(h^3),$$

by successive applications of Eq. (ZH2).



If we partition the sum in $\exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{10} \mathbf{G}_j \alpha_j\right)$ into

$$\mathbf{A} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{G}_1, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{B} = \sum_{n=2}^{10} \alpha_n \mathbf{G}_n,$$

then the factor

$$e^{\mathbf{A}h/2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 h/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 h/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \mathcal{O}(h^3),$$

produces a drift matrix of length $\alpha_1 h/2$ up to second order in h , and the factor $e^{\mathbf{B}h}$ corresponds to a thin element kick.

The end result is a thin kick sandwiched between two drifts.

- Drift-Kick codes are symplectic. (e. g. Teapot by Talman and Schachinger)
 - Kicks can even be of higher order (nonlinear).
- Nonlinear kicks with drifts are a standard way to treat sextupoles, octupoles, etc. even in codes with thick lens elements.



“Time-symmetric” integrators

If we apply the BCH formula twice to the time-symmetric* product

$$e^{\mathbf{W}} = e^{\mathbf{X}h} e^{\mathbf{Y}h} e^{\mathbf{X}h},$$

then it must be that

$$\mathbf{W} = (2\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y})h + \frac{1}{6} ([\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}] - [\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}]) h^3 + \mathcal{O}(h^5).$$

If an integrator formula $I(h) = e^{\mathbf{g}_1 h + \mathbf{g}_2 h^2 + \mathbf{g}_3 h^3 + \dots}$, with matrices \mathbf{g}_j is “time reversible”, then we must have $I(h)I(-h) = 1$. The BCH formula gives to lowest order:

$$I(h)I(-h) = e^{-\mathbf{g}_1 h/2} e^{\mathbf{g}_2 h^2} e^{-\mathbf{g}_1 h/2} e^{\mathbf{g}_1 h/2} e^{\mathbf{g}_2 h^2} e^{\mathbf{g}_1 h/2} + \mathcal{O}(h^3) = 1.$$
$$e^{\mathbf{g}_1 h/2} e^{-\mathbf{g}_1 h/2} = 1 = e^{\mathbf{g}_2 h^2} + \mathcal{O}(h^3).$$

So we must have $\mathbf{g}_2 = 0$.

* This symmetry is typically referred to as time-symmetric even when the integration variable may be the s -coordinate rather than time, since s is the independent time-like parameter of the Hamiltonian.



Repeating this with $\mathbf{g}_2 = 0$, now the lowest term would require that $\mathbf{g}_4 = 0$.

By induction, all the even powers of h in $I(h)$ vanish: $\mathbf{g}_{2j} = 0$.

I. e. $\log(I(h))$ must be an odd function of h , if $I(h)$ is time-reversible.

Higher order integrators may be constructed from the second order integration function,

$$I_2(h) = e^{\mathbf{A}h/2} e^{\mathbf{B}h} e^{\mathbf{A}h/2} = e^{\mathbf{g}_1 h + \mathbf{g}_3 h^3 + \dots}.$$

Yoshida constructed a 4th-order integrator from a time-symmetric product of second order integrators:

$$I_4(h) = I_2(ah) I_2(bh) I_2(ah),$$

where a and b are parameters to be determined.

$$I_4(h) = e^{(2a+b)\mathbf{g}_1 h + (2a^3+b^3)\mathbf{g}_3 h^3 + \dots}, = e^{(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})h + \mathcal{O}(h^5)}.$$

To 4th-order this requires that $1 = 2a + b$, and $0 = 2a^3 + b^3$.

$$a = \frac{1}{2 - 2^{1/3}}, \quad \text{and} \quad b = -\frac{2^{1/3}}{2 - 2^{1/3}}. \quad (\text{Note typo in book on p. 61.})$$



Groups

A *group* is a set G with a binary operation on its elements having the properties:

- i. for any two elements $a, b \in G$, then $ab \in G$;
- ii. if $a, b, c \in G$, then $a(bc) = (ab)c$;
- iii. there is a unique element $e \in G$ such that $ea = a = ae$ for any element $a \in G$;
- iv. for each $a \in G$ there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $a^{-1}a = e = aa^{-1}$.

Familiar examples:

1. the integers \mathbb{Z} with the addition operator.
2. *general linear group* $\text{Gl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ of $n \times n$ -square real matrices with nonzero determinant.
3. *special linear group* $\text{Sl}(n, \mathbb{R})$ of $n \times n$ -square real matrices with unit determinant.
4. *orthogonal group* of rotations $\text{O}(n, \mathbb{R})$ (Includes reflections.)
5. *special unitary group* $\text{SU}(n, \mathbb{C})$.
6. *symplectic group* $\text{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R})$. (Representation depends on choice of \mathbf{S} .)



Lie algebras

A *Lie algebra* is a vector space over a field (for our case either the real numbers \mathbb{R} or complex numbers \mathbb{C}) with an additional binary operation $[\cdot, \cdot]$ called the *Lie bracket* or *commutator*. The Lie bracket operator satisfies the following properties for any elements x, y, z in the Lie algebra and a, b in the field:

1. Bilinearity:

$$\begin{aligned} [ax + by, z] &= a[x, z] + b[y, z], & (\text{correction to “muddlement” in §3.8.1}) \\ [z, ax + by] &= a[z, x] + b[z, y]; \end{aligned}$$

2. Anticommutativity:

$$[x, y] = -[y, x];$$

3. Jacobi Identity:

$$[x, [y, z]] + [y, [z, x]] + [z, [x, y]] = 0,$$

with 0 here being the identity element in the vector space.



Lie group

A *Lie group* is basically a group which is also a *differentiable manifold*.

For an example consider the 6-d surface defined by a conserved Hamiltonian:

$$\mathcal{H}(x, x', y, y', z, \delta; s) = -\frac{qA_s}{p_0} - \frac{x}{\rho} - \frac{x\delta}{\rho} + \frac{1}{2}(w_x^2 + w_y^2) + \dots = \text{a constant.}$$

Given a particle with initial position and momentum lying on this surface, the particle's trajectory will remain on this surface.

As we have seen, the transport matrices are elements of the group $\text{Sp}(6, \mathbb{R})$.



Quadratic Lie Groups

A *quadratic Lie group* G_c defined by a group representation of $n \times n$ nonsingular (i. e., the inverse must exist) complex matrices:

$$G_c = \{\mathbf{M} \in \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{C}) : \mathbf{M}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{M}^\dagger = \mathbf{J}\},$$

where $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$ is general linear group of complex $n \times n$ matrices, and where \mathbf{J} is any particular matrix in $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$.

Note that the dagger indicates the Hermitian conjugate: $\mathbf{M}^\dagger = (\mathbf{M}^*)^\text{T}$, i. e. the transpose of the complex conjugate of the matrix.

The corresponding *Lie algebra* can be represented by

$$\mathfrak{g}_c = \{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{J} + \mathbf{J}\mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{0}\},$$

where $\mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is the set of all $n \times n$ complex matrices.



If we consider only real matrices then

$$G_r = \{\mathbf{M} \in \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{R}) : \mathbf{M}\mathbf{J}\mathbf{M}^T = \mathbf{J}\}, \quad \text{and}$$

$$\mathfrak{g}_r = \{\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{J} + \mathbf{J}\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{0}\},$$

where $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$ is the general linear group of $n \times n$ nonsingular real matrices and \mathbf{J} is a particular matrix in $\text{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$.

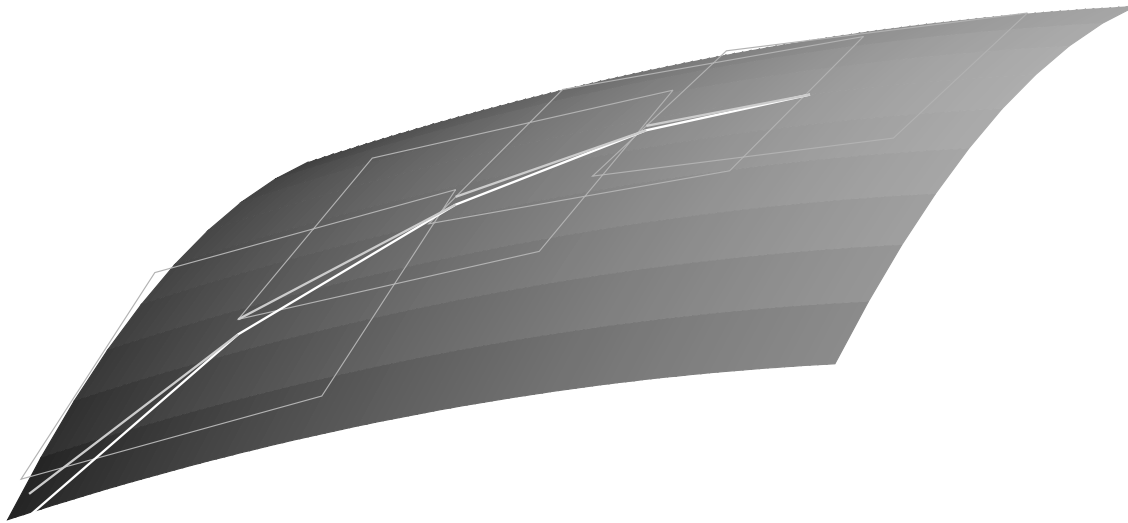
Some examples other than the symplectic group $\text{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R})$:

- The unitary group: $U(n)$ with $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{I}$.
 - The special unitary group restricted to have $|\mathbf{M}| = 1$.
- The orthogonal group: $O(n) \in U(n)$ restricted to real matrices with $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{I}$.
 - The special orthogonal group restricted to have $|\mathbf{M}| = 1$.

- The Lorentz group $\text{SO}(3, 1, \mathbb{R})$ with $\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.



- $\text{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}; \mathbf{S})$ describes the symplectic geometry of trajectories flowing on the manifold's surface.
- The corresponding Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}; \mathbf{S})$ describes the geometry of a plane tangent to the surface at a point.
 - It approximates a linear neighborhood of the surface around the point.



Lift function:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi &: \mathfrak{sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}; \mathbf{S}) \rightarrow \text{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}) \\ \Phi^{-1} &: \text{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}; \mathbf{S}) \end{aligned}$$

The obvious choice for Φ is an exponential map.

Four integration steps for a trajectory with four integration steps in tangent planes and the resulting integrated trajectory projected back onto the manifold of the Hamiltonian by a *lift* function Φ .



Cayley transforms

Cayley showed that an orthogonal matrix \mathbf{Q} could be factored as

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A})^{-1},$$

where \mathbf{A} is antisymmetric $\mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{A}^T$.

$$\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{Q})(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{Q})^{-1}.$$

Orthogonalization of an almost orthogonal matrix

Suppose we have an almost (but not quite) orthogonal matrix \mathbf{Q}_0 .

1. Calculate $\mathbf{A}_0 = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{Q}_0)(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{Q}_0)^{-1}$. \mathbf{A}_0 will not be quite antisymmetric.
2. Calculate $\mathbf{A}_1 = (\mathbf{A}_0 - \mathbf{A}_0^T)/2$. Now $\mathbf{A}_1^T = -\mathbf{A}_1$.
3. Calculate $\mathbf{Q}_1 = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}_1)(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}_1)^{-1}$. \mathbf{Q}_1 is orthogonal and close to \mathbf{Q}_0 .



Healy's symplectification algorithm

A symplectic matrix \mathbf{M} may be written in the form*

$$\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{S}\mathbf{W})(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{S}\mathbf{W})^{-1},$$

if and only if \mathbf{W} is a symmetric matrix.

Inverse transform: $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{M})^{-1}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{M})$.

The symplectification algorithm

If \mathbf{M}_0 is almost symplectic, then calculate

1. $\mathbf{W}_0 = \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{M}_0)^{-1}(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{M}_0)$,
2. $\mathbf{W}_1 = (\mathbf{W}_0 + \mathbf{W}_0^T)/2$,
3. $\mathbf{M}_1 = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{S}\mathbf{W}_1)(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{S}\mathbf{W}_1)^{-1}$.

\mathbf{M}_1 will be an approximation of \mathbf{M}_0 which is now symplectic.

* Provided that $|\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{S}\mathbf{W}| \neq 0$ and $|\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{M}| \neq 0$.

